ONE DREAM
CAN CHANGE THE WORLD

SELMA

TEACHER'S CURRICULUM GUIDE

GRADES 6 - 12

SELMA

Reflections of Selma

“There's never been a major motion picture about Dr. King where he's been the center of the story. In 50 years since these events happened, in 47 years since he was murdered, there's never been a major motion picture about King.

He's really been reduced to a catch phrase. Four words: "I have a dream." And the man was a radical! He was a visionary. He was brilliant and complicated, he had an ego, and he was unsure. He was a man of faith who wasn't always faithful, and he was a brilliant orator, and he was an intellectual. He was a strategist. He was a preacher; he was his father's son, and he didn't want to be in the family business—his father was a preacher, his grandfather was a preacher. He was married to a woman that was older than him; people don't know that Coretta was older than him. I mean, he was *fascinating*! And all you know is "I have a dream" and that he was assassinated. So, I think that's criminal.”[1]

"Dr. King achieved greatness. I want students to know that ordinary people can do the same." [2]

“It’s not just King’s story. It’s the people all around him, all the foot soldiers. Anyone who marched, anyone who left their jobs, anyone who put their life at risk, anyone who did anything around that movement. What I’m trying to communicate is that anyone, no matter where you are, what you do, where you come from, you can change the world. These were regular people, ordinary people. Ordinary people can do extraordinary things. Ordinary people can change the world through hope, love. Through action.” [3]

“What we were trying to do with this whole film is to just elevate it from a page in your history book and really just get it into your body — into your DNA.” [4]

- Ava DuVernay, director of 'Selma'

Sources:

1. The Atlantic, December 15, 2014, “A Movie to Rescue Martin Luther King Jr. From 'I Have a Dream'” by Joe Reid
2. Huffington Post Education, January 8, 2015, “What ‘Selma” Can Teach in the Classroom,” by Mia Toschi
3. Crosswalk.com, January 1, 2015, “Selma, A Work of Divine Inspiration and Timing by Jeffrey Huston
4. NPR – Fresh Air with Terry Gross, January 8, 2015, The Sounds, Space And Spirit Of 'Selma': A Director's Take

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Table of Contents

Common Core State Standards for English, Language Arts & Literacy In History/Social Studies Science, and Technical Studies 6–12 and Lesson Plan Correlations for *Selma*

The following standards offer a focus for instruction each year and help ensure that students gain adequate exposure to a range of texts and tasks. Rigor is also infused through the requirement that students read increasingly complex texts through the grades. Students advancing through the grades are expected to meet each year's grade-specific standards and retain or further develop skills and understandings mastered in preceding grades.

The grades 6–12 standards define what students should understand and be able to do by the end of each subsequent grade. They correspond to the College and Career Readiness (CCR) anchor standards below by number. The CCR and grade-specific standards are necessary complements—the former providing broad standards—that together define the skills and understandings that all students must demonstrate.

College and Career Readiness anchor Standards for Reading:

Key Ideas and details

1. Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it; cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text
2. Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas.
3. Analyze how and why individuals, events, and ideas develop and interact over the course of a text.

Craft and Structure -

4. Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone.

5. Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.

6. Assess how point of view or purpose shapes the content and style of a text.

Integration of Knowledge and Ideas

7. Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse formats and media, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words.

8. Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence.

9. Analyze how two or more texts address similar themes or topics in order to build knowledge or to compare the approaches the authors take.

Range of reading and Level of text Complexity

10. Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently.

College and Career Readiness anchor Standards for Speaking and Listening:

Comprehension and Collaboration

1. Prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.

2. Integrate and evaluate information presented in diverse media and formats, including visually, quantitatively, and orally.

3. Evaluate a speaker's point of view, reasoning, and use of evidence and rhetoric.

Presentation of Knowledge and Ideas

4. Present information, findings, and supporting evidence such that listeners can follow the line of reasoning and the organization, development, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

5. Make strategic use of digital media and visual displays of data to express information and enhance understanding of presentations.

6. Adapt speech to a variety of contexts and communicative tasks, demonstrating command of formal English when indicated or appropriate.

College and Career Readiness anchor Standards for Writing:

Text types and Purpose

1. Write arguments to support claims in an analysis of substantive topics or texts, using valid reasoning and relevant and sufficient evidence.

2. Write informative/explanatory texts to examine and convey complex ideas and information clearly and accurately through the effective selection, organization, and analysis of content.

3. Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences.

Production and distribution of Writing -

4. Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

5. Develop and strengthen writing as needed by planning, revising, editing, rewriting, or trying a new approach.

6. Use technology, including the Internet, to produce and publish writing and to interact and collaborate with others.

Research to Build and Present Knowledge

7. Conduct short as well as more sustained research projects based on focused questions, demonstrating understanding of the subject under investigation.

College and Career Readiness anchor Standards for Language:

Conventions of Standard English

1. Demonstrate command of the conventions of Standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

2. Demonstrate command of the conventions of Standard English capitalization, punctuation, and spelling when writing.

Knowledge of Language -

3. Apply knowledge of language to understand how language functions in different contexts, to make effective choices for meaning or style, and to comprehend more fully when reading or listening.

Vocabulary acquisition and Use -

4. Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases by using context clues, analyzing meaningful word parts, and consulting general and specialized reference materials, as appropriate.

5. Demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings.

6. Acquire and use accurately a range of general academic and domain-specific words and phrases sufficient for reading, writing, speaking, and listening at the college and career readiness level;

7. Demonstrate independence in gathering vocabulary knowledge when considering a word or phrase important to comprehension or expression

8. Gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources, assess the credibility and accuracy of each source, and integrate the information while avoiding plagiarism.

9. Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research.

Range of Writing

10. Write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, reflection, and revision) and shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences.

The Standards for Mathematical Practice

The Standards for Mathematical Practice describe varieties of expertise that mathematics educators at all levels should seek to develop in their students. These practices rest on important "processes and proficiencies" with longstanding importance in mathematics education. The first of these are the process standards of problem solving, reasoning and proof, communication, representation, and connections. The second are the strands of mathematical proficiency-adaptive reasoning, strategic competence, conceptual understanding (comprehension of mathematical concepts, operations and relations), procedural fluency (skill in carrying out procedures flexibly, accurately, efficiently and appropriately), and productive disposition (habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile, coupled with a belief in diligence and one's own efficacy).

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP1
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP2
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP3
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP4
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP5
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP6
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP7
CCSS.Math.Practice.MP8

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP1 Make sense of problems and persevere in solving them - Mathematically proficient students start by explaining to themselves the meaning of a problem and looking for entry points to its solution. They analyze givens, constraints, relationships, and goals. They make conjectures about the form and meaning of the solution and plan a solution pathway rather than simply jumping into a solution attempt. They consider analogous problems, and try special cases and simpler forms of the original problem in order to gain insight into its solution. They monitor and evaluate their progress and change course if necessary. Older students might, depending on the context of the problem, transform algebraic expressions or change the viewing window on their graphing calculator to get the information they need. Mathematically proficient students can explain correspondences between equations, verbal descriptions, tables, and graphs or draw diagrams of important features and relationships, graph

data, and search for regularity or trends. Younger students might rely on using concrete objects or pictures to help conceptualize and solve a problem. Mathematically proficient students check their answers to problems using a different method, and they continually ask themselves, "Does this make sense?" They can understand the approaches of others to solving complex problems and identify correspondences between different approaches.

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP2 Reason abstractly and quantitatively. Mathematically proficient students make sense of quantities and their relationships in problem situations. They bring two complementary abilities to bear on problems involving quantitative relationships: the ability to *decontextualize*—to abstract a given situation and represent it symbolically and manipulate the representing symbols as if they have a life of their own, without necessarily attending to their referents—and the ability to *contextualize*, to pause as needed during the manipulation process in order to probe into the referents for the symbols involved. Quantitative reasoning entails habits of creating a coherent representation of the problem at hand; considering the units involved; attending to the meaning of quantities, not just how to compute them; and knowing and flexibly using different properties of operations and objects.

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP3 Construct viable arguments and critique the reasoning of others. Mathematically proficient students understand and use stated assumptions, definitions, and previously established results in constructing arguments. They make conjectures and build a logical progression of statements to explore the truth of their conjectures. They are able to analyze situations by breaking them into cases, and can recognize and use counterexamples. They justify their conclusions, communicate them to others, and respond to the arguments of others. They reason inductively about data, making plausible arguments that take into account the context from which the data arose. Mathematically proficient students are also able to compare the effectiveness of two plausible arguments, distinguish correct logic or reasoning from that which is flawed, and—if there is a flaw in an argument—explain what it is. Students can construct arguments using concrete referents such as objects, drawings, diagrams, and actions. Such arguments can make sense and be correct, even though they are not generalized or made formal until later grades. Later, students learn to determine domains to which an argument applies. Students at all grades can listen or read the arguments of others, decide whether they make sense, and ask useful questions to clarify or improve the arguments.

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP4 Model with mathematics. Mathematically proficient students can apply the mathematics they know to solve problems arising in everyday life, society, and the workplace. In early grades, this might be as simple as writing an addition equation to describe a situation. In middle grades, a student might apply proportional reasoning to plan a school event or analyze a problem in the community. By high school, a student might use geometry to solve a design problem or use a function to describe how one quantity of interest depends on another. Mathematically proficient students who can apply what they know are comfortable making assumptions and approximations to simplify a complicated situation, realizing that these may need revision later. They are able to identify important quantities in a practical situation and map their relationships using such tools as diagrams, two-way tables, graphs, flowcharts and formulas.

They can analyze those relationships mathematically to draw conclusions. They routinely interpret their mathematical results in the context of the situation and reflect on whether the results make sense, possibly improving the model if it has not served its purpose.

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP5 Use appropriate tools strategically. Mathematically proficient students consider the available tools when solving a mathematical problem. These tools might include pencil and paper, concrete models, a ruler, a protractor, a calculator, a spreadsheet, a computer algebra system, a statistical package, or dynamic geometry software. Proficient students are sufficiently familiar with tools appropriate for their grade or course to make sound decisions about when each of these tools might be helpful, recognizing both the insight to be gained and their limitations. For example, mathematically proficient high school students analyze graphs of functions and solutions generated using a graphing calculator. They detect possible errors by strategically using estimation and other mathematical knowledge. When making mathematical models, they know that technology can enable them to visualize the results of varying assumptions, explore consequences, and compare predictions with data. Mathematically proficient students at various grade levels are able to identify relevant external mathematical resources, such as digital content located on a website, and use them to pose or solve problems. They are able to use technological tools to explore and deepen their understanding of concepts.

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP6 Attend to precision. Mathematically proficient students try to communicate precisely to others. They try to use clear definitions in discussion with others and in their own reasoning. They state the meaning of the symbols they choose, including using the equal sign consistently and appropriately. They are careful about specifying units of measure, and labeling axes to clarify the correspondence with quantities in a problem. They calculate accurately and efficiently, express numerical answers with a degree of precision appropriate for the problem context. In the elementary grades, students give carefully formulated explanations to each other. By the time they reach high school they have learned to examine claims and make explicit use of definitions.

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP7 Look for and make use of structure. Mathematically proficient students look closely to discern a pattern or structure. They recognize the significance of an existing line in a geometric figure and can use the strategy of drawing an auxiliary line for solving problems. They also can step back for an overview and shift perspective. They can see complicated things, such as some algebraic expressions, as single objects or as being composed of several objects

CCSS.Math.Practice.MP8 Look for and express regularity in repeated reasoning. Mathematically proficient students notice if calculations are repeated, and look both for general methods and for shortcuts. As they work to solve a problem, mathematically proficient students maintain oversight of the process, while attending to the details. They continually evaluate the reasonableness of their intermediate results.

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Common Core Correlations for *Selma* Curriculum Lessons

- Lesson #1 - A Dream Deferred - the Right to Vote (ELA/History/Civics) – ELA/History anchor for Reading - 1,2,3,6,8,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,3,4,6 for Writing 1,2,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10

- Lesson #2- Life in Jim Crow South and the Civil Rights Movement (ELA, History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6 - Writing 1,2,3.4,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10

- Lesson #3 We Hold These Truths to be Self-Evident…(ELA, History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6, - Writing 1,2,3.4,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10

- Lesson # 4 Chronicling by Illustration – Storyboarding the March(ELA, Art, History) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6 - Writing 3,6,7- for Language 1,6,8, 9

- Lesson #5 - The March to Selma – Mapping the Journey - An Applied Geography Project (Geography ELA, History) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,6, 7,8,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6- Writing 1,2,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10, MP anchors - 1,2,3,4,5,7,8

- Lesson #6 – The March to Selma – The Mathematics of the Journey An Applied Mathematics Project (Mathematics, Geography, ELA, History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading MP anchors 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8

- Lesson # 7 - WE Shall Overcome - The Collective Involvement of A People (ELA/ History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6 - Writing 1,2,3.4,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10

- Lesson # 8 - Nothing Happens in a Vacuum - Creating a Timeline of Events (Mathematics, History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading - 1,2,3,6,8,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,3,4,6 for Writing 1,2,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10, MP 1,2,3,4,8

- Lesson Plan # 9The Right to Vote – Comparative Movements (ELA/History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6 - Writing 1,2,3.4,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10

- Lesson #10 – Selma – Eyewitnesses to History (ELA, History/Civics) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,8, 9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6 - Writing 1,2,3.4,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10

- Lesson #11 - Documenting the Movement – Selma in Real Time (ELA, History/Civics, Mathematics) ELA/History anchor for Reading 1,2,3,4,6, 7,8, 9,10 For Speaking and Listening 1,2, 3,4,5,6 - Writing 1,2,3.4,5,6,7- for Language 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8, 9,10, MP 1,3,4

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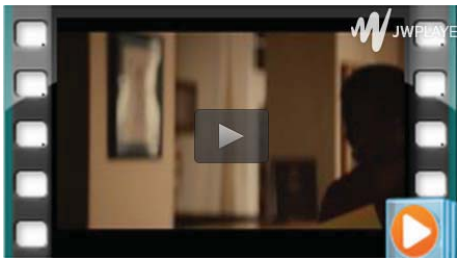
SELMA VIDEO RESOURCES

Courtesy Paramount Pictures

APPLICATION

Download or stream "Application," an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features Annie Lee Cooper (Oprah Winfrey) as she attempts to register to vote in a scene from SELMA.



GIVE US THE VOTE

Download or stream "Give Us The Vote," an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (David Oyelowo) speaking to a group in a scene from SELMA.

JOIN US

Download or stream “Join Us,” an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (David Oyelowo) putting out a call to people everywhere to come to Selma and join the march.

NEXT GREAT BATTLE

Download or stream “Next Great Battle,” an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features activists Diane Nash (Tessa Thompson), Reverend Ralph Abernathy (Colman Domingo), Reverend Andrew Young (André Holland), and Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (David Oyelowo) as they journey to Selma to organize the march to Montgomery.

SELMA TRAILER

Download or stream the official trailer from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans.

The History Behind the Exigency for ***Selma*** - A Century-long Struggle of Constitutional Promises, Barriers, and Civic Engagements for Voting Rights for Educators

President Lyndon Johnson signing the Civil Rights Act of 1964 into law, with Martin Luther King, Jr., looking on.
Photograph by Cecil Stoughton
Photograph courtesy of National Archives and Record Administration, LBJ Library #276-10-64

At times history and fate meet at a single time in a single place to shape a turning point in man's unending search for freedom. So it was at Lexington and Concord. So it was a century ago at Appomattox. So it was last week in Selma, Alabama. There is no Negro problem. There is no southern problem. There is no northern problem. There is only an American problem. Many of the issues of civil rights are very complex and most difficult. But about this there can and should be no argument. Every American citizen must have the right to vote...Yet the harsh fact is that in many places in this country men and women are kept from voting simply because they are Negroes... No law that we now have on the books...can insure the right to vote when local officials are determined to deny it... There is no Constitutional issue here. The command of the Constitution is plain. There is no moral issue. It is wrong--deadly wrong--to deny any of your fellow Americans the right to vote in this country. There is no issue of States' rights or National rights. There is only the struggle for human rights.

President Lyndon B. Johnson
Introducing the Voting Rights Act to Congress, March 15, 1965

For Educators to teach ***Selma*** in a way that allows it to be fully utilized as an expeditionary learning experience outside the classroom as well as enter a library of classroom resources - teachers must see its ability as a film to touchstone and highlight the various historical markers that have defined the long struggle and hard won fight for the civil rights promises that were denied a large sector of American citizens for more than a century. As African American pursued

self-definition after the leviathan of the albatross of slavery, and, in the process expanded democracy for all Americans, the concept of freedom and the promises of citizenship had been central to the struggle. In pursuit of freedom, African Americans have frequently differed in their views concerning timing, strategies, and tactics but ALL have sought to fight the social and economic foundations of segregation within the society in which they found themselves. But within this rich diversity, the voices from the pages of American history have produced a common cry of freedom—a freedom to live and pursue their grandest hopes for themselves and their children, to have a voice and a say in their lives and the direction of the country, to serve others, and to build a nation dedicated to justice.

Photo Courtesy Paramount Pictures

Freedom has never been bestowed from above, but has been won from struggle from the masses for the masses. "Freedom" has never been "free." There have been many battlegrounds, successes and failures, challenges and setbacks but there can be no doubt that by testing the limits of democracy, the African American struggle in America has profoundly altered the meaning of freedom for all Americans. Fannie Lou Hamer noted, "By and large, this feeling that

there is a destined date with freedom was not limited to a drive for personal freedom, or even freedom for the Negro in the South. Repeatedly, it was emphasized that the movement was concerned with the moral implications of racial discrimination for the 'whole world' and the 'human race.' "

SELMA TRAILER

Download or stream the official trailer from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans.

The struggles waged by African Americans—from slave revolts, to the development of the NAACP, to the participation in civic mobilization for voting rights—allowed people to perceive themselves as real actors in their own living history. With every generation, the boundaries that maintained inequality were radically reinterpreted and renegotiated as men and women, black and white, worked tirelessly to realize the potential of American democracy. This is a historical lesson, derived from the lessons from the past and reflective in the lessons of today that young Americans today must learn. Through their own direct action and civic participation, constructive, meaningful change that addresses social problems and unfairness is possible. This is one of the transcending lesson in the film ***Selma***, and this is one of the unifying themes that will make ***Selma*** and its companion lessons a film that can be used in the classrooms for generations to come.

For some the promise of true equality remains unfulfilled. However, it is this notion that movements can and will change the world we live in that makes the legacy of the African American freedom movement so important. How can these tales of resistance and of mobilization for change inform the way that we move toward a more equitable world? What are the struggles that still exist? These are the questions that we hope that ***Selma*** and the educational resources surrounding is will raise in the classroom.

The Civil Rights Movement can be one of the most rewarding moments of history to teach precisely because it is a moment of tremendous change, in which ordinary women and men struggled for and won the expansion of democracy. The Civil Rights Movement is a story of profound leadership, mass mobilization and organization. The Civil Rights Movement resonates

particularly well with young students as they begin to think through and analyze the effects of the movement on their own schooling, neighborhoods and culture.

This resource seeks to expand the conversation both of leadership and what makes a movement. Leaders in the Civil Rights Movement were complicated, dynamic people who had a myriad of ideas and strategies which shifted over time: the dichotomies and the intersections between Dr. Reverend Martin Luther King Jr., Reverend Ralph Abernathy, Rev. James Bevels, Stokeley Carmichael, John Lewis, President Lyndon B. Johnson Amelia Boynton Robinson, Jimmie Lee Jackson and many of the other integral heroes and sheroes of the civil rights movement and, as highlighted in the movie ***Selma***, tell us about these figures changing ideas on how to achieve freedom. In many ways, as time wore on, these leaders' ideologies were much more similar than history books have made them out to be in the moment. Leaders in the Civil Rights Movement were not just men either. Women from Ella Baker to Fannie Lou Hamer, Septima Clark, and Amelia Boynton Robinson to JoAnn Robinson were instrumental in mobilizing people, devising new strategies and overseeing successful protest campaigns. Their stories find relevance in the historical drama that is depicted in the film ***Selma***.

Lorraine Touissant portrays Amelia Boynton Robinson in *Selma*. Courtesy Paramount Pictures.

The Civil Rights Movement occurred, and was in many ways successful, not because of leadership, but because of the ordinary women and men across all religions, races, and cultures who participated, risking their jobs, their security and in many instances, their lives, to fight against an oppressive system of segregation. This teacher's resource for ***Selma*** seeks to stress the importance of ordinary people doing extraordinary things as students engage and interpret this past.

The Civil Rights Movement is part of a larger struggle for freedom within American history. It was not a homogenous movement but one that incorporated many ideas, strategies and beliefs. It was a struggle waged in the North as well as the South; it stressed integration, as well as new nationalist identities; and its participants were a diverse cross section of Americans. Students should be encouraged to find links between the materials offered in this resource to other freedom struggles in American history. The movement's successful desegregation efforts

produced the context for the 1965 liberalization of U.S. immigration laws, and set a precedent for modeling and process to expand the rights of senior citizens, women, tenants, the disabled, Latinos, American Indians, Asian-Americans, and others.

The major motion picture ***Selma*** surrounds the activities in Selma, Alabama that brought about the introduction and national adoption of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 which was one of the crowning achievement in the long narrative of American Civil Rights struggles and triumphs. The teaching of Black history has generally been grounded between two historic struggles: The Civil War/Reconstruction and the Modern Civil Rights Movement. In many textbooks, it is as if the quest for African American freedom is put on pause for nearly a century. This story is in actuality a continuum, with a long and engaging history of African American protest and organization building throughout the first half of the twentieth century leading up to the events seen in ***Selma***.

For Educators and students to fully understand all the layered nuances of history in this film (from literacy tests, to the social etiquettes of oppression, to the liberation of the freedom songs), as well as use it in their expeditionary learning objectives - the history of this long struggle must be publicized and implicitly stated in a way that will allow the history to be utilized in interdisciplinary classrooms.

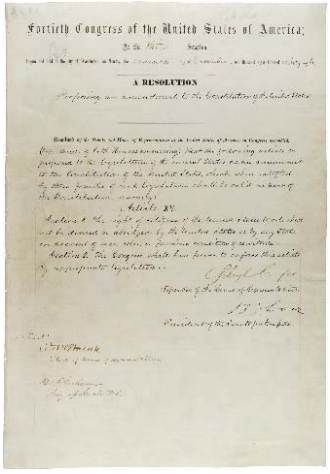
Jim Crow segregation codified after the Civil War effected every aspect of people's lives and the processes that maintained de facto segregation in the South. Yet, the American experience has been one defined by resistance, and both political and cultural movements that worked against these great forces of repression such as seen in ***Selma.***

Photo Courtesy of National Archives

THE HISTORY

“WE hold these truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, and endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights- among them being life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.” That is the assertion and ethos of freedom within the American Declaration of Independence and included African Americans by defacto law via the Reconstruction Amendments following the American Civil War. The amendments constitutionally shifted the realities for African Americans in this nation and placed them by law within the framework of American promise, are the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth amendments to the United States Constitution, adopted between 1865 and 1870, the five years immediately following the Civil War. The amendments were important in implementing the Reconstruction of the American South after the war. Their proponents saw them as transforming the United States from a country that was (in Abraham Lincoln's words) "half slave and half free" to one in which the constitutionally guaranteed "blessings of liberty" would be extended to the entire populace, including the former slaves and their descendants.

The Thirteenth Amendment (proposed and ratified in 1865) abolished slavery. The Fourteenth Amendment (proposed in 1866 and ratified in 1868) included the privileges and immunities clause, applicable to all citizens, and the due process and equal protection clauses applicable to all persons. The Fifteenth Amendment, (proposed in 1869 and ratified in 1870) prohibits discrimination in voting rights of citizens on the basis of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." This amendment did not include a specific prohibition on discrimination on the basis of sex; it took another amendment—the Nineteenth, ratified in 1920—to prohibit such discrimination explicitly. Men and women of all races, regardless of prior slavery, could vote in some states of the early United States, such as at different intervals in New Jersey, provided that they could meet other requirements, such as property ownership, but by and large the struggle for voting did not manifest for the majority of African Americans until after 1965.


Fortieth Congress of the United States of America;
A RESOLUTION

The Fifteenth Amendment in the National Archives

These amendments were intended to guarantee freedom to former slaves and to establish and prevent discrimination in civil rights to former slaves and all citizens of the United States. The promise of these amendments was eroded by state laws and federal court decisions over the course of the 19th and 20th century.

The American Civil War ending in 1865, marked the start of the Reconstruction era in the eleven former Confederate states. Congress refused to re-admit these states back to the Union until they were reconstructed and the formally enslaved African American population's rights to vote safeguarded. In 1866, ten of these states did not provide suffrage and equal civil rights to the newly freed Americans.

Congress passed the Reconstruction Acts, starting in 1867, establishing military districts to oversee the affairs of these states pending reconstruction.

During the Reconstruction era, African Americans constituted absolute majorities of the populations in Mississippi and South Carolina, were equal to the white population in Louisiana, and represented more than 40% of the population in four other former Confederate states. Southern whites, fearing black domination, resisted the freedmen's exercise of political power.

In 1867, black men voted for the first time. In February 1870, the Fifteenth Amendment was ratified; it was designed to protect blacks' right to vote from infringement by the states.

But after a brief period of relatively open voting, southern states and their legislators began enacting poll taxes, literacy and property tests, and understanding clauses, which they claimed would exclude the poor and uneducated, in a thinly veiled attempt to eliminate the black vote. Many Southern states, however, had to rely on the cunning of voter registrars to ensure that poor and uneducated whites were not disfranchised by these tests. Louisiana, looking to find a more straightforward method to exempt whites, created the Grandfather Clause in 1898 which allowed those who were able to vote before 1867 and those whose father or grandfather could vote before 1867 to skip the tests and taxes.

Intimidation, violence and assassinations were used to repress African Americans and prevent them from exercising their civil rights in elections from 1868 until the mid-1870s. The insurgent

Ku Kux Klan (KKK) was formed in 1865 in Tennessee (as a backlash to defeat in the war) and quickly became a powerful secret vigilante group, with chapters across the South. The Klan initiated a campaign of intimidation directed against blacks and sympathetic whites. Their violence included vandalism and destruction of property, physical attacks and assassinations, and lynching.

Klan murders led Congress to pass laws to end the violence. In 1870, Congress passed the Enforcement Acts, imposing penalties for conspiracy to deny black suffrage. The Acts empowered the President to deploy the armed forces to suppress organizations that deprived people of rights guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. In late 1871 United States marshals supervised state voter registrations and elections and could summon the help of military or naval forces if needed. These measures led to the demise of the first Klan by the early 1870s.

Americans throughout the South began varied forms of resistance to social changes, including preventing Africans Americans from voting and running for office, many were openly vigilante societies, organized and devoted to the political goal of regaining control of the state legislature and suppressing African Americans. They often solicited newspaper coverage for publicity to increase their threats and the disruption of the organizing of African American voters, using force to intimidate and terrorize African Americans to keep them away from the polls.

Following continuing violence around elections as local insurgents worked to suppress black voting, the Southern states passed legislation to create barriers to voter registrations by African Americans and poor whites, starting in 1877 with the poll taxes, as well as changing election procedures to make voting more complex.

In 1890 Mississippi adopted a new constitution, which contained provisions for voter registration which required voters to pass a literacy test. The literacy test was subjectively applied by white administrators, and the two provisions effectively disenfranchised most blacks and many poor whites. The constitutional provisions survived a Supreme Court challenge in *Williams v. Mississippi* (1898). Other southern states quickly adopted new constitutions and what they called the "Mississippi plan."

By 1908, all Southern states of the former Confederacy had passed new constitutions, sometimes bypassing general elections to achieve this. Legislators created a variety of barriers, including longer residency requirements, rule variations, literacy and understanding tests, which were subjectively applied against minorities, or were particularly hard for the poor to fulfill. Such constitutional provisions were unsuccessfully challenged in the Supreme Court. In practice, these provisions, including white primaries, created a maze that blocked most blacks and many poor whites from voting in Southern states until the linchpin of events in Selma, Alabama that led to the passage of federal civil rights legislation in 1965; the events that are dramatized in ***Selma***. Voter registration and turnout dropped sharply across the South, as most African Americans and many poor whites were excluded from the political system.

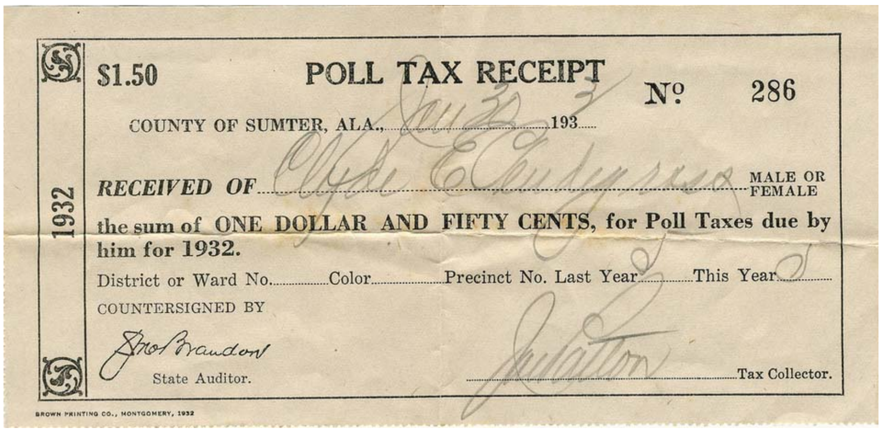
The disenfranchisement of a large proportion of voters attracted the attention of Congress, and in 1900 some members proposed stripping the South of seats, related to the number of people who were barred from voting. Apportionment of seats was still based on total population (with the assumption of the usual number of voting males in relation to the residents); as a result white Southerners commanded a number of seats far out of proportion to the voters they represented.

In the end, Congress did not act on this issue, with full knowledge that Southern states disfranchised several million black and white citizens. Southerners comprised a powerful voting bloc in Congress until the mid-20th century. Their representatives, re-elected repeatedly by one-party states, exercised the power of seniority, controlling numerous chairmanships of important committees in both houses. Their power allowed them to have control over rules, budgets and important patronage projects, among other issues.

Although the 15th Amendment was in full effect federally, students should be made to understand that states and municipalities circumvented the Constitutional right by three major ingenuities. The three major ways African Americans were disenfranchised throughout the South after the passage of the 15th amendment and before the Voting Rights Act of 1965 were the poll tax, literacy/education or understanding test requirement, and grandfather clause.

Proof of payment of a poll tax was a prerequisite to voter registration in Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Georgia (1877), North and South Carolina, Virginia

(until 1882 and again from 1902 with its new constitution), Texas (1902) and in some northern and western states. The Texas poll tax "required otherwise eligible voters to pay between $1.50 and $1.75 to register to vote – a lot of money at the time, and a big barrier to the working classes and poor."[21] Georgia created a cumulative poll tax requirement in 1877: men of any race 21 to 60 years of age had to pay a sum of money for every year from the time they had turned 21, or from the time that the law took effect.



$1.50 POLL TAX RECEIPT No 286

COUNTY OF SUMTER, ALA., ... 193...

1932

RECEIVED OF .... MALE OR FEMALE

the sum of ONE DOLLAR AND FIFTY CENTS, for Poll Taxes due by him for 1932.

District or Ward No........ Color........ Precinct No. Last Year........ This Year........

COUNTERSIGNED BY

State Auditor. .... Tax Collector.

BROWN PRINTING CO., MONTGOMERY, 1932

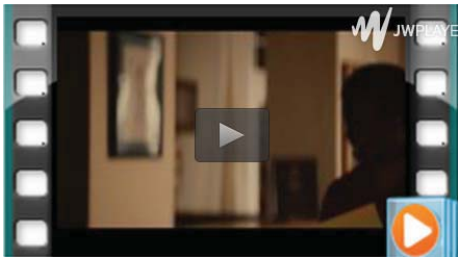
The poll tax requirements applied to whites as well as blacks, and also adversely affected poor citizens. Many states required payment of the tax at a time separate from the election, and then required voters to bring receipts with them to the polls. If they could not locate such receipts, they could not vote. In addition, many states surrounded registration and voting with complex record-keeping requirements. These were particularly difficult for sharecropper and tenant farmers to comply with, as they moved frequently.

The poll tax was sometimes used alone or together with a literacy qualification. In a kind of grandfather clause, North Carolina in 1900 exempted from the poll tax those men not entitled to vote as of January 1, 1867. This excluded all blacks, who would not have had suffrage rights prior to that date.

Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi, Tennessee, and South Carolina created an educational/ literacy test requirement, with review by a local registrar of a voter's qualifications. In 1898 Georgia rejected such a device.

Alabama delegates at first hesitated, out of concern that illiterate whites would lose their votes. After the legislature stated that the new constitution would not disenfranchise any white voters and that it would be submitted to the people for ratification, Alabama passed an educational requirement. It was ratified at the polls in November 1901. Its distinctive feature was the "good character clause" (also known as the "grandfather clause"). An appointment board in each county could register "all voters under the present [previous] law" who were veterans or the lawful descendants of such, and "all who are of good character and understand the duties and obligations of citizenship." This gave the board discretion to approve voters on a case-by-case basis. In practice, they enfranchised whites and rejected African Americans, most of whom had been slaves.

CLIP REFERENCE



APPLICATION

South Carolina, Louisiana (1889), and later, Virginia incorporated an educational requirement in their new constitutions. In 1902 Virginia adopted a constitution with the "understanding" clause as a literacy test to use until 1904. In addition, application for registration had to be in the applicant's handwriting and written in the presence of the registrar. Thus, someone who could not write, could not vote

Despite African American objections to the laws that were created out of the pushback to gains made during Reconstruction's several Southern states kept most provisions of their Reconstruction constitutions for more than two decades, until late in the 19th century.

Although in some states, the number of African Americans were elected to local offices reached a peak in the 1880s far past when Reconstruction had ended. These African American legislators had an influence at the local level, although not winning many statewide or national seats. Nevertheless, state legislatures passed restrictive laws that made voter registration and election rules more complicated. In addition, most legislatures drafted new constitutions or amendments that adopted indirect methods for limiting the vote by most blacks and, often, many poor whites.

From 1890 to 1908, ten of the eleven Southern states rewrote their constitutions. All included provisions that effectively restricted voter registration and suffrage, including requirements for poll taxes, increased residency, and subjective literacy tests.

With educational improvements, blacks had markedly increased their rate of literacy. By 1891, their illiteracy had declined to 58%. The rate of white illiteracy in the South was 31%.[15] Some states used grandfather clauses to exempt white voters from literacy tests altogether. Other states required otherwise eligible black voters to meet literacy and knowledge requirements to the satisfaction of white registrars, who applied subjective judgment and, in the process, rejected most black voters. By 1900, the majority of blacks were literate, but even many of the best-educated of these men continued to "fail" the literacy tests administered by white registrars.

With the passage of new constitutions, Southern states adopted provisions that caused disenfranchisement of large portions of their populations by skirting US constitutional protections of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. While their voter registration requirements applied to all citizens, in practice they disenfranchised most blacks sometimes would remove from voter registration rolls the less educated, less organized, more impoverished whites as well - through most of the 20th century in the South.

Organizations like the legal defense arm of the NAACP, SCLC, SNCC, CORE, began a tireless battle systematically attacking local segregation and disenfranchisement one case after another. It is important to understand the way these political communities shaped future social movements. Students should find connections in the ideas and strategies being developed within the long civil rights era and understand that resistance is continuous, even as the arenas for waging it changes.

The American quest for freedom and self-determination by various groups within this country; including the African American quest for voting rights, highlight larger themes in American history including the dynamics of inclusion and exclusion, meanings of equality, and ideas on justice. Students should come away from this study that accompanies the film ***Selma,*** with an understanding of the way in which people struggled against repressive conditions of segregation, discrimination and brutality, as well as how this struggle has shaped their own lives.

The end of Reconstruction produced a political and social climate of fear and intimidation for every black person in the South and conditions on the liberty of African American life deteriorated rapidly. Politically, the +federal government abandoned any commitment to the enforcement of biracial democracy

In 1883, the Supreme Court declared the Civil Rights Act of 1876 unconstitutional. The principle of "separate but equal," America's legal justification for domestic *apartheid*, was ordained by the Supreme Court in the *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision of 1896. Systematically, the gains made towards a more equal society during Reconstruction were dismantled and replaced by a new system of injustice. The Jim Crow system of racial exploitation was, like slavery, both a caste/social order for regimenting cultural and political relations, and an economic structure that facilitated the super-exploitation of blacks' labor power.

Furthermore, Jim Crow laws meant the institutional segregation of all public and private facilities and access to employment and housing opportunities and resources as well as the enfranchisement and voting rights. Facilities, schools, entrances to public transportation, housing, and social spaces remained separate, they were never of equal quality. In this system, access and quality were always substandard for people of color, including access to their ability to cast their vote to change any of it systematically.

There was little in the way of political rights to protect black Americans from economic exploitation. By the 1880s, Southern states had begun to rewrite their Reconstruction-era constitutions, denying blacks and many poor whites the right to vote. The effect of these new state constitutions was as striking as it was undemocratic. In Alabama, the epicenter for the film ***Selma,*** there were 181,000 blacks who were eligible to vote in 1900; two years later, merely 3,000 were noted as registered voters. Republican presidents supported the creation of a "Lily White" wing of their party in the South, which would deny blacks the right to participate even in their own political organizations.

This system was dependent upon the omnipresence of violence, political hedges in states and local municipalities, and coercion.

Beginning in the 1880s, Jim Crow states had enacted state and local legislation with the purpose of barring African Americans from having a voice in politics. By setting up poll taxes and literacy requirements that were subsequently only enforced for African Americans attempting to vote, white politicians sought to maintain segregation- politically, economically, and socially.

Despite the fact that the 15th Amendment, which prohibited racial discrimination in voting, was ratified by the states in 1870 students using this resource should be made to understand that African-Americans were nevertheless kept from voting in large numbers in Southern states for nearly a century more. Without this knowledge, the struggles and strategies brought forth in that 1965 Alabama town by a film like ***Selma*** makes no sense to American students who might believe that the simple passage of the amendment meant the automatic entitlement to voting.

Various states created requirements - literacy tests and poll taxes and constitutional quizzes that were designed to keep blacks from registering to vote prior to the passage of the Voting Rights Act. But many poor Southern whites were at risk of also losing their rights because they could not have met such expectations. The solution? A half-dozen states passed laws that made men eligible to vote if they had been able to vote before African-Americans were given the franchise (generally, 1867), or if they were the lineal descendants of voters back then. Most such laws were enacted in the early 1890s. The grandfather clause is actually not a means of disenfranchising anybody, but a means of enfranchising whites who might have been excluded by things like literacy clauses. It was political necessity, because otherwise you'd have too much opposition from poor whites who would have been disenfranchised off voter's registries throughout the South.

But protecting whites from restrictions meant to apply to African-Americans was obviously another form of discrimination itself.

Some state legislatures enacted grandfather clauses despite knowing they couldn't pass constitutional muster. For that reason, nearly every state put a time limit on their grandfather clauses. They hoped to get whites registered before these laws could be challenged in court.

African-Americans typically lacked the financial resources to file suit. The NAACP, founded in 1909, persuaded a U.S. attorney to challenge Oklahoma's grandfather clause, which had been enacted in 1910.

In 1915, the Supreme Court ruled unanimously in *Guinn v. United States* that grandfather clauses were unconstitutional. The court in those days upheld any number of segregationist laws — and even in *Guinn* specified that literacy tests untethered from grandfather clauses were OK.

The justices were concerned that the grandfather clause was not only discriminatory but a clear attempt by a state or municipality to nullify the federal Constitution.

The intent of the grandfather clause was also about power; the same trick had been used against white immigrants in the Northeast. It's worth remembering that Massachusetts and Connecticut were the first states to impose literacy tests, in hopes of keeping immigrants from voting.

In spite of the menace of Klan violence, constant intimidation from police and employers, as well as the possibility of future retaliation, black people continued to register where they could and push for their right to vote. The mass migrations of African Americans throughout the first half of the twentieth century created black majority congressional districts in Northern areas that had none of the legalities, though many of the same sentiments, barring black voters.

Disfranchisement of black Americans in the South was covered by national newspapers and magazines as new laws and constitutions were created, and many Northerners were outraged and alarmed. For example, the Lodge Bill or Federal Elections Bill or Lodge Force Bill of 1890 was a bill drafted by Representative Henry Cabot Lodge (R) of Massachusetts, and sponsored in the Senate by George Frisbie Hoar. It would have authorized federal electors to supervise elections under certain conditions. Due to a Senate filibuster, as well as trade-off of support with Democrats by western Silver Republicans, the bill failed to pass. Edgar D. Crumpacker (R-IN) filed an independent report urging that the Southern states be stripped of seats due to the large numbers of voters they had disfranchised. He noted this was provided for in Section 2 of the Fourteenth Amendment, which provided for stripping representation from states that reduced suffrage due to race.[2] The Committee and House failed to agree on this proposal. Supporters of

black suffrage worked to secure Congressional investigation of disfranchisement, but concerted opposition of the Southern Democratic bloc was aroused, and the efforts failed.

From 1896-1900, the House of Representatives with a Republican majority had acted in more than 30 cases to set aside election results from Southern states where the House Elections Committee had concluded that "black voters had been excluded due to fraud, violence, or intimidation." But, in the early 1900s, it began to back off from its enforcement of the Fifteenth Amendment and suggested that state and Federal courts should exercise oversight of this issue. The Southern bloc of Democrats exercised increasing power in the House. They had no interest in protecting suffrage of blacks.

In 1904 Congress administered efforts to investigate disfranchisement in its decision in the 1904 South Carolina election challenge of *Dantzler v. Lever*. The House Committee on Elections upheld Lever's victory. It suggested that citizens of South Carolina who believed their rights were denied should take their cases to the state courts, and ultimately, the US Supreme Court but African Americans had no recourse through the Southern state courts, which would not uphold their rights. Because they were disfranchised, blacks could not serve on juries, and whites were clearly aligned against them on this and other racial issues.

Despite the Lever decision, some Northern Congressmen continued to raise the issue of black disfranchisement and resulting malapportionment. For instance, on December 6, 1920, Representative George H. Tinkham from Massachusetts offered a resolution for the Committee of Census to investigate alleged disfranchisement of blacks. His intention was to enforce the provisions of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments. In addition, he believed there should be reapportionment in the House related to the voting population of southern states, rather than the general population as enumerated in the census. Such reapportionment was authorized by the Constitution and would reflect reality, so that the South should not get credit for people and voters it had disfranchised.

Black Americans and their allies worked hard to regain their ability to exercise the constitutional rights of citizens. In the state of Alabama, Booker T. Washington, widely known for his accommodationist approach as the leader of the Tuskegee Institute, called on northern backers

to help finance legal challenges to disenfranchisement and segregation. He raised substantial funds and also arranged for representation on some cases. He challenged the state's grandfather clause and a citizenship test required for new voters, which was administered in a discriminatory way against blacks.

Thus Alabama, becomes a great case study for a history of disenfranchisement, and the struggles to overturn them as highlighted in the major motion picture ***Selma***. In 1903, Jackson W. Giles, sued on behalf of more than 5,000 black citizens of Montgomery, Alabama and himself in seeking to have the federal court require the state to register them to vote. The suit was brought in response to a number of provisions in the Alabama state constitution which combined to prevent blacks from being able to register. Giles was literate and had voted in Montgomery for 30 years, from 1871 to 1901, before the new constitution was passed. In its ruling in *Giles v. Harris* (1903), the United States Supreme Court under Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr. effectively upheld such southern voter registration provisions in dealing with a challenge to the Alabama constitution. Its decision said the provisions were not targeted at blacks and thus did not deprive them of rights. This has been characterized as the "most momentous ignored decision" in constitutional history.

Trying to deal with the grounds of the Court's ruling, Giles mounted another challenge. In *Giles v. Teasley* (1904), the U.S. Supreme Court upheld Alabama's disenfranchising constitution. That same year the Congress refused to overturn a disputed election, and essentially sent plaintiffs back to the state courts. Even when black plaintiffs gained rulings in their favor from the Supreme Court, states quickly devised alternative ways to exclude them from the political process. It was not until later in the 20th century that such legal challenges on disenfranchisement began to meet more success in the courts.

With the founding of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) in 1909, the interracial group based in New York began to provide financial and strategic support to lawsuits on voting issues. What became the NAACP Legal Defense Fund organized and mounted numerous cases in repeated court and legal challenges to the many barriers of segregation, including disenfranchisement provisions of the states. The NAACP often represented plaintiffs directly, or helped raise funds to support legal challenges. The NAACP also worked at public education, lobbying of Congress, demonstrations, and encouragement of theater and academic writing as other means to reach the public. NAACP chapters were organized in cities across the country, and membership increased rapidly in the South. The American Civil Liberties Union also represented plaintiffs in some disenfranchisement cases.

By the 1930's many organizations within the community began to form that fought against these civil rights violations in the South, for example - CORE, SNCC, SCLC. Blacks were becoming a significant factor in national politics and a critical constituency in many urban elections outside the South. With the growing importance of black voters and elected officials, it was hard to ignore the glaring inequities of the persistence of segregation. Both voters and legislators began to use political pressure to deny the legitimacy of segregation. By the early 1940's Congress reflected the trend towards a more liberal to moderate segregationist policy. In 1937-38, only 10 bills that were considered favorable to desegregation and civil rights were introduced in Congress. By 1949-50, 72 bills were being proposed coupled with grassroots efforts and Supreme Court challenges to the legalities of Jim Crow's disenfranchisement legal – locally and nationally.

Civil rights organizations in major cities moved quickly to register black voters throughout the South. Each legal victory was followed by white-dominated legislatures' renewed efforts to control black voting through different exclusionary schemes and new voter registration act, such as, that required those who were illiterate to satisfy "understanding tests" by correctly answering 20 of 30 questions related to citizenship posed by the voting registrar. Blacks had made

substantial advances in education, but the individual white registrars were the sole persons to determine whether individual prospective voters answered correctly. In practice, registrars disqualified most black voters, whether they were educated or not.

The NAACP's steady progress with individual cases was thwarted by Southerners continuing resistance and passage of new statutory barriers to blacks' exercising the vote. Through the 1950s and 1960s, private citizens enlarged the effort by becoming activists throughout the South, led by many black churches and their leaders, and joined by both young and older activists from northern states. Nonviolent confrontation and demonstrations in the spirit and strategy of the movement led by Mahatma Gandhi in India, were mounted in numerous Southern cities, often provoking violent public and chronicled reactions by white bystanders and authorities as they had in India. The moral crusade of the Civil Rights Movement gained national media coverage, attention across the country, and a growing national demand for change led by strategic and organized grassroots efforts and civil engagement of the African American citizenry throughout the South.

By 1964, President Lyndon B. Johnson took up the charge. In January 1964, Johnson met with civil rights leaders. During his first State of the Union address, Johnson asked Congress to "let this session of Congress be known as the session which did more for civil rights than the last hundred sessions combined." On January 23, 1964, the 24th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, prohibiting the use of poll taxes in national elections, was ratified with the approval of South Dakota, the 38th state to do so.

Above: Martin Luther King, Jr. (center), with Roy Wilkins, James Farmer, and Whitney Young, met with President Lyndon Johnson in the Oval Office on January 18, 1964. (Courtesy LBJ Library) Below: David Oyelowo portrays Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. alongside Tom Wilkinson as President Lyndon Johnson in a scene from Selma. Courtesy Paramount Pictures.

On June 21, 1964, civil rights workers Michael Schwerner, Andrew Goodman, and James Chaney, disappeared in Neshoba County, Mississippi. The three were volunteers aiding in the registration of black voters as part of the Mississippi Freedom Summer Project. Forty-four days later the Federal Bureau of Investigation recovered their bodies from an earthen dam where they were buried. The Neshoba County deputy sheriff Cecil Price and 16 others, all Ku Kux Klan

members, were indicted for the murders; seven were convicted. The investigation also revealed the bodies of several black men, whose deaths had never been revealed or prosecuted by white law enforcement officials.

On July 2, President Johnson signed into law the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Act prohibited segregation in public places and barred unequal application of voter registration requirements. It did not explicitly ban literacy tests, which had been used to disqualify blacks and poor white voters. The United States Department of Justice narrative on voting right states that:

> "By 1965 concerted efforts to break the grip of state disenfranchisement had been under way for some time, but had achieved only modest success overall and in some areas had proved almost entirely ineffectual. The murder of voting-rights activists in Philadelphia, Mississippi, gained national attention, along with numerous other acts of violence and terrorism. Finally, the unprovoked attack on March 7, 1965, by state troopers on peaceful marchers crossing the Edmund Pettus Bridge in Selma, Alabama, en route to the state capitol in Montgomery, persuaded the President and Congress to overcome Southern legislators' resistance to effective voting rights legislation. President Johnson issued a call for a strong voting rights law and hearings began soon thereafter on the bill that would become the Voting Rights Act."

These are the events historically dramatized in the film ***Selma,*** that spring to life in vivid clarity; the convergence of all the strategy, peoples, and events that shifted the trajectory of voting rights advances in this nation.

The 1965 Act suspended literacy tests and other voter tests and authorized federal supervision of voter registration in states and individual voting districts where such tests were being used. African Americans who had been barred from registering to vote finally had an alternative to the courts. If voting discrimination occurred, the 1965 Act authorized the attorney general to send federal examiners to replace local registrars.

The previous year, 1964, had marked a legislative victory for civil rights activists and was a pivotal moment in the political history of African Americans. Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and President Lyndon B. Johnson signed it into law. The Act prohibited the exclusion of blacks

from all public facilities and accommodations: restaurants, parks, swimming pools, hotels and theaters. It outlawed the use of federal funds to maintain or support educational institutions that practiced segregation. That same year, the 24th amendment to the U.S. Constitution was passed. By abolishing the poll tax on voting--a restrictive measure used extensively in the South to deny poor black people the right to vote--an increasing number of blacks were able to vote for the first time, thereby exerting an impact on local and national elections.

With the passage of the legislation and the amendment, civil rights activists shifted their attention to enforcing the voting rights of blacks in the South. White authorities, using all kinds of ruses, frequently refused to register black voters.

In July 1964, a series of nonviolent, direct-action protests were organized in downtown Selma. Which was met with direct violent reaction and aggression by local law enforcement. The protest subsided until January 1965 when SCLC and SNCC launched a joint effort to draw attention to the denial of black voting rights locally and throughout the South. Their goal was to secure the vote for African Americans in numerous Alabama Counties and win support for federal voting-rights legislation. To dramatize black disenfranchisement, the two organizations, in collaboration with the Dallas County Voters League (DCVL), organized several marches on the county courthouse, beginning January 18, 1965. Not surprisingly, Sheriff Clark harassed and arrested the demonstrators, including King.

The Selma campaign began to wane near the end of February 1965. At the same time, civil rights organizing increased in the rural counties surrounding the city. In two Alabama counties Perry and Wilcox, voters' leagues, loosely affiliated with SCLC, led the way. The cause gained renewed vigor when a state trooper fatally wounded 26-year-old local activist during a night march in Perry County. His name was Jimmie Lee Jackson and he along with his Mother had actively sought to register to vote in the county. To honor Jackson's memory and highlight his sacrifice, SCLC organized a protest peaceful march to the governor's doorstep in Montgomery.

Jimmy Lee Jackson

In 1965, SNCC, Martin Luther King and other SCLC leaders came to Selma to organize marchers and generate national media attention around the local campaign for voting rights. The police in Selma arrested King, with 250 marchers on February 1, 1965.

CLIP REFERENCE

GIVE US THE VOTE

Download or stream "Give Us The Vote," an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (David Oyelowo) speaking to a group in a scene from SELMA.

On February 4, a federal judge had ordered the Selma registrar's office to process a minimum of a hundred voter applications a day. Almost immediately registrars created new obstacles for black voters. The SCLC decided to once again organize a march for the right to vote. The plan entailed walking along the highway from Selma to the state capital of Montgomery, 50 miles away.

On March 7, 1965 as several hundred marchers crossed Selma's steeply arched Edmund Pettus Bridge Sheriff Clark's posse and state troopers brutally beat them. That evening, the television networks broadcast footage of what became referred to ironically, on that Easter Sunday evening, as Bloody Sunday, the incident brought the violence of Jim Crow into the living rooms of millions of Americans. Hosea Williams led the march. Andrew Young, James Bevel, other SCLC organizers, and SNCC leader John Lewis joined Williams. As marchers crossed the Edmund Pettus Bridge along the route, the police, armed with shotguns and automatic weapons, confronted the marchers. The Alabama troopers, determined to stop the marchers, pressed forward in readiness to attack. Governor George Wallace had approved the use of force, if necessary, to halt the march. What ensued was a brutal, publicized and televised attack by police with tear gas, billy clubs and night sticks on the unarmed marchers. More than 600 marchers were assaulted and 17 hospitalized on the first day of the march, known as "Bloody Sunday."

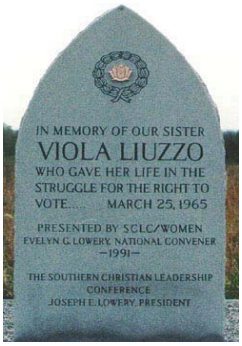
Alabama police attack Selma-to-Montgomery Marchers, 1965
Federal Bureau of Investigation Photograph

Bloody Sunday in the aftermath of "Bloody Sunday," King issued a call for civil and human rights supporters to come to Selma to join another march on March 9, 1965. Martin Luther King returned to Selma on Tuesday, March 9, 1965, and personally led 1,500 nonviolent marchers and confront the Alabama State troopers on the other side of the bridge. After kneeling to pray and singing the civil rights anthem, "We Shall Overcome," King ordered the marchers to turn back. He believed that the use of force by the police was imminent and that the symbolic point of walking across the bridge had been made. King's decision disappointed, if not angered, SNCC activists, and even some of the SCLC leadership. Later that evening, white racists attacked several white ministers who had participated in the march. A Unitarian minister, James Reeb, was clubbed in the head, died of his injuries two days later.

Courtesy Paramount Pictures

Despite the violence the marchers encountered on two occasions, and the legal objection raised by Governor George Wallace, King and the SCLC courageously planned a third march fighting a legal battle fort the necessary authority to complete the March. On Sunday, March 21, 1965, after three weeks of legal battles, the Selma-to-Montgomery March finally resumed after the legal maneuvers that were wrangled through the Alabama courts with a victory for the marcher being issued by Judge Frank Johnson, the . U.S. district judge. Judge Johnson ordered Alabama officials not to interfere with the demonstration. He also limited the number of people who could walk the entire 50 miles along U.S. Highway 80 to a few hundred. After the federal court ruled that Alabama could not prohibit the marches, the march began on March 21, 1965. More than 25,000 people joined the marchers five days later on the stark white steps of the Alabama state capitol. There they listened to King deliver a stirring speech on freedom, justice, and equality. By the time they arrived in Montgomery, the 4,000 who had begun the march in Selma, had been limited for a stretch of the march to 300 marchers only, and had now been joined by more than 25,000 additional marchers. As they reached the state capitol building, which still flew the Confederate battle flag, tens of thousands of marchers celebrated their victory.

That same evening, a white activist who had traveled to Alabama from Michigan to participate in the march, was murdered as she and black activist Leroy Moton shuttled marchers between Montgomery and Selma. This white female activist Ms. Viola Luizzo, further punctuated the necessity for action.



Viola Liuzzo Memorial
National Park Service Photograph

The linchpin of publically displayed violence in Selma, the culminating march to Montgomery, as well as the public response and outcry for action compelled President Johnson to introduce a federal voting-rights bill and to sponsor legislation to protect black voting rights. In August 1965, the U.S. Congress passed the landmark Voting Rights Act, which banned literacy tests and permitted federal registrars to add eligible African Americans to the voting rolls. Attorneys from the U.S. Justice Department who had litigated voting rights cases in the Alabama's rural counties for several years played a prominent role in drafting the key provisions of the new law. In a speech to Congress, Johnson introduced the bill and, using the language of Civil Rights singers, said, "We shall overcome." The Selma-to-Montgomery voting campaign attracted national attention and political support necessary for Congress to pass the Voting Rights Act in 1965 (also known as the Civil Rights Act of 1965).

Millions of blacks--who had been denied the right to vote for nearly a century--had finally won a federal guarantee to exercise their right to vote. In his speech, President Johnson affirmed his support for the goals of the civil rights movement, noting: "We will not delay or we will not hesitate, or we will not turn aside until Americans of every race and color and origin in this country have the same rights as all others to share in the progress of democracy."

The Act had an immediate impact. Within months of its passage on August 6, 1965, one quarter of a million new black voters had been registered, one third by federal examiners. Within four years, voter registration in the South had more than doubled. In 1965, Mississippi had the highest black voter turnout--74%--and led the nation in the number of black leaders elected. In 1969, Tennessee had a 92.1% turnout; Arkansas, 77.9%; and Texas, 73.1%.

Winning the right to vote changed the political landscape of the South. When Congress passed the Voting Rights Act, barely 100 African Americans held elective office in the U.S.; by 1989 there were more than 7,200, including more than 4,800 in the South. Nearly every Black Belt county in Alabama had a black sheriff, and southern

blacks held top positions within city, county, and state governments. In every Southern state, the percentage of black adults, who were newly registered to vote, rose above 60 percent within four years. By 1969, 12,000 black officials were elected to office, with more than one-third of that number from the South.

Freedom wore an expensive price tag for the countless, and sometimes faceless activists, leaders, volunteers and participants from across religious, racial, and cultural strata to fight for the African Americans to be fully engaged in the fullness of the promises of the Constitution and be provided the right to vote. They often gave their lives and freedoms as they fought for the right to vote but the ramifications for years to come has proven to be worth all the efforts. The major motion picture ***Selma***, allows a dramatic glimpse into the lives and peoples who engaged in this battle.

LESSONS FROM THE FILM SELMA

One of the biggest takeaways from the film, was the clearly articulated message that the significant gains of the civil rights movement were won by people, not processes. Against incredible odds--and often at great risk--the thousands of activists in the modern freedom struggle won victories that touched their own lives as well as those of their neighbors and future generations.

Some of the groups and individuals involved in the unfolding human drama:

- **Organized governmental Southern resistance** - Resistance to racial equality in the Deep South came not only from extremist groups like the Ku Kux Klan and white "citizens' councils." It occurred at all levels of government and society--from federal judges to state governors to county sheriffs to local citizens serving on juries – such as Governor Orval Faubus of Arkansas used the Arkansas National Guard to prevent

school integration, and Governors Ross Barnett of Mississippi and George Wallace of Alabama physically blocked school doorways. E.H. Hurst, a Mississippi state representative, stalked and killed a black farmer for attending voter registration classes. Laurie Pritchett, Albany, Georgia's police chief, thwarted student efforts to integrate public places in the city. Birmingham's public safety commissioner Eugene T. "Bull" Connor advocated violence against freedom riders and ordered fire hoses and police dogs turned on demonstrators. Sheriff Jim Clark of Dallas County, Alabama loosed his deputies on at that first peacefully assembled protest at the Pettus Bridge, and violently attacked marchers and personally menaced other protestors. Police all across the South arrested civil rights activists on trumped-up charges. All-white juries in several states acquitted known killers of local African Americans.

- **Black churches** - The leadership role of black churches in the movement was a natural extension of their structure and function. They offered members an opportunity to exercise roles denied them in society. Throughout history, the black church served not only as a place of worship but also as a community "bulletin board," a credit union, a "people's court" to solve disputes, a support group, and a center of political activism. These and other functions enhanced the importance of the minister. The most prominent clergyman in the civil rights movement was Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr. inspired sharecroppers and intellectuals alike. His tireless personal commitment to and strong leadership role in the black freedom struggle won him worldwide acclaim and the Nobel Peace Prize. Other notable minister-activists included Ralph Abernathy, King's closest associate; Bernard Lee, veteran demonstrator and frequent travel companion of King; Fred Shuttlesworth, who defied Bull Connor and who created a safe path for a colleague through a white mob in Montgomery by commanding "Out of the way!" and C.T. Vivian, who debated Sheriff Clark on his conduct and the Constitution.

- **Students** - Students and seminarians in both the South and the North played key roles in every phase of the civil rights movement--from bus boycotts to sit-ins to freedom rides to social movements. The student movement involved such celebrated figures as John Lewis, the single-minded activist who "kept on" despite many beatings and harassments; Jim Lawson, the revered "guru" of nonviolent theory and tactics; Diane Nash, an articulate and intrepid public champion of justice and the Freedom Rides; Bob Moses, pioneer of voting registration in the most rural--and most dangerous--part of the South; and James Bevel, a fiery preacher and charismatic organizer and facilitator. Other prominent student activists included Charles McDew, Bernard Lafayette, Charles Jones, Lonnie King, Julian Bond (associated with Atlanta University), Hosea Williams (associated with Brown Chapel), and Stokely Carmichael.
- **Institutional frameworks** - Church and student-led movements developed their own organizational and sustaining structures. The Southern Christian Leadership Conference (the SCLC), founded in 1957, coordinated and raised funds, mostly from northern sources, for local protests and for the training of black leaders. The Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee, or SNCC, founded in 1960, developed the "jail-no-bail" strategy. SNCC's role was to develop and link sit-in campaigns and to help organize freedom rides, voter registration drives, and other protest activities. Bob Moses of SNCC created the Council of Federated Organizations (COFO) to coordinate the work of the SCLC, SNCC, and various other national and independent civil rights groups. These three new groups often joined forces with existing organizations such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), founded in 1909, the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), founded in 1942, and the National Urban League. The NAACP and its Director, Roy Wilkins, provided legal counsel for jailed demonstrators, helped raise bail, and continued to test segregation and discrimination in the courts as it had been doing for half a century. CORE initiated the 1961 Freedom Rides which involved many SNCC members, and CORE's leader James Forman later became executive secretary of SNCC.

The National Urban League, founded in 1911 and headed by Whitney M. Young, Jr., helped open up job opportunities for African Americans. Labor was represented by A. Philip Randolph, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, and his chief assistant and organizer, Bayard Rustin.

- **Federal involvement** - All branches of the federal government impacted the civil rights movement for and against. President John Kennedy supported enforcement of desegregation in schools and public facilities. Attorney General Robert Kennedy brought more than 50 lawsuits in four states to secure black Americans' right to vote. President Lyndon Johnson was personally committed to achieving civil rights goals. The Civil Rights Act, and the Voting Rights Act, passed by Congress in 1964 and 1965 by Congress and introduced by President Johnson signed the century's two most far-reaching pieces of civil rights legislation. Johnson advocated civil rights even though he knew it would cost the Democratic Party the South in the next presidential election, and for the foreseeable future. FBI director J. Edgar Hoover was personally antagonistic to Martin Luther King, Jr., used the FBI to investigate King and other civil rights leaders. U.S. District Court Judge Frank M. Johnson, Jr., ruled against segregation and voting rights discrimination in Alabama and made the Selma-to-Montgomery March possible.

The following lesson plans will expound on the various conversations that converge on-screen in the historical drama ***Selma*** that highlights the period surrounding the planning, varied attempts, and execution of the march from Selma to Montgomery in March 1965 by civil right activists and advocates. It is an exemplar of historic direct civic engagement in an attempt to guarantee America's promises to its citizens.

In order for students to understand the significance of the film ***Selma,*** Educators must have a composite of resources that explicate the historical nuances, large and small, that are highlighted

in the film; as well the connections to present day realities that will serve to linchpin conversations in the classrooms that allow students to see the links and lineages to the past.

Selma is an exceptional teaching tool that exemplifies the power of film and allows for the layering of resources to bring the textbooks alive and catapult historical figures off the pages onto the big screen for 21st century students. It is an in-depth visual montage that humanizes people, places, and events that are too often reduced in textbooks to a series of facts that do not allow for students to truly understand the exigency, the strategies, realities, and triumphs that lead to an understanding of the full narrative of the struggles in American history.

The following lessons can be scaffolded to cover various intersections in the teaching of American and World History/Social Studies and the humanities. The lessons will be also be interdisciplinary – and can cover four major areas of -applied mathematics, geography, English/Language Arts (ELA) and History/Civics. The lessons will be geared towards non-grade specific middle and high school students and will allow for differential instruction considerations for the teachers. They can be utilized at various points during the teaching year in-totality or in-part and will include:

- 11 lesson interdisciplinary projects for the classroom - that can be adapted for either ELA, History, Civics and Applied Mathematics with links to primary and secondary resources, a library of documents, and accompanying blubs of varied speeches, Excerpts from literature, maps, samples of song lyrics and poetry that serve to narrate the history, a historical essay to the Educator with questions to consider while covering some of the issues and topics highlighted. Scene excerpts from the film that can be used in the classroom with discussion questions, Interviews with the cast that brings the characterizations of the heroes and sheroes in the film to life for students.

All of these resources are presented on a user-friendly downloadable online platform, and will be available to Educators throughout the country.

The whole history of the progress of human liberty shows that all concessions… have been born of earnest struggle. If there is no struggle, there is no progress.

Frederick Douglass, My Bondage and My Freedom

Human progress is neither automatic nor inevitable... Every step toward the goal of justice requires sacrifice, suffering, and struggle; the tireless exertions and passionate concern of dedicated individuals.

Martin Luther King, Jr.

L-R: Coleman Domingo portrays Reverend Ralph Abernathy, David Oyelowo portrays Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., André Holland portrays Andrew Young and Stephen James portrays John Lewis in a scene from *Selma*. Courtesy Paramount Pictures.

SELMA

Lesson Plans for the Classroom

All of the lessons that are created to support the film ***Selma*** were created in consideration of the national adoptions of Common Core Standards. The Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects ("the Standards") are the culmination of an extended, broad-based effort to fulfill the charge issued by the states to create the next generation of K–12 standards in order to help ensure that all students are college and career ready in literacy no later than the end of high school.

Students who meet the Standards readily undertake the close, attentive reading that is at the heart of understanding and enjoying complex works of literature. They habitually perform the critical reading necessary to pick carefully through the staggering amount of information available today in print and digitally. They actively seek the wide, deep, and thoughtful engagement with high-quality literary and informational texts that builds knowledge, enlarges experience, and broadens worldviews. They reflexively demonstrate the cogent reasoning and use of evidence that is essential to both private deliberation and responsible citizenship in a democratic republic. In short, students who meet the Standards develop the skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening that are the foundation for any creative and purposeful expression in language.

The lessons are organized around the utilization of texts in seven categories:

- Landmark Documents
- Speeches
- Informational Texts
- Literary Text
- Historic Connections
- Correspondences
- Letters

Core State Standards suggests the reading experiences students engage in should be more balanced between literary (fiction and creative) and informational text genres. As students move into sixth through twelfth grades, a stronger emphasis is placed on informational text selections. Informational text traditionally incorporates the categories of literary non-fiction, history and science texts, science and technology texts, and multimedia. Landmark Documents are important primary source documents when studying history. Students can examine various documents in their original words to gain a better understanding of how documents shaped our government and society and defined relations between the United States and foreign governments. Historic figures are often remembered for what they said or what they wrote it is important to read speeches from notable people in history to gain point of view and to chronicle opinion about an event or issue. Historical Connections ask the reader to compare and contrast historical events, people or time periods. Letters from historical figures, formal or informal, such as those between, President Johnson and his staffers or the “Letter from the Birmingham Jail” by Martin Luther King, Jr. to his fellow clergyman are examples of correspondence.

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Lesson #1 - A Dream Deferred - the Right to Vote (ELA/History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading – 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening – 1, 3, 4, 6
Writing – 1, 2, 5, 6, 7
Language – 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, students will identify and examine several United States documents, which serve as a historiography of voting rights in this country, as well as to determine the rights, protection, and privileges of American citizenship in regards to voting. The teacher should assess the students based on their ability to interpret primary source documents and reflect on the American narrative of freedom and justice for its citizens. The documents that will be examined in this lesson are:

- the Constitution and its amendments (14^{th}, 15^{th}, 17^{th}, 19^{th}, 23^{rd}, 26^{th})
- the Civil Rights Act of 1875, 1957 and 1964,
- the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

1. Performance Task
    1. This lesson can take place over several class periods - contingent on the size of class groups.
    2. Students can be separated into small groups and assigned three documents at random to examine and determine what a right, protection, accommodation, or privilege it was written to guarantee - the group will then answer a series of document based questions collectively.
    3. Each group will then report out on each document in descending order chronologically ending with the Constitution.

4. After each report ask each student to individually write a reflective paragraph of whether the document was a feasible request from the United States government based on the rights, protection, and privileges of United States citizenship? Have the students to make that determination.
5. At the end of the reports – ask the students to reflect on how similar the rhetoric is within each document? How different?
6. Cumulating question for the conclusion of the lesson – bringing in past knowledge and the answers ask each student to speculate on the necessity of each document in a timeline if they each provide the exact same privileges and promises?

2. Assessment
    1. The students' ability to evaluate documents using primary sources.

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Lesson #2- Life in Jim Crow South and the Civil Rights Movement (ELA, History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, students will learn about daily life for African Americans during the Jim Crow South. They will perform individual and group work to gain a better understanding of life during the segregation, the fight for civil rights, and might have happened if the Southern power structure had persisted in being able to exclude African American civic engagement. Then, the class will hold a debate based on the information they have learned. This lesson can be done over several class periods and encompasses Common Core standards for English Language Arts and Social Studies.

Historical Background:

1. The daily life African Americans in the Southern States
2. The ensuing Civil Rights movement - its platforms and varied victories.
3. Civil Rights movement gains that effect African American life today.

Essential Questions:

1. What is segregation/Jim Crow laws?
2. What is disenfranchisement?
3. What is miscegenation?
4. How were these tenets legalized in the South?
5. What were repercussions for disobedience to these Southern tenets?

6. What happened at Topeka, Little Rock, Montgomery, Greensboro, Washington DC, Birmingham, Albany, Philadelphia, and Selma between 1954 -1965?
7. How did Presidents Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy and Johnson decisions effect the lives of African Americans?
8. What are the legal changes that were made to change the reality of African American life during the Civil Rights Movement?
9. What are the results of those changes that are now present in American life after the Civil Rights Movement?
10. What if those changes never happened - what would that mean for your life today?

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

1. Read excerpts of narratives of Civil Rights leaders and every day individuals to the students, and let them listen to some of the original biographies on tape.
2. Debate the issue of Southern states' rights to maintain their segregation ideologies following the end of slavery throughout the first part of the 20th century in the United States.
3. If you were a Southern or Northern Civil Rights activist or volunteer, write a letter home justifying why you were fighting for this freedom.
4. Make a K-W-L chart with the class and add to it throughout the lesson.
5. Write a speech Martin Luther King Jr. or Bull Connor might have made for or against continuing segregation. (Or have student research and chose two individuals on both sides of the debate and for their speeches)
6. Divide the class into four groups and have each group brainstorm about what might have happened if the South had won the Civil War and the Civil Rights Movement had never happened and debate their respective perspectives and hypothesizes.
7. Have students make a video of the debate to show on school's television broadcast.
8. Have students develop a podcast news program describing a Civil Rights battleground event and its results.

Assessment of Learning:

1. Students will know:
    1. How to write an essay.
    2. How to give an oral presentation.
    3. How to read with comprehension.
    4. How to be an active listener.
    5. How to work cooperatively.
    6. How to understand the order of events.
2. Students will understand:
    1. Each person has a point of view.
    2. In today's society, there are still many problems that have to be solved.
    3. Many times an action leads to a reaction.
    4. It is hard work to have a truly equal society.
3. Assessments:
    1. a written test covering the entire Civil Rights period
    2. the group oral presentations
    3. a timeline of the major Civil Rights battlefields and victories
    4. an essay discussing the effect of Jim Crow laws on society and their deconstruction through the Civil Rights movement

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Lesson #3 We Hold These Truths to be Self-Evident…. (ELA, History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, students will learn about documents for freedom in the Colonial Era, the Progressive Era and the Civil Rights Era formation of the NAACP and the NAACP Legal Defense Fund and the Black Panthers. They will examine individually and then compare the Declaration of Independence as well as the Declaration of Principles, and the Ten Point Platform to determine the rights, protection, and privileges of American citizenship. The teacher should assess the students based on their ability to interpret primary source documents that are aligned in their ideologies.

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

1. Performance Task
    1. Students can be separated into small groups and assigned three principles per document to examine to determine any United States document guarantees a right, protection, accommodation, or privilege.
2. Other Evidence
    1. Is the Declaration of Principles a feasible request from the United States government based on the rights, protection, and privileges of United States citizenship? Have the students to make that determination. Based on their answers, examine the Declaration of Principles, the Ten Point Platform and answer whether they are also feasible requests?

3. Assessment
    1. The students' ability to evaluate documents using primary sources.

Assessment of Learning:

1. Students will know:
    1. What is established as demands of citizenship through the Bill of Rights and the Declaration of Independence during Colonial America?
    2. How those documents defined the realities of what citizenship privileges will be in the United States of America.
    3. NAACP stands for what words?
    4. Who was W.E.B. Du Bois?
    5. Is the Declaration of Principles an important manifesto that should be used today in African-American communities?
    6. African Americans have been in constant struggle for equal rights and citizenship, even before the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s.
    7. What was the Black Panther Party?
    8. What was their platform for founding and what were their demands from America?
    9. Should the Ten Point Platform be used today in African American communities?
    10. Does it translate to the general American community and national ethos?
2. Students will understand:
    1. The students will understand that various American groups collectively sought to improve the conditions of their people, based on the rights of America citizenship.
    2. Students will understand why and who established the NAACP, the importance of the organization since its establishment, and its viability today.
    3. Students will understand why and who established the Black Panther Party, the importance of the organizations since its establishment and its viability today.
    4. Students will be able to evaluate a document utilizing primary sources.

Teacher Resources:

1. https://www.aclu.org/united-states-bill-rights
2. http://www.archives.gov/exhibits/charters/declaration_transcript.html
3. The Niagara Movement's Declaration of Principles, 1905
4. Teacher can go to www.freedomssong.net to order a free DVD and lesson resources spanning 1900 to 2000 covering African American history.
5. http://www2.iath.virginia.edu/sixties/HTML_docs/Resources/Primary/Manifestos/Panther_platform.html

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Lesson # 4 Chronicling by Illustration – Storyboarding the March (ELA, Art, History)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 3, 6, 7
Language 1, 6, 8, 9

Lesson Summary:
In this lesson, students will learn about the history, various attempts, proponents and detractors including details of the strategy, oppositions, legal hurdles and subsequent execution of the Selma-Montgomery march that led to the passage of the Voting Rights Act in 1965.

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

1. The storyboard teaching strategy helps students keep track of main ideas and supporting details and can be used with texts are/or read aloud, or after a film to help students summarize and retain main ideas of a story they have read to themselves or seen and interpreted. Checking the thoroughness and accuracy of students' storyboards is an effective way to evaluate reading comprehension before moving on to more analytic tasks. Storyboard teaching strategy help students visualize and make sense of this story. Students can share the storyboards in small groups. After you have checked that all students understand the basic ideas of the reading, the questions, "What strikes you most about this story? What scene or square of your storyboard most stands out to you?" What can be used to start a discussion?

   CLIP REFERENCE

   JOIN US

   Download or stream "Join Us," an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (David Oyelowo) putting out a call to people everywhere to come to Selma and join the march.

1. Step 1: Watch the major motion picture ***Selma***, original newsreel footage, or the Eyes on the Prize documentary, or read the narrative of the events from various news accounts and personal testimony aloud or have students read silently to themselves.
2. Allow students to be able to identify between primary and secondary sources in the telling of the stories.
3. Step 2: Provide a storyboard template for students or blank pieces of paper. (The template should have several blocks that are large enough for students to draw pictures with room for captions below.) You can find many storyboard templates online.
4. Step 3: With a small group or as individuals, ask students to draw the main ideas of a story. Students could do this after hearing a story aloud or while reading a story to themselves or after viewing the film. Each drawing should have a can have short caption explaining what is happening in the picture. You could also have students use relevant quotations from the story as captions. If you are looking for them to be really creative, tell the students that they are to use very limited words, that the main ideas must be displayed by their "pictures only".
5. Step 4: You can then ask students to compare storyboards with a partner or as small groups. How are their storyboards similar? How are they different? This discussion can help students clarify basic ideas in the text and can also help them analyze which ideas and details of the events are most important to them individually or as the group. You can then display your storyboards around the room so that other might see the intersections and the differentials among the storyboards.

Assessment of Learning:

1. Students will know:
    1. How the Selma march can be placed in the context of this country's "long Civil rights struggle" and identify it as a precedent setting impetus for the Voting Rights Act's enactment.
2. Students will understand:
    1. Dejure and defacto discrimination and segregation is its larger context of post Reconstruction America leading up through 1965.

2. The depth and breadth of the logistics and the oppositions to the Selma-Montgomery march including the planners, players and participants that organized and/or opposed the march and the larger Civil Rights battles.
3. That the strategy of peaceful direct civic engagement was larger than a black/white binary within the ideology and practice of segregation in 20th century America, but was a strategy utilized in similarly exercised Civil Rights struggles worldwide.

3. Assessments:
    1. Story board rubric can be created if assigned as a group assignment or individually.

Lesson #5 - The March to Selma – Mapping the Journey - An Applied Geography Project (Geography, ELA, History)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
MP anchors - 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, the students will be divided into five groups that will visit five stations within the classroom. These stations will allow the students to apply their knowledge of geography through five different activities.

Context:

The ability for students to understand history through geographic, mapping, and spatial terms. The application of this lesson will allow the students to gain a historical appreciation for not only their town, but also other areas of the United States and the World. This will prove invaluable as students make comparisons in societal trends across a wide spectrum of geographic exemplars.

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

To prepare, the teacher must secure the following materials: a list of geography terms for a word wall, United States map of the states, map of county and state roads in Alabama, United States topographical map, narratives/ presidential correspondences/newspaper accounts of the day by day occurrences during the march from Selma to Montgomery as well as the route outlined by court order that the marchers must follow. The three maps must be put on the three walls of the room where the word wall is not located. The teacher will then create a worksheet that organizes the complete assignment into five tasks or sections. Prior to this lesson, the teacher should review the geography terms placed on the word wall. The section of the room with desks should be arranged to represent two distinct areas. The area closest to the word wall will become the

station for the word wall. The other half of the seating area will become the area for the current events portion. The newspapers and magazines should be placed in that area of the room. As students enter the room, they are divided into five groups and each given a worksheet. The worksheet lists the stations and the tasks as follows:

Station 1: Go to the United States map, and find the name of the city based on the given coordinates (include a few cities). Then find the coordinates of the following cities (include a few cities).

Station 2: Use geography terms in a sentence to describe that city.

Station 3: Each group is assigned a city with the Alabama map; the group must go to the state map and identify the possible route to get between them. All of the cities must fall within the route of the March from Selma to Montgomery.

Station 4: Read a short, current events article on the march from Selma to Montgomery and write a reflection.

Station 5: Use the topographical map to list the characteristics of your assigned route.

As the groups circulate the room, the teacher monitors for time-on-task and assists students having difficulty. Teams should spend about seven minutes at each station. During the last ten minutes of class, the teacher asks each group to report its findings, give examples of its sentences, and its reactions to the current event articles. All materials will be returned at the conclusion of the period for assessment.

Assessment of Learning:

1. Students will know:
    1. How to find locations using latitude and longitude.
    2. How to use vocabulary terms.
    3. How to read and reflect on articles.
    4. Understand the route of the march from Selma to Montgomery and reflect on the terrain, hypothesize on the best route, see the court defined route within the time parameters set aside by the court order and reflect on the conditions of the march.

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Lesson #6 – The March to Selma –the Mathematics of the Journey An Applied Mathematics Project (Mathematics, Geography, ELA, History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading MP anchors 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8

Lesson Summary:

Students will learn through this mathematics project how can we develop visual representations of distance, geography, and time to enhance student understanding of the Mathematics and logistics of the March from Selma to Montgomery Alabama. Students will select, apply and translate among Mathematical representations, to solve the logistically issues that faced the organizers and marchers for the March from Selma to Montgomery.

Lesson Details:

1. Learning Activities:
   - Students will use of the distance formula – D=R*T (Distance = Rate * Time)
   - Students will be able to calculate the time of travel as related to the distances between locations in the March to Selma to Montgomery.
   - Students will understand the difference between the birds-eye view of travel and actual travel using triangular relationships and formulas.
   - Student will understand the value of visual of visual representation for mathematical expressions.
   - Students will understand the concept of using the distance formula to find distance or rate or time - separately.
   - Students will understand the perimeters of triangles and of regular, and irregular polygons.
   - Students will be able model actual travel using geometric shapes and geography, topography considerations and mapping skills.
   - Students will be able to apply and adapt a variety of appropriate strategies to solve logistical constraints and considerations in traveling from Selma and Montgomery Alabama.
   - Students will be able to recognize Mathematics vocabulary terms, names, build, draw, compare and sort two and three dimensional shapes.

- Students will be able to describe name, and interpret direction and distance in navigating space and apply ideas about directions and distance - geometry/ Algebra

Performance Tasks:

- Within the classroom set up various maps of Alabama, county roads, topography, map of travel route taken by the marchers, as well as projectors, transparencies with formulas, colored expo markers, student individual maps – modeling individual worksheets, additional practice sheets/ lesson extension sheets / Math textbooks and primary and secondary sources that chronicle the route and parameters, logistics of the march to Selma.
- Classroom set up - work in fours with each student assigned individual performance tasks around the room. Students will float around the room as they must examine and utilize the information on all the maps displayed.
- Students will come out of this lessons with Do Now assignments using their peers and primary and secondary sources as resources. Each student will report on their individual tasks to build the group presentations. Once students accurate complete the practice questions they will be able to answer more challenging questions regarding the logistics of calculating the march from Selma to Montgomery. For those students who are having difficulty they will be encouraged to draw geometric representations of the practice problems
- Personal reflections / notes - after teaching the lessons – ask students to write up their reflections on the extension of knowledge gained by the applied Math project. Students will also be asked to reflect on whether the lesson shifted the student's understanding about the intricacies of the; logistics and execution of the march.

SELMA

Lesson # 7 - WE Shall Overcome - The Collective Involvement of A People (ELA/ History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10
For Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, students will examine the organizations and people that were instrumental in the Civil Rights Movement and that are highlighted in the film ***Selma*** on both sides of the fight for freedom and create a living museum to present them to the greater learning community.

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

1) Have each student pick either an organization or an individual and research their history, their philosophy, their founding, their participants, their strategy, and their methodology throughout the Civil Rights Movements on both sides of the movement.
2) Allow students to choose their historical figure from the list attached below
3) Once the students have chosen their research topic, allow time on computers and in the library to research their figure. (Use this as an opportunity to discuss relevant sources)
4) Once complete, work in peer groups to practice their speech and delivery.
5) Spend time facilitating the building and producing of the informative speeches
6) Prepare a common area (library, gym, etc.) for the students to stand a good distance apart. Place markers in the floor for the "museum visitors" to stand on and indicate to the Living Museum historical figure, they must deliver their speech.

***Selma* - Organizations/Institutions and People (sampling)**

- The Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters
- Congress of Racial Equality (CORE)
- Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA)
- Nation of Islam (NOI)
- National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)

- Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC)
- Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)
- Black Panther Party
- American Civil Liberties Union
- White League
- Red Shirts
- Ku Kux Klan
- White Citizens Councils
- Martin Luther King Jr
- Coretta Scott King
- President Lyndon B. Johnson
- Rev. Ralph Abernathy
- Lee C. White
- George Wallace
- John Lewis
- Fred Gray
- Reverend James Reeb
- Frank Minis Johnson
- Annie Lee Cooper
- John Doar
- J. Edgar Hoover
- Diane Nash
- Amelia Boynton
- Reverend James Bevel
- James Forman
- Reverend Hosea Williams
- Richie Jean Jackson
- Jimmie Lee Jackson
- Viola Lee
- Andrew Young
- Malcolm X
- James Orange
- CT Vivian
- Bayard Rustin
- Reverend Frederick Reese
- Viola Liuzzo
- Cager Lee
- Dr. Sullivan Jackson

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Lesson # 8 - Nothing Happens in a Vacuum - Creating a Timeline of Events (Mathematics, History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading - 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 3, 4, 6
Writing 1, 2, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
MP 1, 2, 3, 4, 8

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, students will learn how timelines are useful primary sources for interpreting historical information and establishing causation in history. What do timelines really indicate about the social, political and economic realities of the times and the peoples involved? The students' understanding of timelines helps to create their ability to apply causation to major events in history. It is important for them to understand the adage, "Nothing happens in a vacuum."

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

Students will be divided in groups and given a series of cards – they will choose dates and events that they have researched in previous assignments regarding Civil Rights, voting, Jim Crow, that each correlate to a specific events that happened between 1865-1965 in regards to Civil Rights attainments and setbacks for African Americans. The teacher will then collect them and will them redistribute the cards among groups that have dates and events on them As a group they must correlate the dates with the event –and then report out so that each group is able to see the causation of a timeline of events that led up to Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Students will understand chronology and cause and effect in history, as well as create a jigsaw puzzle of events and times that they will collectively construct back into a linear timeline.

Lesson Plan # 9 - The Right to Vote – Comparative Movements (ELA/History)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson students will understand the various intersecting movements to win the right to vote in this nation and be able to articulate, compare and contrast their platforms, histories and struggles, primarily the Women's fight for suffrage and the Civil Rights movement led by African Americans.

Lesson Details:

Learning Activities:

1. Previous Night's Homework:
    1. Students will write a paragraph explaining why all people should have the right to vote.
2. Day of Lesson Procedure:
    1. Review the students' responses to why all people should have the right to vote.
    2. Write the word *suffrage* on the board and explain its meaning to the students.
    3. Show a picture of Abigail Adams.
        1. Ask students whose picture this is and why she was famous.

2. Explain to the students that Abigail was the wife of John Adams, our second President of the United States.
3. Discuss how Abigail played a huge role in the fight for women's suffrage. Explain she accompanied John on trips and wrote letters to him.
4. Explain that Abigail Adams was the first to plant the seed of women's right to vote and to have equal rights.
5. Read copies of Abigail's and John Adams' letters and ask students to identify Abigail's purpose for writing each letter.

4. Tell students the National American Woman Suffrage Association was established in 1890. Explain to the students that two previous organizations merged to create this one.
    1. Pass out a list of famous women who fought for women's rights to the students, and review the list with the students.
5. Ask students if they agree it was appropriate for women during this time to form a convention on this matter. What could be the possible consequences? Students will write a paragraph and finish it for homework.

3. Day Two of Lesson Procedures
    1. Show a picture of Alice Paul. Explain to students that she protested with a hunger strike.
        1. Explain what a hunger strike is, and ask the students why a person would take this action.
        2. Tell students on March 3, 1913, Alice Paul organized the largest parade ever seen on the eve of Woodrow Wilson's inauguration. Show a picture of the demonstration at the White House.
        3. Eight thousand college, professional, middle- and working-class women were dressed in white suffrage costumes. They marched down Pennsylvania Avenue from the Capitol to the White House.
        4. Explain the women marched with banners and floats while half a million people verbally harassed them. Reporters wrote stories about the demonstrations.
        5. Explain Alice Paul protested, met with the president, was arrested, and went on hunger strikes to fight for women's rights.

2. Pass out the Nineteenth Amendment, ratified in 1920, and read it with the students. Students will see that Congress finally passed this amendment and gave women their right to vote.
3. Pass out a copy of two women's rights songs. One song is "Oh Dear, What Can the Matter Be?" The other song is "Keep Woman in Her Sphere."
4. Divide students into groups and have them analyze the song, "Oh Dear, What Can the Matter Be?" Each group will take a verse and write its meaning. Review the meanings with the entire class. Discuss the chorus together.
5. Have students analyze the song, "Keep Woman in Her Sphere." Once again each group will take a verse and write its meaning for the song. Discuss together the meanings of each verse.

Day Three - MLK and the March to Selma

1) Read MLK/s speech on the steps of Montgomery, Alabama.
2) Utilizing all the materials and facts the students have gathered about the march from Selma to Montgomery discuss the strategies and participant in the Civil Rights movement and in the March.
3) Pass out the 15th Amendment/ The Voting Rights Act
4) Pass out a copy of two spirituals that had been adapted during the Civil Rights movement. One song is "We Shall Overcome". The other song is the "Battle Hymn of the Republic"
5) Divide students into groups and have them analyze the song, "We Shall Overcome" Each group and write its meaning. Review the meanings with the entire class. Discuss the chorus together.
6) Have students analyze the song, "Battle Hymn of the Republic". Once again each group will take a verse and write its meaning for the song. Discuss together the meanings of each verse.

Assessment of Learning:

1. Students will know:

    1. The history of the women's suffrage.
    2. How women fought for their rights and eventually won the right to vote.

3. The history of the African American vote in this country.
4. How Americans fought and won their right to vote, almost 100 years after the 15th amendment.

2. Students will understand that the Civil Rights movement had many alignments in its pursuit of voting rights, and that the long history of the events that lead to the march from Selma has its roots in other suffrage movements and struggles for voting that had transpired throughout the 18th – 20th century and included the advocacy of many individuals.
3. Assessment:
    1. Students will write a first-person essay pretending they are a woman who attended a protest in Washington, D.C. They must introduce themselves, their companions in Washington, and why they are in Washington. They must describe the atmosphere, and why it was important to be in Washington for the women's protest.
    2. Review the proper way to write a formal letter with the students. Students will write what it was like if they lived during President Woodrow Wilson's administration. Students must write a formal letter asking President Wilson to petition Congress to pass the women's right to vote
    3. Students will write a first-person essay pretending they are a man who participated in the march from Selma to Montgomery. They must introduce themselves, their companions in Selma, and why they are in marching. They must describe the atmosphere, and why it was important to be in Montgomery for the women's protest (they can articulate any of the three attempts of the march – including the events of Bloody Sunday on the Pettus Bridge.
    4. Review the proper way to write a formal letter with the students. Students will write what it was like if they lived during President's Johnson's administration. Students must write a formal letter asking President Johnson to petition Congress to pass the Voting Right Act.

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Lesson #10 – Selma – Eyewitnesses to History (ELA, History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
For Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson, students will read and analyze works of primary and secondary sources - fiction and pictorial histories that chronicle Bloody Sunday and the march from Selma to Montgomery and compare them to varied scenes in the major motion picture ***Selma*** that depict the events on screen.

Lesson Details:

Students will read excerpts of the book The Selma Voting Rights Struggle & March to Montgomery by Bruce Hartford and compare it to the first person historical non-fiction account and In Peace and Freedom: My Journey in Selma (Civil Rights and the Struggle for Black Equality in the Twentieth Century by Bernard LaFayette and the pictorial depictions in Selma's Bloody Sunday (We the People: Modern America) by Lucia Raatma as well as watch varied corresponding films clips from the major motion picture ***Selma***. Through this comparative analysis, students will understand that films, like works of fiction are a type of storytelling that explores factual stories and issues using film or video. By the end of the lesson students should know the difference between fact, fiction and opinion, and be prepared to watch film excerpts and read works of non-fiction and narratives that all highlight the same events.

Learning Activities:

1) On the board, write in large letters:

   Represent / Re-present

2) Ask students what meanings they find in these words. Encourage them to explore all possible meanings and ask them to list things they encounter in and out of school that "represent" or "re-present" other things.

3) IF TIME ALLOWS, or with older students, follow this discussion with discussion of a second word pair:
   Fact / Art

4) Ask students to think about what each term means separately and what they might mean when put together.

5) After reading the works and viewing the corresponding film clips

   a. Ask students to review what they already know about the events in Selma. After soliciting a few answers, divide students into teams of three and tell them that they are going to begin looking more closely at what distinguishes the narrative between the work of nonfiction, the pictorial depictions, and the film clips from ***Selma***. Ask the groups to discuss the Re-enactment and live action (vérité) footage in the film as well as any usage of stock or historical footage and images shot by the filmmaker that validates the depiction of the narrative of the event in ***Selma.*** Compare and contrast.

6) Let students know that they should be prepared to report their results.

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Lesson #11 - Documenting the Movement – Selma in Real Time (ELA, History/Civics)

ELA/History anchor for Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10
Speaking and Listening 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,
MP 1, 3, 4

Lesson Summary:

In this lesson Students will understand that a primary source is an original, firsthand account containing original data of an event or time period, and it usually was written or created during or close to a particular event or during a specific time period. Primary sources include creative writing such as diaries, letters, memoirs, journals, speeches, manuscripts, and interviews. They may also include newspaper or magazine articles if the articles were written soon after the event. Photographs, video recordings or works of art may also be primary sources. In comparison, secondary sources are created after the event to chronicle an analysis of the event or time period. Primary and secondary sources are tools historians use to interpret the events of the past. As is true with all documents, the author, individual, or institution creates the document with his or her own point-of-view. It is important for students to consider what conflicting versions of the same event tell them about historical writings and interpretation. What is the importance of the evidence included, and what is the importance of those details omitted?

There are many key questions to ask when interrogating primary or secondary sources:

- Was the author present at the event or soon thereafter?
- How does the author know these details (names, dates, and times)?

- What are the sources of this information? Are they from personal experience, eyewitness accounts, or reports others have written?
- Are the author's conclusions based on a single piece of evidence, or have many sources been taken into account (*e.g.,* diary entries, along with third-party eyewitness accounts, contemporary observations, newspaper accounts, etc.)

Learning Activities:

Students will research and gather primary sources via the web that chronicle the events in Selma, Alabama from various and contrasting points of view and sources that were printed during or immediately following the march in March 1965, for example the MLK library, the LBJ Library, newspaper accounts, interviews, television footage, etc. This activity will allow students understand the account as it was seen in real time, and not via the lenses of history which often shifts ideologies and narrations.

CLIP REFERENCE:

NEXT GREAT BATTLE

Download or stream "Next Great Battle," an official clip from the motion picture SELMA for use with lesson plans. This clip features activists Diane Nash (Tessa Thompson), Reverend Ralph Abernathy (Colman Domingo), Reverend Andrew Young (André Holland), and Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (David Oyelowo) as they journey to Selma to organize the march to Montgomery.

Written by: Stephanie James Wilson, Imani-Grace Cultural Consulting LLC


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