



**Eastview High School
Sample Assignment/Reflection
Honors English 9 & Honors Social Studies**

Honors English and Social Studies are year-long survey courses containing several units, all of which expand into year-long courses in grades 10-11. It is also the foundation for the Advanced Placement curriculum in Eastview High School which includes the careful reading and critical analysis of literature. Writing essays and stories and formal speaking are important parts of the curriculum. Honors students should look forward to registering for **10th grade Advanced Placement U.S. History, 11th grade A.P. Language and Composition** and **A.P. European History**, and **12th grade A.P. Literature and College in the Schools Composition**.

Five criteria to consider:

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|------------------------------|--|
| 1. MCA-III reading scores | 4. your motivation |
| 2. past English grades | 5. your time to complete the required coursework |
| 3. past communications grade | |

Please answer the following questions about reading and writing:

Do you enjoy reading? (Circle one) ALWAYS USUALLY RARELY NEVER

List several book titles you have read for leisure in the past year.

Do you enjoy writing? (Circle one) ALWAYS USUALLY RARELY NEVER

In one sentence, describe yourself as a writer.

Why do you believe Honors English 9/Honors Social Studies is the best placement for you in ninth grade?

CHARACTERISTICS OF A STUDENT WELL-SUITED FOR HONORS COURSES AT EVHS

Ability to Learn, In-depth thinking, Evaluative thinking

- Works well independently. Seeks help only when necessary. Does not require detailed or repeated directions from teacher in order to proceed.
- Likes to analyze, generalize, derive, prove, and abstract; to investigate relationships and alternative solutions.

Application of Knowledge, Instrumentation, Methodical thinking, Working capacity

- Readily applies learned principles to new situations. Can solve novel problems. Responds well to guided discovery.
- Has a strong intuitive sense for the subject matter, sorts out key relationships quickly.
- Has experienced high achievement in past courses without undue stress. Has not depended on rote learning or tutoring.
- Shows above average ability in oral and written expression.

Creative and Collaborative

- Is creative. Can think of things to try, or use original methods, when faced with a problem situation.
- Is able to build off the ideas of others, works well in groups, with complex problem solving situations.

Motivation, Inner direction

- Responds positively to challenging situations. Show persistence in searching for solutions. Finds satisfaction in independently solving problem rather accepting another person's solution or help.
- Shows a high degree of interest and motivation. Is intellectually curious and a critical thinker.

Reading and Writing Sample Assignment

The attached segment from the Honors American Government text, *American Government: Roots and Reform*, 2012 Edition by Karen O'Connor, Larry J. Sabato, and Alixandra B. Yanus, illustrate the style and rigor of the textbook used in the 9th grade Honors American Government course. This segment is provided primarily to give you an indication of the expected level of reading so that you are able to make an informed and accurate decision about your course selections for 9th grade.

Directions: Read the segment provided and respond to the following prompt. Your response should include information found in the reading and can also include any examples that you believe are applicable. Please respond with 500-700 words, word processed and double spaced.

Analyze how the civil rights movement of the 1960s resulted in broadening our rights as Americans.

The Civil Rights Movement

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Analyze the civil rights movement and the effects of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.



lthough it did not create immediate legal change, *Brown* served as a catalyst for a civil rights movement across the United States, and especially in the South. The decision emboldened activists and gave them faith that the government might one day change its segregationist policies in all areas of the law.¹⁶

□ School Desegregation After *Brown*

One year after *Brown*, in a case referred to as *Brown v. Board of Education II* (1955), the Court ruled that racially segregated systems must be dismantled “with all deliberate speed.”¹⁷ To facilitate implementation, the Court placed enforcement of *Brown* in the hands of appointed federal district court judges, whom it considered more immune to local political pressures than elected state court judges.

The NAACP and its LDF continued looking to the courts for implementation of *Brown*, while the South entered into a near conspiracy to avoid the mandates of *Brown II*. In Arkansas, for example, Governor Orval Faubus, who was facing a reelection bid, announced that he would not “be a party to any attempt to force acceptance of change to which people are overwhelmingly opposed.”¹⁸ The day before school was to begin, he declared that National Guardsmen would surround Little Rock’s Central High School to prevent African American students from entering. While the federal courts in Arkansas continued to order desegregation, the governor remained adamant. Finally, President Dwight D. Eisenhower sent federal troops to Little Rock to protect the rights of the nine African American students attending Central High.

In reaction to the governor’s illegal conduct, the Court broke with tradition and issued a unanimous decision in *Cooper v. Aaron* (1958), which was filed by the Little Rock School Board and asked the federal district court for a delay of two and one-half years in implementing desegregation plans. Each justice signed the opinion individually, underscoring his own support for the notion that “no state legislator or executive or judicial officer can war against the Constitution without violating his undertaking to support it.”¹⁹ The state’s actions thus were ruled unconstitutional and its “evasive schemes” illegal.

□ A New Move for African American Rights

In 1955, soon after *Brown II*, the civil rights movement took another step forward—this time in Montgomery, Alabama. Rosa Parks, the local NAACP’s Youth Council adviser, decided to challenge the constitutionality of the segregated bus system. First, Parks and other NAACP officials began to raise money for litigation and made speeches around town to garner public support. Then, on December 1, 1955, Rosa Parks made history when she refused to leave her seat in the front of the colored section of the bus to make room for a white male passenger without a seat. Police arrested her for violating an Alabama law banning integration of public facilities, including buses. After being freed on bond, Parks and the NAACP decided to enlist city clergy to help her cause. At the same time, they distributed 35,000 handbills calling for African Americans to boycott the Montgomery bus system on the day of Parks’s trial. Black ministers used Sunday services to urge their members to support the boycott. On

Monday morning, African Americans walked, carpooled, or used black-owned taxicabs. That night, local ministers decided the boycott should continue. A new, twenty-six-year-old minister, the Reverend Martin Luther King Jr., was selected to lead the newly formed Montgomery Improvement Association.

As the boycott dragged on, Montgomery officials and local business owners (who were suffering negative economic consequences) began to harass the city's African American citizens. The black residents held out, despite suffering personal hardship for their actions, ranging from harassment to job loss to bankruptcy. In 1956, a federal court ruled that the segregated bus system violated the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. After a year-long boycott, African American Montgomery residents ended their protest when city officials ordered the public transit system to integrate. The first effort at nonviolent protest had been successful. Organized boycotts and other forms of nonviolent protest, including sit-ins at segregated restaurants and bus stations, were to follow.

□ Formation of New Groups

The recognition and respect earned by the Reverend Martin Luther King Jr. within the African American community helped him launch the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) in 1957, soon after the end of the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Unlike the NAACP, which had northern origins and had come to rely largely on litigation as a means of achieving expanded equality, the SCLC had a southern base and was rooted more closely in black religious culture. The SCLC's philosophy reflected King's growing belief in the importance of nonviolent protest and civil disobedience.

On February 1, 1960, a few students from the all-black North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College in Greensboro participated in the first sit-in for civil rights. The students went to a local lunch counter, sat down, and ordered cups of coffee. They were not served, but stayed until closing. After the national wire services picked up the story, over the next several days, the students were joined by hundreds of others from the Greensboro area. When the students refused to leave, the police arrested and jailed them, rather than their white tormentors. Soon thereafter, African American college students around the South did the same. The national media extensively covered their actions.

Over spring break 1960, with the assistance of an \$800 grant from the SCLC, 200 student delegates—black and white—met at Shaw University in Raleigh, North Carolina, to consider recent sit-in actions and to plan for the future. Later that year, the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) was formed.

Whereas the SCLC generally worked with church leaders in a community, SNCC was much more of a grassroots organization. Always perceived as more radical than the SCLC, SNCC tended to focus its organizing activities on the young, both black and white.

In addition to joining the sit-in bandwagon, SNCC also came to lead what were called freedom rides, designed to shine the spotlight on segregated public accommodations. Bands of college students and other civil rights activists traveled by bus throughout the South in an effort to force bus stations to desegregate. Often these protesters faced angry mobs of segregationists and brutal violence, as local police chose not to defend the protesters' basic constitutional rights to free speech and peaceful assembly. African Americans were not the only ones to participate in freedom rides; increasingly, white college students from the North began to play an important role in SNCC.

While SNCC continued to sponsor sit-ins and freedom rides, in 1963 King launched a series of massive nonviolent demonstrations in Birmingham, Alabama, long considered a major stronghold of segregation. Thousands of blacks and whites marched to Birmingham in a show of solidarity. Peaceful marchers were met there by the Birmingham police commissioner, who ordered his officers to use dogs, clubs, and fire hoses on the marchers. Americans across the nation were horrified as they witnessed on television the brutality and abuse heaped on the protesters. As the marchers had hoped, the shocking scenes helped convince President John F. Kennedy to propose important civil rights legislation.

□ The Civil Rights Act of 1964

Both the SCLC and SNCC sought full implementation of U.S. Supreme Court decisions dealing with race and an end to racial segregation and discrimination. The cumulative effect of collective actions including sit-ins, boycotts, marches, and freedom rides—as well as the tragic bombings, lynchings, and other deaths inflicted in retaliation—led Congress to pass the first major piece of civil rights legislation since the post-Civil War era, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, followed the next year by the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Several events led to consideration of the two pieces of legislation.

In 1963, President John F. Kennedy requested that Congress pass a law banning discrimination in public accommodations. Seizing the moment, the Reverend Martin Luther King Jr. called for a monumental march on Washington, D.C., to demonstrate widespread support for far-ranging anti-discrimination legislation. It was clear that national legislation outlawing discrimination was the only answer: southern legislators would never vote to repeal Jim Crow laws. The March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom was held in August 1963, only a few months after the Birmingham demonstrations. More than 250,000 people heard King deliver his famous “I Have a Dream” speech from the Lincoln Memorial. Before Congress had the opportunity to vote on any legislation, however, President Kennedy was assassinated on November 22, 1963, in Dallas, Texas.

When Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson, a southern-born, former Senate majority leader, succeeded Kennedy as president, he put civil rights reform at the top of his legislative priority list, and civil rights activists gained a critical ally. Thus, through the 1960s, the movement subtly changed its focus from peaceful protest and litigation to legislative lobbying. Its scope broadened from integration of school and public facilities and voting rights to preventing housing and job discrimination and alleviating poverty.

Changes in public opinion helped the push for civil rights legislation in the halls of Congress. Between 1959 and 1965, southern attitudes toward integrated schools changed enormously. The proportion of Southerners who responded that they would not mind their child’s attendance at a racially balanced school doubled.

Civil Rights Act of 1964

Wide-ranging legislation passed by Congress to outlaw segregation in public facilities and discrimination in employment, education, and voting; created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

de jure discrimination

Racial segregation that is a direct result of law or official policy.

de facto discrimination

Racial discrimination that results from practice (such as housing patterns or other social or institutional, nongovernmental factors) rather than the law.

In spite of strong presidential support and the sway of public opinion, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 did not sail through Congress. Southern senators, led by South Carolina’s Strom Thurmond, a Democrat who later switched to the Republican Party, conducted the longest filibuster in the history of the Senate. For eight weeks, Thurmond led the effort to hold up voting on the civil rights bill. Once passed, the **Civil Rights Act of 1964:**

- Outlawed arbitrary discrimination in voter registration and expedited voting rights lawsuits.
- Barred discrimination in public accommodations engaged in interstate commerce.
- Authorized the Department of Justice to initiate lawsuits to desegregate public facilities and schools.
- Provided for the withholding of federal funds from discriminatory state and local programs.
- Prohibited discrimination in employment on grounds of race, creed, color, religion, national origin, or sex.
- Created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to monitor and enforce the bans on employment discrimination.

As practices thought to be in violation of the law continued, other changes continued to sweep the United States. African Americans in the North, who believed that their brothers and sisters in the South were making progress against discrimination, found themselves frustrated. Northern blacks, too, were experiencing high unemployment, poverty, and discrimination, and had little political clout. Some, including African American Muslim leader Malcolm X, even argued that, to survive, African Americans must separate themselves from white culture in every way. These increased tensions resulted in violent race riots in many major cities from 1964 to 1968, when many African Americans in the North took to the streets, burning and looting to vent their rage. The assassination of the Reverend Martin Luther King Jr. in 1968 triggered a new epidemic of race riots.

□ Statutory Remedies for Race Discrimination

Many Southerners adamantly believed that the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was unconstitutional because it went beyond the scope of Congress's authority to legislate under the Constitution, and they quickly brought lawsuits to challenge its scope. In 1964, on expedited review, the Supreme Court upheld its constitutionality, finding that Congress had operated within the legitimate scope of its commerce power as outlined in Article I.²⁰

EDUCATION One of the key provisions of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 authorized the Department of Justice to bring actions against school districts that failed to comply with *Brown v. Board of Education*. By 1964, a full decade after *Brown*, fewer than 1 percent of African American children in the South attended integrated schools.

In *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg School District* (1971), the Supreme Court ruled that all vestiges of state-imposed segregation, called *de jure* discrimination, or discrimination by law, must be eliminated at once. The Court also ruled that lower federal courts had the authority to fashion a wide variety of remedies, including busing, racial quotas, and the pairing of schools, to end dual, segregated school systems.²¹

In *Swann*, the Court was careful to distinguish *de jure* from *de facto* discrimination, which is discrimination that results from practice, such as housing patterns or private acts, rather than the law. The Court noted that its approval of busing was a remedy for intentional, government-imposed or -sanctioned discrimination only.

Over the years, forced, judicially imposed busing found less and less favor with the Supreme Court, even in situations where *de jure* discrimination had existed. In 2007, in a contentious 5-4 opinion, the Supreme Court abolished the use of voluntary school desegregation plans based on race.²²

EMPLOYMENT Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits employers from discriminating against employees for a variety of reasons, including race, sex, age, and national origin. (In 1978, the act was amended to bar discrimination based on pregnancy.) In 1971, in one of the first major cases decided under the act, the Supreme Court ruled that employers could be found liable for discrimination if their employment practices had the effect of excluding African Americans from certain positions.²³ The Court allowed African American employees to use statistical evidence showing the Duke Power Company had excluded them from all but one department, because it required employees to have a high school education or pass a special test to be eligible for promotion.

The Supreme Court ruled that although the tests did not appear to discriminate against African Americans, their effects—that no African American employees were in any other departments—were sufficient to shift to the employer the burden of proving that no discrimination occurred. Thus, the Duke Power Company would have to prove that the tests were a business necessity that had a “demonstrable relationship to successful performance” of a particular job.

The notion of “business necessity,” as set out in the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and interpreted by the federal courts, had special importance for women. They had long been kept out of many occupations on the strength of the belief that customers preferred to deal with male personnel. Conversely, because airlines believed that passengers preferred being served by young, attractive women, they barred males from flight-attendant positions. Similarly, many large factories, manufacturing establishments, and police and fire departments avoided hiring women by subjecting them to arbitrary height and weight requirements. Like the tests declared illegal by the Court, a relation between these requirements and job performance often could not be shown, and the federal courts eventually ruled them illegal.