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**The Issue of Race and Citizenship in the United States of
America**

A memoir submitted as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of *Master* in
Literature and Civilizations.

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Declaration of Originality

I hereby declare that this submission is my work and that, it contains no material previously published or written by another person nor material that has been accepted for the qualification of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution.

Date: Juin / 10 / 2024

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A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'Abdenmour Salaa', written in a cursive style.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work with love and gratitude

To my beloved family

To my teachers

To my friends without exception.

Acknowledgements

My thanks go to my supervisor Dr. F. Bouguesmia for her support, guidance and patience. She was an immeasurable source of insightful guidance and advice.

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Abstract

Throughout the history of the United States of America, society knew the intersection of two major concepts, which were race and citizenship, as they framed the social, historical, and political landscape and circumstances. In fact, they affected the status of different racial minorities, who faced varied kinds of racial discrimination and exclusion from any citizenship rights, especially during the twentieth century. This study aims to examine and understand the unequal treatment of the different ethnic minorities in the United States of America and their impacts on obtaining and enjoying their rights, besides their struggle to gain their full citizenship rights. In order to gain an extensive understanding and gather data about the political, social, and historical status, in addition to the experiences of the various racial minorities, the research process relied on qualitative methodology through analyzing and studying various articles and books and checking historical documents. As well, this paper includes a historical approach since it examines the historical background of different ethnic minorities and their major events before and during the twentieth century, along with the civil rights movements struggle. The current research surrounded the historical context of the different ethnic minorities in the United States and how they were affected by the political and social racial treatments in terms of their citizenship rights and their reactions.

- Key words : American citizenship, civil rights movements, different racial minorities, exclusion, race, racial discrimination, the United States of America.

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List of Acronyms

AAC:	the African American culture
ACW:	the American Civil War
AIM:	the American Indian Movement
AM:	the Abolitionist Movement
AWOC:	the Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee
BB:	the Brown Berets
BBE :	Brown v. Board of Education
BIA:	the Bureau of Indian Affairs
BP:	the Bracero Program
BPM:	the Black Power Movement
ELA :	East Los Angeles
CEA:	the Chinese Exclusion Act
CM:	the Chicano Movement
CORE:	the Congress of Racial Equality
CRA:	the Civil Rights Act of 1964
CRM:	the Civil Rights Movement
EPC:	the Equal Protection Clause
IA:	the Immigration act
IAT:	the Indians of All Tribes
ICA:	the Indian Citizenship Act

IRA:	the Indian Reorganization Act
JCL:	Jim Crow Laws
KKK:	the Ku Klux Klan
LA:	Los angeles
MBB:	the Montgomery Bus Boycott
MIA:	the Montgomery Improvement Association
NAACP:	the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
RPM:	the Red Power Movement
SBE:	Separate but Equal
SCLC:	the Southern Christian Leadership Conference
SFUSD:	the San Francisco Unified School District
SNCC:	the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee
TBT:	the Trail of Broken Treaties
TRM :	the Tulsa Race Massacre
US:	the United States
USA:	the United States of America
VRA:	the Voting Rights Act of 1965
WKO:	Wounded Knee Occupation
WWI:	the First World War
WWII:	the Second World War

General Introduction

Race and citizenship have been two historically interconnected terms since ancient times, that is, the era of civilizations. In fact, the issue of race had a great impact, as ethnic minorities in all societies suffered from many difficulties. They were subject to racist treatments in the form of slavery and racial exclusion from consideration and not being classified as citizens, as was the case in the civilization of the Greeks, who invented the term citizenship and the rights and duties it entailed. However, the intersection of race and citizenship appeared, where they set several conditions in order to become citizens, which consequently resulted in racial segregation.

This phenomenon of exclusion and suppressing non-white people continued until the emergence of modern societies such as the United States of America. In effect, the history of American society is centered around and distinguished by the issue of race and its impact on the enjoyment of citizenship rights through the exposure of various racial minorities to racial exclusion and discrimination.

The United States of America was a site of the intersection of race and citizenship. Race had a major impact on the lives and rights of various ethnic minorities, as it was the beginning of the suffering since the colonial period through the slavery trade and the practice of slavery against blacks, in addition to the violent practices against indigenous people and their deportation. Racism and exclusion from citizenship also intensified after the increase in the proportion of immigrants, such as Asians and Hispanics, during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, that is, during federal rule. During this stage, various ethnic minorities, such as indigenous peoples, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Hispanic Americans, suffered from systemic racism and discrimination through the enactment of exclusionary federal laws, as well as intimidation and social violence practiced against them. As a reaction, the oppression, injustice, and spread of awareness among ethnic minorities led to the emergence of civil rights movements to defend and obtain their rights.

For this purpose, the main goal of this thesis is to define and explain the terms race and citizenship, in addition to their intersection. Furthermore, the purpose of the purpose of the research is to clarify and introduce the most important historical events and stations that the United States of America experienced at different times. More importantly, it is concerned with highlighting the difficulties faced by white people,

whether indigenous or immigrants, through acts of exclusion, segregation, and violence, where they lived a life that was more like hell. Besides, the thesis aims, by depicting the struggle of ethnic minorities in the United States of America through the civil rights movement, to make it a motive that encourages all minorities and oppressed people around the world to ask for their civil rights.

This study tries to achieve three main objectives. Firstly, it will shed light on the experiences of racial minorities and their suffering from marginalization and exclusion from the right to citizenship. Secondly, it will focus on the issues of systemic discrimination and racism against non-white people through enacting legal frameworks and policies. Thirdly, it will highlight the role of civil rights movements in the United States of America through their struggle to achieve and protect minorities rights.

In order to reach the objectives of the current study, it is important to answer the following questions:

- To what extent did the United States ethnic minorities suffer from discrimination and exclusion from their citizenship rights due to their race?
- What were the racist laws and policies that were applied against non white people?
- What role did the civil rights movements play in confronting racism and ensuring ethnic minorities rights ?

Then, a range of hypotheses were established to conduct this work :

- Racial minorities had suffered the utmost degree of exclusion and discrimination from their full civil rights, including voting right, studying, and working.
- Many Laws contributed significantly to reinforcing segregation and marginalization against colored people including state and local laws.

- The civil rights movements had a prominent role in challenging discrimination and exclusion through their achievement in guaranteeing the rights of various ethnic minorities.

This paper relied on a qualitative methodology in the process of accumulating data by using online resources such as articles, books, and websites as a way to attain a comprehensive overview of the issue of race and citizenship in the United States of America through analyzing the political, social, and historical status. Therefore, the historical approach is used as a tool to obtain an idea about the historical background of the different ethnic minorities in the country.

The theses is divided into three chapters. The first chapter serves as a historical background of different racial minorities, including Indigenous people, African Americans, and Hispanic Americans, how they came to the America, and their status before the twentieth century. Also, it gives an overview of the concepts race and citizenship. Next, the second chapter deals with the major events and the treatments that were experienced by the various racial minorities in the United States of America during the twentieth century, like the racist laws and the violent operations. Then, the third one deals with the emergence of the civil rights movements and their challenges and resistance against the systemic discrimination and racism. Furthermore, it highlights the efforts in maintaining and ensuring minorities citizenship rights.

Chapter One:
The Historical Background of
Racial minorities

Introduction

Race and citizenship are two interconnected concepts through the influence of race on individuals' obtaining the right to exercise citizenship. Historically, different ethnic minorities lived in the United States of America (USA), and their conditions and characteristics differed between Indigenous people and immigrants, between a source of strength, dominance, and a state of weakness and victimhood. The first to inhabit America were, of course, the Indigenous people known as the Red Indians, the name given to them after their first contact with the Spaniards, who arrived in America in the year 1492 and settled as colonizers, which resulted in the appearance of an ethnic minority known as Hispanics. In addition, the slave trade practiced by the Spanish also resulted in the emergence of a new ethnic group in the region, namely black Africans. Furthermore, a new competitor to the Spanish also appeared in the region, namely the British, who also came as occupiers. As a result of push and pull factors, Asians registered their presence in the region through the immigration of Chinese and Japanese. All of these racial groups played a crucial role in making the history of the USA.

1.1. Introducing the Concepts of Race and Citizenship

The two concepts of race and citizenship are significant themes that were studied by many scholars and had a great impact on different societies.

1.1.1. Definition of Race

The term race has been defined by many scholars; some of them consider it a biological construct, while others see it as a social construct.

According to Merriam-Webster, race is defined as “Any one of the groups that humans are often divided into based on physical traits regarded as common among people of shared ancestry” (2019). That is, the term race is a system that classifies and categorizes human beings based on specific factors into various groups.

Another definition presented by Cambridge Dictionary is that “Race is a group of people who share the same language, history, characteristics” (2020). It means that race is defined by the shared people's similarities, such as physical appearances, language, etc.

Thus, the concept of race is multifaceted, and it is complicated to get a specific meaning for it. Many scholars and scientists disagreed in this area and saw it from another angle.

Biologists and a group of linguists considered race a biological construct, including Coon, who stated that “Race is a biological term which is applicable to human beings, similar to animals such as fruit flies, warblers and raccoons” (1957). It means that human beings differ in terms of genetics and physical phenotypes.

This point of view was confirmed by Templeton, who noted that “Human beings differ biologically, in terms of physical phenotype, genetic differences, or different evolutionary lineages” (Lee et al., 2021). It was confirmed that race refers to a group of people who are categorized into various groups based on genetic features.

On the other hand, scientists assume that race has no relationship with biology. In this context, Solomon H. Katz, a University of Pennsylvania anthropologist, stated that “Biologically, we are saying in essence that race is no longer a valid scientific distinction” (Hotz, 2019). This means that there is no biological basis, and race is a social construct. In this support Henry & Tator claimed that “race is a socially constructed phenomenon” (Alberta Civil Liberties Research Centre, n.d.). So, race is related to social factors more than biological ones.

An accurate definition of race as a social construction was presented by Bonham is that “Race is a social construct used to group people. Race was constructed as a hierarchical human-grouping system... Race divides human populations into groups, often based on physical appearance, social factors and cultural backgrounds” (Bonham, 2023). Hence, the main idea of race as a social construct is based on physical characteristics along with social, cultural, and historical aspects.

1.1.2. Definition of Citizenship

The first use of the term citizenship was in the era of Ancient Greece, during which individuals or citizens had various rights and duties such as voting, paying taxes, and serving in the military; however, citizenship was limited only to property owners.

Citizenship is defined as "The state of being a member of a particular country and having rights because of it" (Cambridge University Press, 2019). It refers to belonging to a country that guarantees your full rights.

Another definition was presented by Wayne State University, that citizenship is "A legal status and relation between an individual and a state that entails specific legal rights and duties" (2022). It shows that citizenship is a relationship between the citizen and his homeland, meaning that the homeland owes him rights and the citizen owes duties to his nation.

From this standpoint, the term citizenship refers to the situation of being a member, or, in other words, a citizen of a certain country, enjoying all legal rights and fulfilling duties and responsibilities.

According to the English sociologist T.H. Marshall, "Citizenship is a status bestowed on those who are full members of a community. All who possess the status are equal with respect to the rights and duties with which the status is endowed" (Lazar, 2016). This means the citizen is a part of a state or community and is guaranteed multiple rights, such as civil rights, among them freedoms of speech and religion, political rights such as enjoying political parties and the right to run for public office, and social rights such as education and housing.

But in return, this citizen must fulfill his duties towards his nation by contributing through paying taxes, serving in the military, and assuming full responsibility. According to Aristotle, the word citizen was described as "A citizen pure and simple is defined by nothing else so much as by the right to participate in judicial functions and in office" (Aristotle, Politics, Book 3, Section 1275a, n.d.). That is to say, whoever sought rights only was not a citizen but must have contributed to all his duties towards his country, which guaranteed him his rights in return.

1.1.3. The Relationship between Race and Citizenship

It had been thought that the concepts of race and citizenship were in a contrast relationship, as it is mentioned that “Citizenship is premised on individual equality, while the essence of race is collective inequality” (AP Central – the College Board, 2006). From this angle, race seemed to be an obstacle to what citizenship offered to individuals. However, recently, the two terms have been in an influential relationship in which each influences the other.

Historically, race has affected ethnic minorities since the era of civilizations up to the present century, so it was used as a tool for discrimination and exclusion and to decide who could become a citizen and who could not. As in the case of the Ancient Greeks in Athenian laws, in order to be a citizen, you have to be borne by citizen parents, as Euxitheos mentioned:

What I have to say about my self is, I think, the simplest and most just: that because I am from Astos parents on both sides and have received my kleros of the property and of the family, I am a citizen. (Blok, 2017)

So, the race of his parents was what guaranteed him citizenship.

In addition, Greek law excluded slaves from the right to citizenship, so a person had to be a free man and property owner in order to be Athena’s citizen. Moreover, there is currently a law applied in many countries that represents the extent to which race affects being a citizen; it is known as Jus Sanguin, which grants the right of citizenship to an individual on the condition of the nationality of his parents. This means that this individual’s right to citizenship is linked to the lineage of his ancestors.

As for the case study, i.e., the USA, it is one of the cases that most represents the effect of race on citizenship. Since the beginning of the Colonial era, race has played a major role in defining citizens, and this was limited only to whites. On the other hand, “The leaders of the newly created United States did not deem Indian people worthy enough to become citizens of their country” (Rollings, 2004, p. 126)., which means that Native Americans were deprived of being citizens. In addition to Indigenous people, other ethnic minorities were excluded and marginalized, such as African Americans, Asians, and Hispanics.

Finally, the relationship between the concepts of race and citizenship is a complex and multifaceted topic, as race was the basic criterion in determining who should be considered a citizen, regardless of the place of birth. Even if someone was a native person, he would be excluded from all his rights. This was why ethnic minorities had suffered throughout history because of the race issue.

1.2. Native Americans

Native Americans are defined as “People from one of the many groups who were already living in North America before the Europeans arrived, especially those groups in the continental United States” (Collins English Dictionary, 2024). In other words, Native Americans, or American Indians, are the individuals who are considered the first settlers of North America, which means that they are the original population.

It is assumed that the American Indians migrated from Asia to America, crossing the Bering Bridge, 30,000 years ago. In fact, Native Americans were mistakenly named Indians by Christopher Columbus during his exploration voyage, and it is still used to this day.

1.1.2. Native American Communities and Cultures

Native American societies were characterized by social and political structures. Historically, the Indigenous people were arranged into different social and political groups, which are known as tribes. That is, related individuals in the same family form a tribe. It is assumed that there were 574 nationally recognized Native American tribes, including the Sioux, the Apache, the Cherokee, and the Cheyenne.

The Sioux people were divided into different tribes, the Lakota, the Dakota, and the Nakota. They settled on the Great Plains. They were famous for hunting bison and herding buffalo. In addition, the Apaches are another indigenous tribe, inhabiting the arid lands of Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. They were known for their interest in agriculture, herding, and hunting. Furthermore, the Cherokees are indigenous people of the Southeast Coast. They moved to live in the southern Appalachian Mountains, and like any Indian, they practiced agriculture. Besides, the Cheyenne lived on the Great Plains, but in the northernmost area, from the Black Hills of South Dakota to Colorado. They were divided into groups and were allies of the Arapaho and the Sioux.

What distinguished these tribes was self-rule, meaning that each tribe was independent, sovereign, and managed its internal affairs according to its rules and customs without referring to any external rule, and this was what was known as tribal sovereignty.

Indigenous tribes relied on several sources to provide their food, which differed according to each environment. Most Indians were farmers, and among their agricultural products were potatoes, beans, and corn. They were also known to be professionals at hunting, as they invented many methods. Moreover, they relied on animals as a food source, and they also used their skins as clothing and to make tents for themselves. As for the tribes living near the rivers, they relied on fishing.

Concerning their culture, among the beliefs of the Native Americans is that they sanctify nature and have great respect for it. Anthony J. Cichoke demonstrated the extent of the Indigenous people's connection to nature in his book *Secrets of Native American Herbal Remedies*, where he stated that "Almost every Native American culture believed that everything—every animal, organism, plant, rock, tree, mountain, and even water—had a soul" (Faena, 2020). This indicated that the Native people were cultured and civilized, contrary to the barbaric and ignorant portrayal of them. They gave value to everything that existed on earth, based on nature, which represented their home and all its components, which they treat as their partner.

The Native people relied on natural medicine and spiritual healing. On the other hand, they depended on oral traditions to transmit their knowledge, customs, and history instead of writing. This contributed to making them storytellers, but it caused their inability to transmit their true image, and this was what led to the extinction of their cultures and languages.

They were peaceful people who lived their lives simply; they loved their land and nature. However, the European contact with them turned their lives into hell, which made them the most oppressed people in history. Just like the Palestinians, they are both owners of the land and face the same fate.

1.1.3. Legacy of European Colonization on Indigenous Communities

European countries carried out a number of colonial campaigns during the period extending from the fifteenth to the twentieth century, which resulted in the restructuring of various continents, and this negatively affected most of the Indigenous people, who are still affected by the remnants of colonialism till now. As in the case of America, since the first arrival of the colonists, the results of this began to appear.

The Europeans arrived as explorers or colonists in America carrying an invisible weapon against the Indigenous population, i.e., infectious diseases and epidemics. Upon the first contact between the two parties, diseases such as smallpox, measles, and influenza spread among the Indians, and their results appeared quickly, as the Indigenous people did not have immunity against the modern diseases that were transmitted to them. As a result, a great tragedy occurred, and one could say it was a massacre against the Indians. It was estimated that ‘‘Between 10 million and 20 million people were killed, equivalent to 95% of the population’’ (New World Encyclopedia, 2019). Based on these numbers, it was a biological massacre. In this context, the English explorer Thomas Harriot mentioned that :

Within a few days after our departure from every such [Indian] town, the people began to die very fast, and many in short space ; in some towns about twenty, in some forty, in some sixty, & in one six score [6 x 20 = 120], which in truth was very many in respect of their numbers. . . . The disease was also so strange that they neither knew what it was nor how to cure it. (Kincheloe, 2008)

The remnants of this malicious idea were terrible, as they led to the erasure of some tribes from existence.

The transmission of diseases and the resulting population extermination and reduction made it easier for Europeans to occupy land without making any effort or raising a weapon. During the French and Indian War, the use of smallpox to eradicate Native Americans was proposed by British Commander Jeffrey Amherst. Out of the cunning of the occupiers, they covered their malicious intent by claiming that they were peaceful and provided blankets contaminated with smallpox to the Indigenous people.

The Europeans also had another impact on the lifestyles of the Indians, which depended on simple means, but after contact with the Europeans, they brought new things

that affected their methods, principles, and cultures. Interest in hunting, which was relied upon as a source of food, decreased, and the Indians began to consume European products. They also became interested in cloth instead of the animal skins from which clothing was made, and the skins became used only in trade. On the other hand, the Indians gave up their bows and arrows and replaced them with firearms and knives. It can be said that the Europeans brought modernity and development, but there was always a hidden evil. They brought alcohol as a weapon to weaken the Indigenous communities, as they became addicted to it, and this was what contributed to the destruction and weakness of their societies.

They also adopted another phenomenon that contributed to the destruction of Indigenous societies, which was slavery. “It is surprising to learn that before 1700 in the Carolinas, one-fourth of all enslaved people were American Indian men, women, and children” (Kincheloe, 2008). In order to build their societies, the Europeans needed help. In fact, several battles and wars took place between the Indigenous tribes, and the defeated tribes members were placed under captivity. Therefore, the Europeans offered rewards to the major tribes in order to bring them Indian slaves, and in fact, many slaves were purchased. This phenomenon caused many wars between tribes and even resulted in the migration of some of them.

From a religious aspect, the Indians were known for being pagans, so the colonists convinced the Indians that the secret to development and civilization was to embrace Christianity, whether Catholic or Protestant. There were major missionary campaigns by the Roman Catholic Church and even Protestant individuals, through building schools and distributing Bibles.

1.1.4. Treaties and Policies: Assimilation and Displacement

After the Europeans' methods and plans succeeded, which contributed to weakening the Indians ability to occupy their lands, it was time for deportation and assimilation. When the Indians became weaker, they were forced to sign many treaties, and a series of policies were issued to remove and assimilate them.

At the turn of the nineteenth century, settler expansion began into remote southern regions that were home to Indian nations such as the Cherokee, Creek, Choctaw, Chickasaw, and Seminole, which whites viewed as a barrier preventing them from moving

forward. They put pressure on the federal government to own these lands and exploit them for agriculture.

In the decade extending between 1814 and 1824, the Indians were displaced from their eastern lands to other sites in the West through their signing of nine out of eleven treaties, in which Andrew Jackson played an important role in imposing them, and the reason behind their agreement was an attempt to please the federal government to keep on some of their lands. As a result, a small group of Creeks, Cherokees, and Choctaws responded to the deportation to the lands to which they were destined. This resulted in the USA gaining areas of Alabama and Florida, in addition to Georgia, Tennessee, Mississippi, Kentucky, and North Carolina.

After becoming President of the USA, Andrew Jackson passed through Congress the Indian Removal Act in 1830. The law authorized the president to remove and transfer Indians from their lands east of the Mississippi to the prairie lands west of the Mississippi. Accordingly, the matter was handled smoothly, and the deportees were settled in the Western lands that were considered unsuitable for whites.

However, the five major tribes, known as the Five Civilized Tribes, including Creek, Cherokee, Seminole, Choctaw, and Chickasaw, rejected this decision and did not accept to exchange their lands and farms and move towards an unknown fate. They had cities that could be said to be civilized, with homes, missionary schools, and representative governments.

The first to submit and sign the removal treaty was the Choctaw tribe, and this was done in September 1830. They divided into those who headed west, and some remained in Mississippi under the terms of the treaty, but with the frequent harassment of the colonists, they surrendered and ended up heading west.

Among the most influential treatises was the Treaty of New Echota, which was signed in 1833. It was a deception of the Cherokee tribe, who occupied the territories of Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Alabama. It was delineated in 1836. Through it, the Indians were given two years to move towards the lands allocated to them, and only 2,000 people responded to the order, while 16,000 people opposed it.

However, in the years 1836–1838, the federal government met them with violence and forced deportation through military intervention led by Winfield Scott, which forced the Cherokee Indians to head west, and they did so on foot. That event led to the deaths of many people due to the harsh conditions; it was known historically as the Trail of Tears.

After the mission of deporting the Indians to the reservations, it was time for the assimilation campaign. Education was used as a weapon for the policy of americanization and assimilation, based on the idea that teaching Indians the values, language, and cultures of whites might contribute to their integration and erase their cultures and principles in a peaceful way. The federal government issued decisions requiring Indian children to go to boarding schools. Richard Pratt founded the first school for this purpose in 1879, known as the Carlisle Industrial School in Pennsylvania. Richard believed that the condition for assimilation was to obliterate the identity, values, and culture of the Indians through education when he mentioned that “Kill the Indian in him and save the man” (Marchiò, 2022). It refers to obliterating the identity of Indians.

After that, about 400 boarding schools were built under the management of religious organizations. About 100,000 Indians were forced to join, and the plan succeeded, which resulted in their abandonment and separation from their identities, beliefs, and even their names. This policy met with resistance and opposition, but each parent who opposed his son going to boarding schools was imprisoned and had his son taken by force.

The Dawes Act was passed in 1887 as another measure to implement the policy of assimilation and integration. This law provided for granting or dividing valuable lands among members of Indigenous tribes to practice agriculture and ranching. Those who accepted the division of tribal lands were entitled to become American citizens.

1.2. African Americans

The first arrival of Africans in America was in the sixteenth century, that is, during the Exploration era, where they shared their journeys with the explorers. Their number also increased after the emergence of European colonies. The year 1619 marked their arrival as part of the so-called slave trade, when they were captured and brought from Angola during the wars or attacks launched by Portugal against African countries. The black Africans arrived in Jamestown, Virginia, on the ships of two English pirates who

were known as the Treasurer and the White Lion. Over time, about 12.5 million Africans were transferred as captives to America.

1.2.2. Slavery : Roots and Meaning

Slavery was one of the negative phenomena that emerged in American society throughout history. It is defined as “A condition in which one human being was owned by another” (Hellie, 2023). In other words, it is to possess someone and deprive him of all rights.

In fact, slavery was justified by the church as God’s will, and scientists also played a crucial role in this, considering that the black man was an undeveloped subspecies of humanity.

African slavery appeared in America in the seventeenth century, in the year 1619, that is, during the Colonial era. This was linked to the transfer of twenty slaves who were transported on board the ships of English pirates from Angola to Jamestown and were sold to Governor Sir Edwin Sandys. They are considered the first African slaves in America.

After the colonists succeeded in taking all the Indigenous lands, agricultural lands in particular, they faced the problem of labour shortages, but they found the solution in the blacks who were transported to Jamestown and proved their efficiency in agriculture, such as tobacco, rice, and sugar, but later this turned into exploitation and slavery, or a possession.

By the end of the 17th century, the demand for tobacco steadily increased while the indentured servant workforce dwindled. Tobacco plantations and farmers faced a continually shrinking labour force ; enslaved people from Africa unwillingly filled that demand. As a result, tobacco became a basic source of income, and the demand for it increased. The farms were unable to meet the demands due to a lack of labour, but this void was filled with slaves through forced work.

Slavery, as an institution, was first legalized in 1641 in the Massachusetts Colony. The state of Massachusetts justified and legitimized the enslavement of Africans, Native Americans, and people of mixed race through the Body of Liberties document. Among what it stipulated was that “There shall never be any bond slavery village or captivity amongst us, unless it be lawful captives taken in just wars, and such strangers as willingly

sell themselves or are sold to us” (Boston, 2022). That is to say, slavery was legitimate and legal in cases of captivity and self-sale.

John Punch was considered the first black to be sentenced to slavery by a court for escaping in 1641 in the Virginia Colony. This indicated the view of the colony’s rulers that Africans were subject to enslavement because the same ruling had never before been applied to Europeans who had the same charge. From there, slavery was legalized, and masters were given the right and security to own slaves. The white servants were punished with four years added to their servitude, but Punch was sentenced to life long enslavement.

Therefore, Virginia issued laws restricting the rights of black Africans, and in the 1760s, slave laws were enacted. It also witnessed an active transatlantic slave trade through the Triangular Trade Route, which refers to a “Trade route that was predicated on the transatlantic trade of enslaved people... The three markets among which the trade was conducted were Europe, western Africa, and the New World” (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2024). What this means is the trade that existed between three regions : Europe, Western Africa, and the New World, which included the slave trade and gold.

Black slaves in the colonies suffered a lot. They lived a hard life as they faced many difficulties. Their deaths were more merciful to them than the lives they lived. For example, in housing, some of them lived in small huts, and on the other hand, there were dwellings called slave dwellings. They also lived in cabins built of tree trunks, the entrance of which was covered only with fur or cloth, meaning there was no door or window. There was no barrier to rain and cold weather.

As for work, they were subjected to hard work and difficult conditions. They worked year-round, six days a week from sunrise to sunset, and they only had some vacations based on the master’s wishes.

Slave marriage was seen as a profitable project for the master, which means that was the production of new slaves, as the children were assigned to work when they reached the age of five. Slavery played a role in separating families ; as slaves could only visit their families on Sundays due to their work, their children were also taken care of by others.

After the American Revolution, the situation changed, and there was a decrease in interest and reliance on slavery in the North, similarly to the South, due to the decline in

tobacco prices, meaning that this institution became ineffective and unprofitable, so the shift became towards growing wheat, which required less labour.

In 1793, Eli Wente succeeded in making a cotton gin device. It led to the emergence of cotton production in the South, and it became a successful trade. This meant the need for job, so the slave trade appeared, which constituted a surplus during the period of wheat production. The decision to ban international imports in 1808 also played a role in the revival of the black slave trade, whose income was more than agricultural production.

Indeed, as a reaction, slavery was confronted with a rebellion in 1831 led by Nat Turner, who led 75 rebels in Southampton County, Virginia, where 55 white people were killed but were suppressed.

1.2.3. Abolitionist Movements and the Emancipation Proclamation

Abolition refers to a drastic interethnic movement. Its role was to deal with issues related to exploitation and exclusion among the lowest rights.

Abolitionists were those opposed to the existence of slavery and who demanded its immediate eradication. Most early abolitionists were white, religious Americans, but some of the most prominent leaders of the movement were also black men and women who had escaped from bondage.

The first appearance of the so-called movement to abolish slavery in America was considered to be in the eighteenth century, i.e., during the Revolutionary era, through the Protestant group known as the Quakers, who opposed slavery in Pennsylvania from a religious perspective, and their efforts had a major impact on the emergence of the movement in the various colonies, such as the ban of slavery in Georgia by its founder, Edward Oglethorpe, in 1733, despite pressures and refusals due to its economic status.

The first organization was called the Pennsylvania Abolitionist Society. It was established on April 14, 1775, led by Quakers, and headed by Benjamin Franklin during the eighth decade of the eighteenth century.

The movement received great support from the Northern states that opposed the idea of slavery through anti-slavery legislation. On the other hand, the Confederation i.e., Southern states were the opposite, as they contradicted the idea of abolishing slavery and

supported its practice. This division appeared in particular in the issue of the Missouri Compromise of 1820, which is defined as a:

Measure worked out between the North and the South and passed by the U.S. Congress that allowed for admission of Missouri as the 24th state (1821). It marked the beginning of the prolonged sectional conflict over the extension of slavery that led to the American Civil War. (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018)

This settlement allowed slavery to be legalized in Missouri. As a result of this division, there was the American Civil War (ACW).

The Second Great Awakening was considered an inspiration to supporters and members of the Abolitionist Movement (AM) against slavery. The official emergence of the movement took place in 1830 after several organizations.

Among the movement's major efforts was the founding of the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1833, which played a key role as 1,350 branches were established in various parts of the country and included about 250,000 members, including the most prominent abolitionists, among them William Lloyd Garrison, the owner of the newspaper called *The Liberator*. He exploited his newspaper with his speeches and writings in calling for the abolition of slavery and its immediate end, in addition to Frederick Douglass, the freed slave, who had a contribution and an effective role through his speeches and writings. He also used his real-life story, Orville Vernon Burton, to have more influence.

Black orators such as Douglass, Henry Bibb, and Henry Box Brown spoke before the gatherings, telling their tales of victimization and loss, breaking hearts, and firing passions. On the other hand, among those who disagreed with the opinion of Gallison and Douglass regarding the immediate end of slavery was one of the most prominent politicians, Abraham Lincoln, who saw emancipation and gradual abolition as an appropriate solution instead of immediate abolition.

Truly, the movement's efforts met with a backlash, including the murder of news editor and publisher Elijah Parish Lovejoy on November 7, 1837, by a mob in Elton, Illinois. Among the challenges to the movement was the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which was passed in 1854 and contradicted the Missouri Compromise. The two states were allowed to decide whether to allow slavery or not. Moreover, the attack led by one of the most prominent advocates of the movement, John Brown, in what was known as Bleeding Kansas, and also

his attack on Harpers Ferry to seize a federal armory and lead blacks to revolt and take their freedom. All these events are considered sparks for the ACW.

As a result of many of the above-mentioned circumstances, along with the election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860, the four-year ACW erupted, which extended from 1861 to 1865. The two sides of the conflict were the Union's anti-slavery states against the states of the Confederation, that is, the eleven states that separated from the USA in 1860, when Lincoln was elected, such as Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia, which decided to continue relying on slavery and rejected the idea of abandoning it.

Among the results achieved due to the efforts of the abolition of slavery was the announcement of the Emancipation Proclamation by President Abraham Lincoln on January 1, 1863, which stipulated the liberation of slaves in the Confederate states.

Here is an excerpt from Abraham Lincoln's speech :

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and hence forward shall be free ; and that the Executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons. (National Archives, 2022)

So, slavery became illegal and slaves were free in the federal states.

Frederick Douglass expressed his happiness with this achievement when he said "We are all liberated by this good. . . . The white man is liberated, and the black man is liberated (Shafer, 2019). Douglass expressed joy at what would result from the proclamations of the end of slavery and the Civil War.

It played a vital role in weighing the balance of power of the Northern states, where the states of the Union recruited about 200,000 blacks in the war in the way of freedom and rights for blacks.

This process granted freedom only to slaves who were able to escape from the Confederate states, and its texts could not be applied in the lands under the Confederation until the 19th of June 1865, when the Union army marched toward the Bay of Galveston in Texas, where they defeated the Confederate army as one of the following steps to end the

Civil War announced the end of slavery in the region, and this day has become known as Juntenoth or Emancipation Day. In truth, the announcement of the liberation of slaves was as successful as the efforts of the AM, which had strived to liberate blacks and restore their freedoms.

After the declaration of liberation and the end of the ACW, it was the turn of another era with great importance in the history of the USA, which was the Reconstruction era, that lasted from 1865 to 1877 with the aim of rebuilding a new USA.

1.2.4. Reconstruction Era and the Struggle for Civil Rights

The Reconstruction era was the period after the ACW from 1865 to 1877, during which the USA grappled with the challenges of reintegrating into the Union the states that had seceded and determining the legal status of African Americans. Presidential Reconstruction, from 1865 to 1867, required little of the former Confederation and leaders. Radical reconstruction attempted to give African Americans full equality.

The idea of reconstruction first appeared when President Abraham Lincoln announced the Ten Percent Plan in December 1863, which was considered the first comprehensive program for reconstruction. That plan required the Confederate states to pledge 10 percent of their members to free slaves and support the Union and the Constitution. Abraham Lincoln's April 11, 1866, speech stated that blacks who enlisted in the Union's army deserved to have the right to vote.

After Andrew Johnson succeeded the assassinated President Abraham Lincoln, he launched the Reconstruction Process, initially known as Presidential Reconstruction, which lasted two years and introduced a comprehensive amnesty that excluded Confederate leaders and wealthy plantation owners and restored all their constitutional rights and property except for slaves.

Many conditions were also presented to the Southern states, including paying compensation to the federal government for what was spent in the ACW as well as ending and prohibiting slavery as a basic condition for accepting its incorporation into the Union, and this was based on the Thirteenth Amendment.

On the other hand, the separated states were allowed to structure themselves and run their governments and legislative affairs after they met the conditions. Because of this

negligence on the part of the government and the president, the Confederate states took advantage of the situation and introduced the Black Codes, which were described as racist laws against blacks in the South, exploiting them as a means of labour in agriculture.

The blacks living in the states that enacted Black Code laws were required to sign annual job contracts. Those who refused or were otherwise unable to do so could be arrested, fined, and, if unable to pay their fines and private debts, forced to perform unpaid work. Many black children, especially those without parental support, were arrested and forced into unpaid labour for white's farms. These laws resulted in Northern anger against President Johnson and the refusal to appoint members of Congress and senators representing the Confederation.

After Congress was controlled in the stage called Root Reconstruction by the Radical Republicans, the law of Reconstruction was issued in the year 1867, also known as the Military Reconstruction Act, according to which the South was divided into 5 military areas, and the election was placed as a condition for forming governments, and it was necessary to agree on the Fourteenth Amendment, which was legislated on July 9, 1868. It provided the right of citizenship to every person born or naturalized in the USA, even slaves. It also guaranteed equal protection for every citizen, regardless of his background, and punished the states by lowering their seats in Congress.

In this regard, all the Southern states, that is, the Confederate states, joined the Union by 1870, when the Fifteenth Amendment was approved, which "Prohibited the states from limiting the voting rights of their male citizens "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude" (Longley, 2020). It provided for the citizen's right to vote, regardless of their race or background.

This period was distinguished by victory for blacks in the South when they won the governmental elections and Congress. For instance, Joseph Rainey won a seat in the United States (US) House of Representatives in 1870 as the first black, and many blacks were elected to local and national representation.

Also, many laws were established to repel the phenomenon of racism against blacks. Within the framework of the reconstruction policy as well as the development, as the Southern states were linked to the railway, and public schools were built.

After all the successes achieved during the Reconstruction period, they were met with a hostile force, and this was during the period after 1867, which was considered a turning point in the framework of the so-called Reconstruction policy, where hostile racist organizations appeared, including the Ku Klux Klan (KKK), known for its hostility and violence against blacks. It also targeted Republican leaders to impose white's power and authority.

In 1871, Ulysses S. Grant issued legislation to prevent oppressive organizations from interfering with blacks' enjoyment of their rights. However, the 1870s marked the beginning of the end of Reconstruction after white authority spread in the South. Robert Longley (2020) saw that the decisions issued by the court led to the futility of the reconstruction laws and constitutional amendments.

Among the circumstances that led to the end of Reconstruction was the return of the Democratic Party to rule the House of Representatives after the economic crisis that occurred in the Southern states, which extended from 1873 to 1879. The Republicans had only three Southern states left under their rule, which were : South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana.

The Reconstruction period came to an end in 1876 after the historic presidential election won by Republican Rutherford B. Hayes under an agreement with the Democrats, which was the recognition of authority over the South by the Democrats to ratify his inauguration through what is known as the Compromise of 1876.

1.3. Asian Americans

The emergence of the term Asian American was in 1968, when it was used by Yuji Ichioka and Emma Ji to define Asian immigrants in America, rejecting the racist name Oriental.

The first appearance and arrival of Asians in America was during the Exploration period, and those concerned were the Filipinos, named after the Luzon Indians, who arrived on October 17, 1587, to M0orro Bay by participating with the Spanish explorers in their exploratory sea voyages via the ship known as Nuestra Señora de Buena Esperanza. The nineteenth century also saw an increase in the migration of East Asians towards America due to several factors, such as the gold fever. They also occupied several jobs as mines and sugar plantations, while some of them had success in establishing commercial

projects. Among those who had a great impact on the history of the USA were the Chinese and Japanese.

1.3.2. Chinese Immigration and the Exclusion Act of 1882

The Chinese began to travel and immigrate to America during the fifth decade of the nineteenth century to escape the economic crisis that struck their homeland. They were welcomed so widely by the Americans that a party was organized in Portsmouth in their honor.

Gold exploration, or what was called the California Gold Rush in 1849, refers to the “Rapid influx of fortune seekers in California that began after gold was found at Sutter’s Mill in early 1848 and reached its peak in 1852” (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018). i.e., the arrival of gold prospectors to California, was among the main motivations for people heading towards America beginning in 1850 with the aim of prospecting for gold. Their arrival was depicted as :

Men throughout the region began booking passage on ships bound for Gum Shan—Gold Mountain. Ngai writes that they were just like other gold seekers from around the world : farmers, artisans, and merchants, who mostly paid their way or borrowed money for the voyage to America. (Luo, 2021)

The Gold Rush attracted so many Asians to immigrate to America that they gave up their jobs.

In addition to prospecting and working in mines, the Chinese occupied other jobs, including agriculture and making and washing clothes ; they were also paid extensively. Moreover, the Chinese contributed to the railroad project in the American West in 1864, despite not receiving amounts equal to their efforts. John F. Miller described them as “Machine-like... of obtuse nerve, but little affected by heat or cold, wiry, sinewy, with muscles of iron” (Wu, 2017). That is, the Chinese workers worked hard and proficiently without laziness, thanks to their physical structures. On the other hand, some had projects of their own.

The year 1850 saw the emergence of the anti-immigrant Foreign Miner Licensing Legislation, which allowed immigrants to engage in mining on the condition that they pay

twenty dollars a month, and this prompted them to leave the activity and the West Coast region and move towards urban areas, where they established Chinatown in San Francisco in 1853.

As a reaction, the rejection of the Chinese presence by whites and other workers increased. For example, the speech of California Governor Leland Stanford, who complained about Chinese immigration, described them as scum.

In this context, Congress enacted a law in 1879 limiting the number of Chinese workers transported by ships to 15 on one ship. There were also demands for the exclusion of the Chinese, led by the Democratic Party.

Among the most influential laws to restrict immigration was the Chinese Exclusion Act (CEA). It was enacted in 1882 by Congress and signed by President Chester A. Arthur. This legislation stipulated the first legal ban on an ethnic minority from entering, which banned Chinese immigrants from entering the USA for a period of ten years. This ban included workers who fall under the categories of skilled and unskilled labourers and Chinese employed in mining.

However, it did not include the Chinese who went to America as tourists, including diplomats, professors, and students, with obtaining a permit from the Chinese government and stipulated that those who left must obtain a permit permitting entry in the event of their return. This law also prohibited naturalization.

Upon the expiration of the ten-year embargo included in the framework of the CEA, through the Geary Act in 1892, another ten years were added by Congress. Many restrictions had been put in place, including the deportation of Chinese nationals if they didn't not possess identity documents and a residence certificate.

The CEA succeeded in achieving its goal and reducing the number of Chinese immigrants in America. After their number was estimated at 105,465 in 1880, it became 89,863 in 1900.

1.3.3. Japanese Immigration

The beginning of the migration of Japanese people to America was in 1869, after the ship of the first Japanese immigrants, known historically as Issei, set sail in California. Although the Japanese government previously rejected the immigration of its citizens, except for students, They were dispatched to special educational missions in the West in which students studied for long periods, and there were a few political refugees and stowaways who escaped from Japan, but their numbers were negligible compared with later emigration.

After the fall of Shogunate rule in 1868, Japan witnessed many reforms led by Meiji, which were beneficial as Japan had an industrial economy, a strong army, and a modern court. On the other hand, these reforms had a negative impact, especially on farmers. The Meiji reforms resulted in urban expansion in agricultural areas and supported industrial activity more than agriculture, which led to a deterioration in conditions and farmers leaving their lands.

This was among the reasons that prompted 153 Japanese people to head towards the USA, specifically Hawaii, as a destination to save their economic situation. A year later, in 1869, forty Japanese farmers headed towards California. Moreover, strong population pressure also forced the Japanese government to encourage the people to emigrate. The first main flow concentrated on Hawaii and North America.

Under the Meiji reforms and the CEA of 1882, the 1880s witnessed an increase in the number of immigrants with the support of the Japanese government, which in turn encouraged ambitious young people to work. Money holders also provided support to the immigrants by paying the costs of transporting them to sugar plantations in Hawaii and California. In 1886, an agreement was signed between Hawaii and Japan that brought in workers. Currently, more than 400,000 people left for America in the period between 1886 and 1911.

Resulting in social and economic changes in both the USA and Japan, Japanese migrants began to come to the USA, where the migration to Hawaii was initiated in 1885, and to the west coast in 1890. It thus helped meet the still strong demand for Asian workers in America after the exclusion of the Chinese.

In the beginning, the immigrants faced a kind of discrimination because of the prevailing sensitivity at that time against Asians, especially the Chinese. In addition, cultural differences were another factor.

When Japanese immigrants first entered the USA, there was already an atmosphere of strong discrimination against Asian labourers. But this problem was confronted by signing the Immigration Treaty in 1894, which stipulated the immigration of Japanese people to the USA while providing the protection of the right to citizenship. But this treaty was violated after San Francisco made discriminatory decisions, such as teaching Asian children either Japanese or Chinese in separate schools.

1.4. Hispanic Americans

Hispanic Americans are people whose origins come from Spanish-speaking countries, especially Latin America, such as Mexico, Colombia, Puerto Rico, Cuba, Honduras, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and regions of Central and South America and the Caribbean, in addition to the mother country of the language, which is Spain. Their presence traced back to the 15th century, that is, before the emergence of colonies such as New England and Massachusetts, i.e., before British colonization, and in their contemporary time, there were other names such as New Spain and Santa Fe that referred to Spanish colonialism.

The history of the USA with Hispanic Americans had witnessed several historical events, including Spanish colonization and the Mexican-American War, which extended from 1846 to 1848.

1.4.2. Spanish Colonization and the impact of Conquest

The first Spanish efforts to occupy America appeared when the Italian explorer Christopher Columbus was sent by the Spanish Queen Isabella and her husband, King Ferdinand, in order to surpass what Portugal had done.

The Spanish arrival in the New World was in October 1492, when the ships led by Christopher Columbus reached the Caribbean islands, which he called Hispaniola. He then continued his way toward the Bahamas and Cuba. Amerigo Vespucci followed him, and this was during what was called the exploration phase.

Nicolas de Ovando was appointed governor of these lands in 1502, and he was famous for his brutality and cruel treatment of the Indigenous population and for exploiting them in the construction of cities.

The year 1504 witnessed the arrival of Spanish conquistadors hungry for riches to invade Hispaniola, led by Cortés, who also participated in the conquest of Cuba in 1511. Among the most important missions he was assigned to was the invasion of Mexico in 1519, supported by 11 ships and 530 invaders, in addition to cannons, with the motive of searching for gold. Head towards Tenochtitlan, the Aztec capital, whose civilization and wealth astonished the invaders, Cortés initiated acts of violence, taking advantage of a religious festival, killing a large number of locals, and taking the Aztec ruler Moctezuma II hostage, but they faced resistance that led to their withdrawal.

Cortés worked to establish an alliance with tribes hostile to the Aztecs and returned to confrontation by imposing a siege on Tenochtitlan in 1521. He used a deadly biological weapon, which was the spreading of the disease, in addition to famine due to the imposed siege. The capital did not withstand the attacks directed at it and was controlled by the Spanish forces in August 1521. It became subject to Spanish rule and had a new name, Mexico City.

This success prompted other conquistadors to follow this path, including Francisco Pizarro, who encouraged by the goal of seizing wealth, turned his compass south toward the Inca Empire in present-day Peru.

Pizarro and his men faced obstacles in their first campaign in the 1620s, including weather conditions and local resistance. In light of the spread of smallpox among the Inca population, which resulted in several deaths, in addition to the struggle of the ruling family over power, Pizarro took advantage of these conditions and returned in November 1532, supported by 168 Spanish soldiers and their local allies, where they fought the battle of Cajamarca, which ended with the capture of the Emperor Atahualpa who was executed in August 1533. After that, they headed towards conquering the capital, Cuzco, and after fighting battles that continued for years, the empire fell in 1542 into the hands of Spanish colonization, which was carried out through the Viceroyalty in the region.

The success achieved in Mexico and Peru opened the way for the conquistadors to head north, including Hernando de Soto, who directed the campaign from 1539 to 1542 toward the lands known as Florida and Georgia and the Carolinas, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Louisiana, and Texas. He violently met their residents and brought the disease to them.

The first European settlement in the current states was also established in 1565 by Pedro Menendez, named St. Augustine, on the land of the Timucua Indians, half of whom died due to the epidemic, while the survivors were subjected to the Catholic campaign led by the priests.

Based on what was mentioned previously, Spanish colonialism had several discoveries of unknown islands and areas, as well as certain impacts, including the fall of civilizations such as the Aztecs and Incas. It also had a huge impact on demographic change, as the invasion caused a decline in the number of the Indigenous population due to genocide and the spread of the disease among the local population.

In addition, one of the most important policies applied in colonized areas was the Encomienda Law, which was exploited to take the lands of the Indigenous people. Originally, this law gave the discoverer or the official responsible for the colony the responsibility of the right to take tribute from the Indigenous people in exchange for providing protection and introducing Catholic Christianity to them, as missionary missions contributed to christianizing the Indigenous people and distancing them from their previous pagan religions.

Among the most important cultural influences resulting from the Spanish occupation was language, as the Spanish language became an official language and was spoken in twenty Latin American colonial countries.

1.4.3. Mexican-American War and The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo

The year 1846 saw the outbreak of war between Mexico and the USA, which extended to February 1848 due to the dispute that existed in 1845 over the borders of the state of Texas. The end of the war was a huge loss for Mexico, as it lost an estimated 1,300,000 square kilometers.

Signs of disagreement began to appear after the independence of Texas from Mexico in 1836, and Mexico threatened the USA to annex it, despite the latter not showing a desire to do so because of the slavery issue.

However, the desire to annex Texas appeared after Polk assumed the presidency of the USA in 1844. He expressed his intention to occupy the Oregon territory and expand by taking other territories such as California and New Mexico, and for this reason, the USA offered to buy it. After rejecting the offer, it moved towards a military solution, whereby its military forces were deployed in the area between the Rio Grande River and the Nueces River.

As a reaction from the Mexicans, the Mexican cavalry led an attack that resulted in the killing of ten American soldiers on April 25, 1846. They were able to impose a siege on Fort Texas, which forced General Zachary Taylor to request immediate support, which enabled him to overcome the Mexican forces during the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.

The USA officially declared war through Congress against Mexico on May 13, 1846, after warnings made by President Polk to Congress when he stated that “The cup of forbearance has been exhausted, even before Mexico passed the border of the United States, invaded our territory, and shed American blood upon American soil” (SHEC : Resources for Teachers, n.d.).

The President warned and took precautions against Mexico’s initiative to attack and said that the USA should attack first. On the other hand, Mexico did not issue any decisions regarding the war.

The USA began to direct its army towards Mexican territory, and under the leadership of Colonel Stephen Watts Kearney and Navy Brigadier General Robert Field

Stockton, the areas of the Rio Grande River were occupied. The city of Monterey was also occupied by General Zachary Taylor.

Due to the American attacks and the series of defeats that Mexico suffered by losing many territories, the old reserve general, Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, was appointed to lead the Mexican army in its war against the American army. He was defeated and retreated in February 1847 in the first battle he commanded, Buena Vista.

The American forces continued to advance as General Winfield Scott led the army in 1847 to occupy the city of Veracruz, despite the resistance shown by the Mexicans in the battle of Cerro Gordo, led by de Santa Anna.

Then it was Mexico City's turn, where the American army under General Winfield Scott besieged Chapultepec Castle, which represented the last step to reach Mexico City, in a battle that lasted from September 12 to 14, 1847. Despite the resistance of the Mexicans, led by General Nicolas Bravo and supported by artillery, the Americans were able to control the fortress, which paved the way for the occupation and control of Mexico City on September 14, 1846.

After Mexico City fell under the control of the Americans, the Mexicans realized the necessity of surrendering and submitting to the USA. Efforts to negotiate a peaceful solution emerged when the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed on February 2, 1848, which ended the Mexican-American War with the victory of the American side.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo resulted in the achievement of all that the US government had intended, beginning with the demarcation of the Rio Grande River as the American and Mexican border points, in addition to allowing the USA to annex Texas.

After the Mexican government had previously rejected the idea of selling some areas, it lost several states, such as California, Nevada, Utah, and New Mexico, under the treaty in exchange for \$15 million.

Conclusion

This chapter serves as a historical background on the different racial minorities who lived in the USA. It depicts their arrival, life, and status before the twentieth century. Some of them were a source of power and oppression and had authority, while on the other

side, the others were oppressed and characterized by weakness and suffering, which continued and increased after independence, when they became subject to systemtic marginalization, discrimination, and exclusion from the most basic rights of citizenship through the legislation of racist laws and faced many violent acts.

Chapter Two :
The Status of Ethnic
Minorities in USA during the
Twentieth Century

Chapter Two: The Key Events in Racial Minorities Life During the Twentieth Century

Introduction

The beginning of the twentieth century witnessed a number of major events and fateful decisions that had an impact on the lives of various ethnic minorities and their civil rights in the USA. Starting with the Indigenous people, whom the federal government worked to assimilate, take their lands, and erase their identities through federal laws such as the Indian Citizenship Act (ICA) of 1924. In addition, African Americans in the South were the most racial minority who were exposed to exclusion and discrimination under Jim Crow Laws (JCL), besides violence, oppression, and injustice, which prompted them to migrate toward the north. Moreover, the federal government worked to restrict the entry and immigration of Asians, especially the Chinese to the USA through several federal laws, including the Immigration Act (IA) of 1917, as well as the treatment that the Japanese received due to the tension that existed between the USA and Japan. Another ethnic minority is Hispanic Americans, as they were also the subject of segregation and cultural racism, along with the miserable conditions they lived in after being called for help during the Second World War (WWII) and then being deported to their homeland through inappropriate methods. Finally, the different ethnic minorities in the USA that were not classified as white lived in difficult living conditions, as they were classified as second-class citizens.

2.1. Native Americans

Within the framework of the policy of assimilation of the Indigenous people, many laws were enacted to naturalize them. They were also granted the right to self-government, with support, but with conditions, and then it was terminated after the success of the plan of assimilation, erasing identity, and owning lands.

2.1.1. The Indian Citizenship Act of 1924

After the Fourteenth Amendment excluded Native Americans from US citizenship, the ICA of 1924 came into effect, which naturalized about 125,000 Native Americans.

The ICA, also known as the Snyder Act, was signed by President Calvin Coolidge on June 2, 1924. It stipulated the naturalization of Native Americans living in the USA and granting them certificates of citizenship. It was issued after the naturalization of Native people who participated in the First World War (WWI) in 1919 in their honor. This law

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came in response to calls to generalize the process to include most Indians. The law document came with the following text :

All noncitizen Indians born within the territorial limits of the United States be, and they are hereby, declared to be citizens of the United States: Provided that the granting of such citizenship shall not in any manner impair or otherwise affect the right of any Indian to tribal or other property. (NCC Staff, 2023)

Whereas, under the ICA of 1924, every American Indian born in the USA became an American citizen.

The indigenous population was divided between those who welcomed and those who rejected the ICA. Some saw this law as one that would secure and establish their right to practice policy. On the other hand, some tribes rejected it due to their lack of confidence in the federal government because of the oppression practiced against them and the confiscation of their lands as well as the resulting loss of sovereignty and identity, in addition to their adherence and preference for tribal sovereignty, such as the Onondaga tribe, sent a letter on December 30, 1924, to President Calvin Coolidge stating that “Therefore, be it resolved, that we, the Indians of the Onondaga Tribe of the six nations, duly depose and sternly protest the principal and object of the aforesaid Snyder Bill” (Longley, 2022). The texts and contents of the laws were rejected by the tribal leaders.

Although the ICA recognized the citizenship of Native Americans while preserving their tribal affiliations and rights to tribal property, it did not guarantee their full rights, as they faced the same fate as African Americans. Native Americans were excluded from the voting right due to poll taxes, literacy tests, and exposure to physical violence.

2.1.2. The Indian Reorganization Act of 1934

After the Indians were transferred from their lands to the reservations and due to the miserable conditions, the government decided to address the problem through the Indian Reorganization Act (IRA) of 1934. This act is defined as “Measures enacted by the U.S. Congress, aimed at decreasing federal control of American Indian affairs and increasing Indian self-government and responsibility” (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2016) . In other words, the IRA, also known as the Wheeler-Howard Act, was a law enacted on June 18, 1934, by the US Congress, which provided for the lifting of restrictions previously

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imposed on Indigenous populations by legislating self-government for Indian tribes and allowing them to practice their traditions and cultures.

The issuance of this decision came as a result of the harsh criticism of the miserable conditions experienced by Indigenous people on Indian reservations which was depicted by the Meriam Report in 1928, it was “A survey of conditions on Indian Reservations in twenty-six states financed by the Rockefeller Foundation and supervised by Lewis Meriam of the Institute for Government Research” (Indiana University Bloomington Libraries, 2023). This report was a study of the miserable conditions experienced by Indigenous people, and twenty-six reserves were set up as case studies.

Among the reasons that prompted the issuance of this law was to provide relief by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), headed by John Collier to the Indians after the Great Depression which was the decade of difficult economic conditions that the world experienced from 1929 to 1939. Before it was enacted as a law, elections were held to know the opinion of Indians about the project, which resulted in 132,428 Indians accepting the law against 63,467 rejecting it.

One of the first reforms brought by the IRA was to grant the Indians freedom to practice their culture, traditions, and religious beliefs. Furthermore, boarding schools and various methods of assimilation were gradually abandoned. Moreover, after the Dawes Act took away lands from the Indigenous tribes, funds were allocated under the IRA directed to Indian tribes to purchase and return those lands taken from them.

This law also gave the Indigenous tribes the right to exercise self-government by forming tribal governments but with limited powers, i.e. remaining under federal authority. It also allowed the establishment of tribal companies, as well as a support fund called a revolving fund, where financial loans worth \$10 million were provided to the Indigenous people as support for their economic projects. Besides, other development programs were supported, such as health care and education.

Despite the successful reforms achieved by the Wheeler-Howard Act, it was met with a great opposition and criticism from Native Americans. Due to the unconfidence, the law was seen as a way to isolate Indigenous from the white society and place them under the control of the BIA.

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Among the reforms was the legislation of the establishment of tribal governments; it provided greater subsidies to the tribes that formed governments similar to American city councils and had written constitutions, unlike the tribes that had tribal governments and constitutions.

2.1.3. The Termination Era (1953 – 1968)

After the Indians received support from the federal government under the IRA of 1934, the turn came for the Termination period, the purpose of which was re-assimilation. It emerged as a result of Arthur's proposal for a termination policy.

The Termination era can be defined as the period extending from 1953 to 1968, during which the federal government ended its commitment and support to the Indigenous tribes to eliminate and move the Indigenous population to the cities.

The first decision within the framework of the termination policy was House Concurrent Resolution 108, which was considered the official announcement of the government's new policy. This decision came to immediately cut off various forms of federal support and protection for several tribes such as the Flathead, Klamath, Menominee, Potawatomi, and Turtle Mountain Chippewa, and the Indigenous tribes that settled in Texas, New York, California, and Florida.

The text of House Concurrent Resolution 108 was as follows:

Whereas it is the policy of Congress, as rapidly as possible, to make the Indians within the territorial limits of the United States subject to the same laws and entitled to the same privileges and responsibilities as are applicable to other citizens of the United States, to end their status as wards of the United States, and to grant them all of the rights and prerogatives pertaining to American citizenship. (Affairs, 1972,p100)

This law aimed to provide equal citizenship between Indigenous people and other citizens by making them enjoy rights and in return supply duties.

In addition, the issuance of General Law No. 280 in 1953, enabled state governments to exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction over the reserves. The states became responsible for organizing Indian tribes after it was the responsibility of the federal government.

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As a result of the termination policy, approximately 109 Indian tribes were exterminated, and 2,500,000 acres were confiscated, in addition to about 12,000 Indigenous people were dispersed and directed to cities where they became American citizens in order to assimilate them and affect their identity. However, their mixing with ethnic minorities benefited them by discovering how to defend and demand their rights.

2.2. African Americans

African Americans were the most racial group in the USA that faced severe racial discrimination during the twentieth century, characterized by racist laws that imposed segregation, besides violent acts against those who violated these laws, which led to African Americans heading north where their conditions changed leading to the emergence of the Harlem Renaissance.

2.2.1. Jim Crow Laws

African Americans were subject to various acts of exclusion and oppression that were codified through the JCL. Due to the difficult circumstances and push factors in the South and pull factors from the North, they pushed them towards the North, where they revealed their identities and capabilities during the Harlem Renaissance.

“Jim Crow was the name of the racial caste system which operated primarily, but not exclusively in Southern and Border states, between 1877 and the mid-1960s” (Pilgrim, 2012). It was a racist local legislation that imposed racial segregation. Under these laws, the Southern states imposed racial discrimination.

The origin of this name can be traced back to a character named Jim Crow, who was depicted by the artist Thomas Dartmouth in a theatrical scene where he sang the song Jump Jim Crow. This character had a black face and was dancing, acting stupidly, and insulting. It aimed to highlight that blacks did not deserve the right to citizenship by conveying the image that they were lazy, foolish, and irresponsible.

Among of the most important Jim Crow etiquette norms were:

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A black male could not offer his hand (to shake hands) with a white male because it implied being socially equal. Obviously, a black male could not offer his hand or any other part of his body to a white woman, because he risked being accused of rape. Furthermore, black and white people were not supposed to eat together. If they did eat together, white people were to be served first, and some sort of partition was to be placed between them. Moreover, Jim Crow etiquette prescribed that black people were introduced to white people, never white people to black people. For example: Mr. Peters (the white person), this is Charlie (the black person), that I spoke to you about. Additionally, white people did not use courtesy titles of respect when referring to black people, for example, Mr., Mrs., Miss., Sir, or Ma'am. Instead, black people were called by their first names. Black people had to use courtesy titles when referring to white people, and were not allowed to call them by their first names. By the same token, if a black person rode in a car driven by a white person, the black person sat in the back seat, or the back of a truck, and along with white motorists had the right-of-way at all intersections. (Pilgrim, 2012)

These etiquette norms excluded blacks from equality and made them objects of contempt.

After Republican Rutherford B. Hayes became President of the USA, the freedoms and rights of blacks achieved by the amendments were restricted in the Southern states, where laws were passed that included the separation of blacks from whites in many public facilities, such as in means of transportation, including the Separate Car Law, which was issued in 1890. It stipulated that blacks should not sit on white people's seats, nor whites on black people's seats, and it also imposed penalties and fines in the event of violating this, such as in the case of Homer Plessy in 1891, whose color was a mixture of white and black, with the predominance of black, and he sat in the seats of white citizens.

As a result, he was certainly punished by the Supreme Court in the so-called Plessy v. Ferguson case of 1896, during which the court approved the doctrine of Separate but Equal (SBE) in Plessy. Vs Ferguson, which came as support for the segregation practiced by the racist JCL.

The segregation imposed by JCL involved many aspects. Many facilities were designated separately for the two races, for example, prisons, hospitals, adding to separate public and private schools, and churches. Furthermore, signs were placed on their doors

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stating “Whites Only” or “Coloreds”. This issue spread in most Southern states. For example, in South Carolina, it was forbidden for black and white workers to be in the same workshop or to share the same door and window.

These laws also played a crucial role in restricting the voting right for blacks in the Confederate states, as this right was limited to the rich and those who could read, except for those who were able to vote in 1867 and their descendants through the Grandfather Clause. One of the most important conditions was that the voter be a Democrat, and to be a Democrat, he must be white, in addition to paying poll taxes, which ranged from one to two dollars annually, and this kept blacks away from voting.

Furthermore, a law was issued in 1908 in New Orleans to prevent the protection of races and the white race from hybridization. Missouri also passed a law that included “All marriages between a white person and a negro, or between a white person and a person of negro descent, to the third generation, inclusive... are forever prohibited, and shall be void” (Abe, 1945, p. 35). i.e., interracial marriage was legally prohibited in many states. Moreover, sexual relations between black men and white women were even prohibited and classified as rape, for which the black man was punished. On the other hand, black women were victims of many rape cases by whites.

Blacks were subject to racist violence in the Confederate states, especially by the KKK, which returned to its activity in 1915 after the screening of the movie *The Birth of a Nation*, which glorified this extremist group. This movement worked to intimidate blacks and their supporters if they violated JCL, as they would kill anyone who tried to vote, had sex with, or harassed a white woman, even if he wanted to work in the place of a white man or if he drank from the fountains designated for whites. Although these practices were illegal, the blacks' recourse to the authority of justice was in vain because the system was under the control of the whites.

Among the most famous acts of violence and murder that black people were subjected to was the killing of 14-year-old Emmett Till in the state of Mississippi, where he was accused of whistling and flirting with a white store worker named Carolyn Bryant, so her husband kidnapped and killed him.

Blacks were also vulnerable to injustice, even in the courts, which originally represented the scales of justice. They faced severe and exaggerated punishments, even if their innocence

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was proven. Also, they were not even allowed to hire lawyers. Another point to consider is that high positions were the preserve of white citizens, as it was rare to find a black brigadier general or policeman in the period before the late 1940s.

As usual, blacks occupied jobs unsuitable for whites, that is, hard works and low wages, which were characterized by the name Negro work. They were given dangerous jobs. They also worked in homes as domestic maids and on farms. If they did not work, they were accused of vagrancy and taken to prison.

Another example of the impact of Jim Crow racist laws was that there was a separation between white and black railroad workers. The job of the black workers was only to confront the blacks who broke the law and sat in the seats of the whites. They also spent their rest time in inappropriate train cars, such as the baggage cart, away from the white workers.

The racist JCL continued segregation and exclusion acts against African Americans until 1965, when the Civil Rights Act (CRA) of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act (VRA) of 1965 were legislated and signed.

2.2.2. The Tulsa Race Massacre of 1921

African Americans faced many acts of violence and even murder, including the Tulsa Race Massacre (TRM) of 1921. This event was one of the largest massacres and acts of racial violence against African Americans. It happened on May 31, 1921, in Tulsa, Oklahoma, specifically on Black Wall Street, i.e., the Greenwood neighborhood.

The TRM “Occurred in Tulsa, Oklahoma, beginning on May 31, 1921, and lasting for two days. The massacre left somewhere between 30 and 300 people dead, mostly African Americans, and destroyed Tulsa’s prosperous black neighborhood of Greenwood” (The Information Architects of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2023). It is a two-day violent act that broke out in the state of Oklahoma, exactly in Tulsa, as a result of which many victims fell in Greenwood, which was destroyed.

The merits of the case traced back to May 30, 1921, after the young man, Dick Rowland, who had taken the elevator of one of the buildings, was accused of trying to rape a white worker named Sarah Page. Her screams were heard, and the black young man fled, but he was arrested by the police.

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The news spread among white American communities, resulting in a wave of anger and their heading to court. The Tulsa Tribune newspaper also wrote about the rape case and that the accused would face lynching, which prompted blacks to go armed to the court as well to protect Dick Rowland from the angry white mob who had seized the National Guard weapons depot. This resulted in a shooting that caused the death of a white person by a black person, and this incident was the spark.

The TRM broke out the next day and continued for two days. White Tulsans led major killings and violence throughout the city against blacks, even when they were unarmed. They also headed to the Greenwood neighborhood, with a large number estimated at thousands, where acts of looting and vandalism spread, as many homes and businesses were burned and many victims fell.

The massacre ended on June 1, 1921, with heavy casualties, including the deaths of 10 whites and 26 African Americans, according to the official statement, in addition to the burning of 1,256 homes and the looting of 215 others.

2.2.3. The Great Migration

The difficult circumstances experienced by African Americans pushed them to migrate to the north, which was known as the Great Migration. This great event refers to:

The widespread migration of African Americans in the 20th century from rural communities in the South to large cities in the North and West. At the turn of the 20th century, the vast majority of black Americans lived in the Southern states. (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2019)

It was the migration of African Americans from the Jim Crow South towards the North to escape miserable conditions. The number of blacks who migrated to the North and West was estimated at about six million in the period extending from the first decade to the seventh decade of the twentieth century.

Among the most important reasons that pushed African Americans to immigrate and leave the South was the discrimination and racial violence that were practiced against them under JCL, in addition to the collapse of economic conditions in the South, where farms

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suffered major losses due to the spread of the boll weevil, which led to the damage of agricultural crops. Restrictions imposed on agricultur were also one of the reasons.

WWI was also one of the most prominent factors, as it caused Europeans to refrain from immigrating to the USA, in addition to recruitment operations and the transfer of soldiers to Europe, which increased the need for skilled workers and opened the door for blacks to fill vacant industrial positions. All of these factors pushed about two million African Americans to migrate toward New York, Chicago, Detroit, and Pittsburgh.

The immigrants held many jobs by working in factories and foundries, along with living far from racist areas. However, they were unacceptable and unwelcome due to the treatment they faced from Northern society, as they were directed to live in urban slums.

They also represented a competitor to whites for job positions, and they were rejected by whites for being their partners in work by organizing peaceful protests. However, these peaceful protests turned into a riot in 1917, where many blacks were killed in East St. Louis, Illinois, while the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) organized the Silent March in response.

After the end of WWI in 1918 and the return of soldiers whose positions were taken by Southern immigrants, which angered them, these soldiers joined the KKK after its return in 1915, which led to one of the largest conflicts and ethnic massacres during the Red Summer of 1919. Many acts of violence and intimidation broke out, the most famous of which was the Chicago events, where the white supremacist group led an attack against blacks that lasted for thirteen days, resulting in the deaths of 38 people and the injuries of 500 people.

During the end of the Great Depression, the second phase of migration towards the Northern and Western regions emerged in the years 1940–1970, during which the number of immigrants increased more than the first phase, when it was estimated at 5 million immigrants.

The continuing acts of violence, discrimination, and exclusion in the South pushed African Americans more to march and leave toward the North and West. Furthermore, among the factors that encouraged and attracted blacks towards the industrialized states was WWII, as the USA turned towards military industry in this circumstance, and therefore there was a great demand for workers.

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Some acts of discrimination also continued. For example, some companies practiced employment discrimination against blacks, such as the Boeing Aircraft Manufacturer in Seattle. What was more, they faced a shortage of housing, as many black families coming from the South were housed in single-family homes that were uninhabitable and without a sewage system, with high rents. Also, the federal government played a role in preventing Southern blacks from obtaining mortgage loans outside the neighborhoods allocated to them.

Blacks were also vulnerable to acts of racial violence because of their protests against the discrimination they were exposed to. They caused riots in Detroit in June 1943, which led to the loss of order and the intervention of military police and infantry regiments and ended with the deaths of 25 African Americans and 9 whites and the injuries of about 700 people. As well, 1,893 people were arrested. During that rebellion, a black American soldier named Robert Bandy was killed by the police after he protested against the arrest of an African American woman.

Despite the difficulties, immigration from the South continued until the emergence of the Civil Rights Movement (CRM) and the beginning of the end of discriminatory and racist acts in the South, that is, the end of the Jim Crow era, as well as the improvement of economic conditions, on the contrary, in the North and West due to the Rust Belt crisis, all of which contributed to the decrease in African American immigration, and some of them also began to return, and by 1970, the Great Migration officially ended.

2.2.4. The Scottsboro Case

The Scottsboro case was one of the most famous violent cases of the 1930s. It went back to March 25, 1931, when nine black young men, aged between 13 and 19, were accused of raping two white women, Ruby Bates and Victoria Price, on a train in Jackson, Alabama. The nine boys are known by the names Charlie Weems, Ozie Powell, Clarence Norris, brothers Andrew and Leroy Wright, Olen Montgomery, Willie Roberson, Haywood Patterson, and Eugene Williams.

As was customary, the boys would face the fate of execution without trial, but they were transferred to Scottsboro in April 1931 for trial, where they were not allowed to appoint volunteer lawyers for this except during the first day of the trial.

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The boys were convicted and sentenced to death, except the youngest, who was 12 years old. The Communist Party announced its intervention in the case and its defense of the accused, which led to the suspension of the implementation of the court's decision until appeal in the Alabama Supreme Court.

In 1932, the Alabama Supreme Court upheld the death penalty for the accused. However, the decision was overturned in the case of *Powell v. Alabama* in November 1932 by the US Supreme Court since the boys did not have the right to appoint a lawyer, which was guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment.

The court's decision to impose the death penalty was overturned in the *Norris v. Alabama* case in 1935. Then, in 1936, the Alabama court sentenced Patterson to 75 years in prison, which led to the intervention of many civil rights groups, such as the NAACP. As a result of pressure, Montgomery, Roberson, Williams, and Leroy Wright were released, in addition to Andy Wright, Weems, Powell, and Norris, who were released on parole. However, Norris was sentenced to life imprisonment, but he was liberated in 1946 and pardoned in 1976.

2.2.5. The Harlem Renaissance

African Americans needed to make their voices heard and express their culture and identity, and they found the solution in art, which led to the Harlem Renaissance. It is defined by Hutchinson as:

A blossoming (c. 1918–37) of African American culture, particularly in the creative arts, and the most influential movement in African American literary history. Embracing literary, musical, theatrical, and visual arts, participants sought to reconceptualize “the Negro” apart from the white stereotypes that had influenced Black peoples’ relationship to their heritage and to each other. (2018)

In simpler terms, it is the period extending from 1918–1937 that witnessed the flourishing of African American culture (AAC) in the fields of literature, theater, and music, and the Greenwood neighborhood was the center of this renaissance.

The Harlem Renaissance appeared during what was known as the Great Migration, when about 5 million African Americans migrated from the South to the Northern states, such as New York. They settled in Harlem, where their levels of knowledge of reading and

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writing increased. Among them were many intellectuals, including W. E. B. Du Bois, Zora Neale Hurston, Effie Lee Newsome, and Countee Cullen. Because of the continued marginalization and treatment of blacks as second-class citizens, these intellectuals and thinkers led a campaign to draw attention to their identity and culture.

Langston Hughes was considered one of the greatest pioneers of this movement and an inspiration to others, as he used his writings to fight against issues of discrimination and racism. Among his writings, which appeared in one of his books, was “We younger Negro artists who create now intend to express our individual dark-skinned selves without fear or shame. If white people are pleased, we are glad. If they are not, it does not matter. We know we are beautiful” (Miller, 2020). That is, through their writing, they take pride in their identity and appearance.

This Renaissance included several artistic fields, including literature. After blacks were seen as illiterate, many black writers appeared, as they issued books, press articles, and organized poems dealing with the problem of racism and discrimination and calling for the right to justice and equality. At the same time, it promoted AAC; however, it faced racism and obstruction from publishing houses, as the author Deann Herrshaw expressed this, when he mentioned that “Whites largely ignored African Americans’ contributions to the collective culture” (Miller, 2020). i.e., they were obstructed and ignored from expressing their culture. Among the most famous literary works written by Harlem writers, which dealt with the experiences of blacks and their struggle for equality, was *The Home of Harlem* in 1928 by Claude McCai.

Renaissance of Harlem also included other artistic fields, such as music. Many talented musicians appeared, such as Louis Armstrong, Count Basie, and Eubie Blake, who became famous for jazz music and bringing it to the Harlem neighborhood. Jazz was used to impose the identity of blacks, to define themselves, and to change whites’ negative views of them.

The Harlem Renaissance had a significant impact on African Americans, as it contributed to portraying black life, promoting their culture, and challenging racist and exclusionary treatments that were imposed by JCL. The pioneers of this renaissance also had an impact on social and political awareness, which paved the way for the beginning of the CRM.

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2.3. Asian Americans

Asians were still excluded from entering the USA during the twentieth century. Immigration of Japanese workers was prohibited in 1907, and the federal government placed several restrictions on Chinese immigration through the IA of 1917. The Japanese were also detained in 1942 due to the ongoing dispute in WWII.

2.3.1. The Gentlemen's Agreement 1907

The Japanese in the USA were subject to many acts of discrimination, such as in the field of education, and opposition to this treatment resulted in the Gentlemen's Agreement. This agreement is known as:

U.S.-Japanese understanding in which Japan agreed not to issue passports to emigrants to the United States, except to certain categories of business and professional men. In return, U.S. Pres. Theodore Roosevelt agreed to urge the city of San Francisco to rescind an order by which children of Japanese parents were segregated from white students in the schools. (Wallenfeldt, 2020)

It was an agreement between the USA and Japan that required stopping racial segregation in American schools against Japanese children, and in return, Japan would not issue passports except for businessmen and professionals heading to the USA.

The agreement appeared on March 14, 1907, as a result of President Theodore Roosevelt's diplomatic efforts. It was issued after the approval of separating Japanese students from white students by the San Francisco Board of Education on October 11, 1906, to keep white children from being affected by the Mongoloid race.

The racial segregation resulted in widespread anger and opposition from the Japanese, which prompted Japanese diplomats to request President Theodore Roosevelt to intervene and find a solution. As a result of pressure and a desire to gain the friendship of a rising world power, namely Japan, the President condemned this apartheid and appointed Victor Metcalfe to address the problem.

Despite the efforts of the US President, the federal government was obstructed in this case and restricted by the principle of SBE. In the end, Theodore Roosevelt reached a

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decision that satisfied both parties by stopping all immigration of Japanese workers, as the Japanese government welcomed it to avoid an exclusion similar to the Chinese exclusion.

The president met with the mayor of San Francisco and school officials on February 8, 1907, and negotiations were held to stop all immigration of Japanese workers in exchange for the abolition of racial segregation and the return of Japanese students to their classrooms. As a result, a solution was reached, which was to issue passports only to the workers.

This diplomatic mandate was called the Gentlemen's Agreement, and the new immigration restrictions were announced in Executive Order No. 589 by President Theodore Roosevelt, including:

I hereby order that such citizens of Japan or Korea, to-wit: Japanese or Korean workers, skilled and unskilled, who have received passports to go to Mexico, Canada or Hawaii, and come there from, be refused permission to enter the continental territory of the United States. (Encyclopedia.com, n.d.)

These restrictions imposed Asian workers not to enter the continental territory of the USA and instead to head to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii.

2.3.2. The Immigration Act of 1917

As part of the federal government's efforts to prevent Chinese immigration to the USA, the IA of 1917 was passed. This act is described as "Intended to prevent "undesirables" from immigrating to the U.S. The act primarily targeted individuals migrating from Asia" (MADEO, n.d.). It is also known as a federal law that aimed to stop immigration to the USA, such as the immigration of Asians.

The IA of 1917, or the Asiatic Barred Zone Act, was a piece of legislation passed by the US Congress on February 5, 1917. This law was issued to put an end to the immigration of Asian individuals coming from areas characterized as not owned by the USA, such as British India, Middle Eastern countries, and the Pacific Islands, in addition to most of Southeast Asia except Japan and the Philippines.

The idea of this act appeared in 1915 and was rejected by President Woodrow Wilson twice in his message to the House of Representatives on January 28, 1915, describing this law as "A radical departure from the traditional and long-established policy

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of this country” (Weisberger, 2017). This means that this law was not consistent with the principles of the USA. However, this act was passed in 1917 after Congress canceled the Second Veto during the USA’s participation in WWI and its adoption of a policy of isolation.

In fact, among the most prominent exclusionary measures introduced by this legislation was the literacy test. The IA of 1917 required every immigrant over the age of 16 to pass a literacy test by reading 30 to forty words in English or a specific language. If he was unable to do so, he would be considered illiterate and prevented from entering the USA.

On the other hand, this measure received many criticisms, as it was seen as unfair because the literacy test tested immigrants in specific languages and might not be suitable for them. In this context, Kobrin criticized this measure, “If an immigrant’s native tongue did not appear on that list, he or she would have been considered illiterate and denied entry” (Weisberger, 2017). Because their failure to speak the desired language caused many arbitrary exclusions.

The literacy test introduced several exemptions, such as for fathers, grandfathers, and wives who are over fifty-five years of age, in addition to grandmothers and mothers, without age requirement. It also excluded people who came to the USA for freedom of religious beliefs. Moreover, the IA of 1917 required immigrants to pay \$8 per person, called the poll tax.

2.3.3. Internment of Japanese Americans during World War II

The clashin between the USA and Japan during WWII negatively affected the Japanese Americans, causing their interment. This incident refers to “The forced relocation by the U.S. government of thousands of Japanese Americans to detention camps during World War II” (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2018). To make it clear, it was the arrest of Japanese Americans and their placement in internment camps by federal decision during the period of tension between the USA and Japan.

The arrests came as a result of the armed attack on Pearl Harbor by the Japanese Air Force on December 7, 1941, after the US War Department accused the Japanese Americans of spying, and voices emerged calling for t heir transfer to internal detention centers.

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In this regard, the War Department initiated the establishment of twelve no-go zones in the Pacific Coast region in the first days of February 1942, as this zone announced nightly curfews on Japanese Americans. By February 19, 1942, Executive Order No. 9066 was signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. This executive order was issued with the aim of requiring the forced deportation of the Japanese by the American military for fear of spying on American shores during WWII.

Under the Relocation Operations, an order was issued on March 31, 1942, compelling Japanese Americans living along the West Coast to register themselves and their family members at control centers and to inform them of the location of the centers and the date of internment. They were given a period of four days to two weeks to collect their supplies and settle their personal affairs.

The first detention center to receive Japanese Americans was Manzanar, in east-central California. This was followed by the establishment of ten centers distributed in the states of Arkansas, Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, Utah, and California. These centers that were allocated to the arrested Japanese were not suitable for human living, such as horse stalls and cow barns.

Japanese Americans lived in difficult conditions in detention centers. They were exploited in jobs such as medicine, teaching, and agriculture, but without salaries. They were also subject to violence and repression, as in the case of the prisoner James Hatsuki Wakasa, who was killed at the Topaz Relocation Center because he only approached the separation fence. The Santa Anita Assembly Center also witnessed a violent attack against Fred Tayama, leader of the Japanese American Citizens League, due to the riots that broke out in reaction to the lack of rations and overcrowding in the Manzanar Center in California.

By 1945, the end of detention centers began with the Mitsuye Endo case, when the Supreme Court decided that loyal citizens were not subjected to the authority of the Military Resettlement Authority. From this standpoint, President Truman announced the closure of detention centers. The last center was closed in 1946. Then, an official apology was also announced, along with financial compensation amounting to twenty thousand US dollars provided by Congress to the Japanese Americans due to the injustice and conditions they lived in on American territories during the period of WWII.

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2.4. Hispanic Americans

After being called upon by the federal government to address the labour shortage and provided them with several guarantees within the framework of the Bracero program, Hispanic Americans experienced racial segregation, along with acts of violence and deportations.

2.4.1. The Bracero Program

In order to attract farmers, the BP was issued. This program is defined as “A series of agreements between the U.S. and Mexican governments to allow temporary workers from Mexico, known as braceros, to work legally in the United States” (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2021). That is to say, it was a program that made it legal for Mexican workers to work in the USA. The BP appeared in 1942 and extended until 1964, and through it, the USA received about 4.5 million Mexican workers to work in the fields of agriculture and industry.

To encourage the arrival of Mexican workers, the federal government established several rights and protections under the BP. The government had worked to ensure that manual workers were not subjected to discrimination and they did not receive low wages. Many privileges were also provided, such as insurance and health care, in addition to free housing. Moreover, transportation to their homeland was also provided upon the expiration of the contracts. The Mexican government also saw it as an appropriate opportunity for its citizens to gain agricultural experience, which would benefit the country when they return to serving its agricultural lands, in addition to bringing them the US dollar currency that might revive the Mexican economy.

The Mexican workers, nicknamed the Braceros, were exposed to many aspects of racism and discrimination, despite the guarantees provided by the federal government. It was not acceptable to employ Mexicans in many jobs, such as theaters and restaurants, and even when they were employed, they were separated from other white workers.

In addition, the working conditions in which the Braceros worked were very harsh. Due to employers' failure to fulfill and respect what was promised by the federal government, health care was not provided as well, and inappropriate housing such as tents and barns were provided. Wages also played a role in these conditions, as the

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braceros received low and late wages. In fact, undocumented Mexican workers in particular were the most vulnerable to this mistreatment.

As a depiction of difficult circumstances, Pauline R. Kibby described the BP in her book, *American Latinos in Texas*:

Regarded as a necessary evil, nothing more nor less than an unavoidable adjunct to the harvest season. Judging by the treatment that has been accorded him in that section of the state, one might assume that he is not a human being at all, but a species of farm implement that comes mysteriously and spontaneously into being coincident with the maturing of cotton. (Longley, 2021)

Showing that the braceros were exploited and employed in difficult conditions.

Finally, the large number of undocumented Mexican workers, besides their exploitation by employers, and the resulting marginalization of American agricultural workers and requiring low wages resulted in great public anger and rejection, which forced the federal government to end the BP in 1964.

2.4.2. The Segregated Schools

Hispanic American children faced racial segregation in schools in the USA. In fact, the Hispanic American workers kids were allocated special schools and were refused admission to schools designated for whites during the 1940s, such as what happened in the case of the child Sylvia Mendez, who was refused admission to 17th Street Elementary School and was directed to Hoover Elementary School, which was in a miserable condition and not suitable for studying, as it contained two almost demolished rooms.

The schools designated for whites had good facilities and favorable conditions. On the other hand, the children of Hispanic-American workers studied in unsuitable schools that did not have the necessary supplies and an insufficient number of teachers.

The inappropriate school conditions led to a lawsuit being filed by parents of students against four school districts. During the trial, school principals justified the exclusion of Hispanic American children because they did not speak English and were therefore not qualified to study in English-speaking schools despite not having conducted

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proficiency tests for them, in addition to describing them as dirty and carrying dangerous diseases.

As a result of the trial and the pressure of the Hispanic Americans, on February 18, 1946, the court condemned the segregation and discrimination against Mexican American students and said they should be treated fairly.

2.4.3. The Zoot Suit Riots

Similar to other ethnic minorities, Hispanic Americans were subject to cultural racism, as happened in the Zoot Suit Riots. This event is described as “A series of conflicts that occurred in June 1943 in Los Angeles between U.S. servicemen and Mexican American youths, the latter of whom wore outfits called zoot suits” (Coroian, 2018). It can be described as violent tension in 1943 between a group of young Mexican Americans seeking to promote their culture and American soldiers in LA.

The zoot suit was a suit worn by dancers who performed dance performances during the 1930s in the dance halls of Harlem in New York. It consisted of a long, wide jacket with padded shoulders, in addition to loose trousers and a pork hat.

The suits were not still limited to artists only but rather extended and spread among young Mexican Americans. As a result, a group of youth emerged known as the Pachucos, who rebelled against Mexican and American cultures. The suits had a bad and racist reputation, such that their wearers were seen as gang members.

These kinds of suits were subject to a manufacturing ban during WWII as part of the economic difficulties that imposed restrictions on products, including wool and its products. However, the suits were manufactured illegally, which resulted in widespread anger among the sailors and soldiers against the wearers of these suits and considering them un-American because they violated the regulations.

The summer of 1943 was marked by great tension between sailors and soldiers against those known as Pachucos. A group of Pachucos attacked an American sailor. About 50 armed sailors responded by attacking this group in the city of Los Angeles (LA) on June 3. This incident was considered the spark for racist acts and repression against Mexican

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Americans, as American soldiers led violent attacks against them. Mexican Americans were beaten and stripped of their clothes, in addition to being arrested by the police.

The violence spread to other areas of the city, and free transportation was provided to the riot areas, which led to the arrival of thousands of soldiers and even civilians from different areas, such as San Diego and Southern California.

Carey McWilliams described the brutality of the violent attacks:

On Monday evening, June seventh, thousands of Angelenos... turned out for a mass lynching. Marching through the streets of downtown Los Angeles, a mob of several thousand soldiers, sailors, and civilians, proceeded to beat up every zoot-suiter they could find. Street cars were halted while Mexicans, and some Filipinos and Negroes, were jerked out of their seats, pushed into the streets, and beaten with sadistic frenzy. (Longley, 2020)

That is, all non-white people were attacked despite their innocence. Despite the brutality of the attack, no deaths were reported, and 600 Mexican Americans were arrested.

Representatives of the Mexican American community and the Latin American Youth Council intervened and called on the federal government and President Franklin D. Roosevelt to address the issue, but they were not paid any attention.

On June 8, at midnight, military police were called in after the LA ban on soldiers was approved and the wearing of Zoot suits was banned by the city council, which led to the riots officially stopping on June 10, 1943.

2.4.4. Operation Wetback

The widespread anger of the Americans over the violation of the standards of the BP prompted the federal government to create a program called Operation Wetback to end this problem. This operation is defined as “A U.S. immigration law enforcement program conducted during 1954 that resulted in the mass deportation to Mexico of as many as 1.3 million Mexicans who had entered the country illegally” (Funderburk, 2017). It could be said that it was a program to deport every illegal Mexican immigrant. In fact, the term wetback was a racist insult for immigrants who entered and resided illegally in the USA, especially Mexicans.

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The preference of American farm owners to employ undocumented immigrants due to low wages led to more illegal immigration, although the increase in the number of border guards and several other measures in 1943 and 1945, such as moving deported immigrants to areas farther from the border, were all unsuccessful.

To find solutions, General Joseph M. Swing was appointed in 1954 as Commissioner of Immigration, who was considered the initiator of the idea of Operation Wetback. Therefore, this idea was announced in May 1954 as a joint operation between the US Border Patrol and the Mexican government.

The operation came into being on May 17, 1954. It included several Border states, such as Arizona, California, and Texas, in addition to other states such as San Francisco, Chicago, and LA. Through raids in which 750 Border Patrol officers and investigators were recruited, every Mexican American was detained and required to prove his American citizenship through a birth certificate. Anyone who did not prove their status, even without the documents due to an administrative delay, was deported without a court order.

Mexicans were shipped and sent via boats, buses, and even planes and were directed to unknown places deep in Mexico, such as the desert. The number of deportees in this process was estimated at 1.1 million illegal immigrants, but reliance on cheap Mexican labour continued on American farms.

Conclusion

Various ethnic minorities had experienced difficulties and miserable conditions in the USA, where they were subject to systemic exclusion, segregation, and inequality, as well as being victims of violence and oppression by civilians. All of these circumstances led to the emergence of elite groups, including Martin Luther King, Cesar Chavez, and others, who led civil rights movements such as the Montgomery Bus Boycott (MBB) and the Chicano Movement (CM), which played a major role in racial minorities obtaining their civil rights.

Chapter Three : The Civil Rights Movements

Introduction

The suffering endured by various ethnic minorities in the USA, including exclusion from the most basic civil rights, as they were the subject of violent acts and intimidation, along with the contribution of awareness movements similar to the Harlem Renaissance, an elite group emerged that led a great movement for civil rights. Its beginning was organized by African Americans, such as Martin Luther King, by organizing marches and sit-ins. Also, the Black Power Movement (BPM) had a significant impact on other ethnic minorities, including Native Americans, who struggled for their civil rights and land through the occupations of Alcatraz and the BIA. Asian Americans, who were mistreated by the government, also contributed to civil rights movements such as the Garment Workers' Strike. Furthermore, following the example of the other ethnic minorities, Hispanic Americans fought for their rights through the CM.

3.1. The Red Power Movement

As a result of the mistreatment of Native people, such as land seizures and deportations, Native Americans joined the CRM through the Red Power Movement (RPM), which was:

The name given to the Native American civil rights movement that emerged in the latter half of the 20th century. Differing from the other civil rights movements of the century, which sought assimilation into white culture, the Red Power Movement instead sought protection and autonomy in the face of an encroaching white culture that sought the termination of tribal statuses and culture. (Marks, 2022)

It can also be defined as the movement led by Indigenous people with the aim of gaining independence for their lands and proving their identity and cultures.

3.1.1. The American Indian Movement

One of the most important groups in the RPM was the American Indian Movement (AIM). Abbott defined the movement, as follows:

Founded in July 1968 in Minneapolis, Minnesota, the American Indian Movement was an American Indian advocacy group organized to address issues related to sovereignty, leadership, and treaties. Particularly in its early years, AIM also protested racism and civil rights violations against Native Americans. (2000)

In another definition, AIM was one of the groups that resisted on behalf of Indigenous causes.

The movement was also known as a militant Native American civil rights organization, which was founded by members of the Ojibwe group, such as Clyde Bellecourt, Pat Belanger, Eddie Benton Banai, Dennis Banks, and George Mitchell.

This organization was established in response to the difficulties experienced by Indigenous communities in urban areas after they were displaced from their ancestral lands. It was a platform for voicing the demands of the Indigenous people, who sought to bring back the seized lands and establish tribal rule in the tribal territories, in addition to the struggle for cultural and economic independence.

The AIM led several historical events, such as the occupation of Alcatraz Island in 1969–1971, as well as the occupation of the BIA in Washington, D.C., in 1972 during the Trail of Broken Treaties (TBT). Furthermore, in 1973, a site at Wounded Knee was again occupied. The issue of the exploitation of Indigenous land resources by the federal government was one of the most important cases that interested AIM during the mid-1970s.

The organization began to collapse as a result of the emergence of internal divisions and the imprisonment of its leaders, which led to the dissolution of the national leadership in 1978, but local groups continued, and one of their last activities was the occupation of part of the Black Hills in South Dakota in 1981.

3.1.2. The Occupation of Alcatraz

After the Indigenous people suffered from deportation and the seizure of their lands, they went to occupy and recover these lands. The action was known as the Occupation of Alcatraz.

The fire that ravaged the American Indian Center in San Francisco in October 1969 was the main motivation for the Indigenous people to head towards Alcatraz Island when Richard Oakes led the Indians of All Tribes (IAT) on November 9, 1969, to Alcatraz, but their first attempt was not successful, as their stay lasted only one day after the intervention of the security forces. However, a group of IAT, accompanied by 89 people, returned on November 20, 1969, after an organizing operation, and were finally able to seize the island.

The Indians occupying Alcatraz Island issued an official declaration addressed to the Great White Father and all his people, stating that the island was in fact their land and that they would develop it with various facilities, such as building an Indian school. Indeed, an elementary school, a nursery, and a clinic were constructed, as well as appointing a board of directors.

Because of the peacefulness of the Indians, the government did not treat them with violently, but rather with diplomatic means through negotiations between government officials and the Indian leaders of all the tribes who stipulated ownership of the island.

In fact, the Occupation of Alcatraz garnered substantial support, whether material support in the form of supplies such as money, food, and clothing or moral and human contribution through the joining of Native American activists and students. Furthermore, several Native Americans were supported by different celebrities, such as Merv Griffin, Jane Fonda, and Anthony Quinn.

After Alcatraz included a group of elites, such as university students, their departure from the island in 1970 and their replacement with vagrants brought about a shift in conditions and the spread of social ills. Additionally, Oakes' departure resulted in a leadership conflict and the federal government ending its diplomatic treatment. Besides the current problems, a fire broke out at Alcatraz, causing major losses.

As a consequence, taking advantage of the prevailing conditions on the island, the armed federal marshals were able to suppress the occupation and expel the Indians on June 11, 1971, by order of the government.

3.1.3. The Trail of Broken Treaties

The RPM saw one of the main events that was organized by the AIM, which was the TBT. The event is defined as "A central protest event of the Red Power activist period of the 1970s, the "Trail of Broken Treaties" was organized by members of the American Indian Movement (AIM) to bring national attention to Native grievances" (Encyclopedia.com, 2019). It can also be described as one of the RPM leaders' reactions to the broken treaties.

Through caravans of cars that were roaming the West Coast, the Indians began the path in the late summer of 1972 after gathering several local organizations, such as the National Council of Indian Youth, AIM, and IAT, with the planning of Hank Adams, Dennis Banks, and Russell Means of AIM.

The trail recruited Indians from various reservations and urban Indian communities to protest, aimed at reforming and redressing Indian policy. It was directed toward Washington, D.C. The first convoys set off on October 6, 1972, from Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, and Oklahoma.

On their way to the capital, a position paper was drafted outlining the requests of the Indigenous population, estimated at twenty demands, such as returning 110 million acres to the Natives, the restoration of the treaty-making process, and the reinstatement of the tribes that had been terminated, along with their religious freedom. It was scheduled to be delivered to President Nixon, along with holding meetings with government members.

The convoys arrived on November 2, 1972, and the organizers were surprised that the president was not in Washington and their meetings with the ministers were canceled. Moreover, the Indians were treated poorly by the BIA, such as by directing them towards unsuitable housing and working against the movement.

In actual fact, the occupiers discovered the BIA corruption by seizing documents proving it. On the other hand, their occupation of the building and its vandalism attracted the attention of the press and public opinion and diverted it from their legitimate demands.

Finally, the occupation of the building ended after a full week, after the government provided immunity to the participants, covered travel expenses amounting to approximately \$66,500, and employed a work team to discuss the twenty demands.

3.1.4. Wounded Knee Occupation 1973

The AIM had an effective role, but it suffered from several harassments from the federal government and corrupt Indian leaders, which led to the Wounded Knee Occupation (WKO) in 1973.

Wounded Knee was “ The site of two conflicts, in 1890 and 1973, between Native Americans and the U.S. federal government” (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018). This area is considered a historical center due to its momentous events.

Among the motives that led to the WKO in 1973 was the activity of the AIM opposing tribal leadership, particularly Dick Wilson, the head of the Sioux tribe, who had requested the intervention of the BIA police and federal marshals, prompting the AIM members to head towards Wounded Knee. As a result, this site was occupied by AIM members on February 27, 1973, when Dennis Banks and Russell Means guided about 200 Native Americans from the Oglala Lakota tribe.

In response, the federal government supported Dick Wilson, who directed a siege around occupied Wounded Knee. The siege lasted for about 71 days and witnessed direct armed confrontations between the two parties, i.e., AIM members and federal guards. The AIM also put forward a set of demands, including discussing broken treaties and changing tribal leadership.

After the federal government accepted AIM’s demands, the siege concluded on May 8, 1973, following the surrender of the AIM members. Moreover, on September 16, 1973, AIM leaders Dennis Banks and Russell Means were acquitted as a result of illegal evidence and witnesses.

3.2. The African American Civil Rights Movement

The period of the sixties and seventies of the last century witnessed the emergence of an elite group of African Americans under the name of the BPM, which guided a number of events within the framework of civil rights. According to Odlum, the BPM was “a political and social movement whose advocates believed in racial pride, self-sufficiency, and equality for all people of Black and African descent” (2015). It also refers to the movement organized by African Americans against all forms of racism, segregation, and exclusion.

3.2.1. The Brown v. Board of Education case

Among the most important issues that the CRM fought was racial segregation in public schools. One of the prominent cases was Brown v. Board of Education (BBE). This incident is defined as:

A case in which, on May 17, 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled unanimously (9–0) that racial segregation in public schools violated the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which prohibits the states from denying equal protection of the laws to any person within their jurisdictions. The decision declared that separate educational facilities for white and African American students were inherently unequal. It thus rejected as inapplicable to public education the separate but equal doctrine. (Duignan, 2018)

The BBE was the case that served in the abolition of racial segregation in schools by establishing the illegality of the principle of SBE in schools.

One of the motives of the case traced back to the denial of enrollment for the African-American Oliver Brown's daughter in schools designated for whites in Kansas, which were closer to her; instead, she was directed to distant schools designated for blacks. This challenge came after the role of the NAACP in challenging the racist JCL during the fourth decade of the nineteenth century by pushing parents to enroll their children in designated schools.

After the rejection of all requests to educate children of African Americans and the poor condition of schools designated for them, as they did not have the minimum facilities, the NAACP moved toward filing a class-action lawsuit that focused on the argument that the Fourteenth Amendment the following "No state shall deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws" (Cornell Law School, 2018). That is, the state was obliged to provide fair and equal treatment in addition to fully protecting the rights of its individuals, which had been violated by not applying the Equal Protection Clause (EPC) due to the racial segregation practiced against blacks.

The case was addressed by a local court in 1951, but the court's decision was not in favor of the plaintiffs, under the pretext that all schools were equal, and because of the non-acceptance of the court's decision, an appeal was made by the NAACP to the US Supreme Court.

The Brown case was consolidated by the court in 1952 with four other cases brought by the NAACP: *Bolling v. Sharp* 1951, *Briggs v. Elliott* 1951 in South Carolina, *Gebhart v. Belton* 1952 in Delaware, and *Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward County* 1952 in Virginia. They became known as the BBE of Topeka, with Thurgood Marshall serving as plaintiffs' lawyer, where the Supreme Court held that the Plessy verdict should stand.

On May 17, 1954, the US Supreme Court issued a decision recognizing the failure to provide equal protection to the plaintiffs and the illegality of the principle of SBE in schools. Warren, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, said:

Segregation of white and colored children in public schools has a detrimental effect upon the colored children. . . . We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. (Miller Center, 2017)

So, he acknowledged the illegitimacy of the principle of SBE and its consequences for African-American children. However, the court found that the evidence was insufficient and demanded more, and it did not clarify the method for integrating the schools.

The case resurfaced in May 1955, when the Supreme Court assigned the lower federal courts to decide on racial segregation cases. This led to the failure of some state officials to implement the rulings. It resulted in an incident where the Arkansas National Guard was called for help by the governor of the state in 1957 in order not to allow African American students to enter the secondary school, which led to the intervention of the federal army by order of President Eisenhower, along with the small army, or Rock Nine, consisting of nine students. As a result, the confrontation ended with the students joining their school.

3.2.2. The Montgomery Bus Boycott

In light of the suffering of African Americans from all forms of racism, including racial segregation in various public facilities and spreading awareness, protests and boycotts such as the MBB began to emerge. This disapproval was a "Mass protest against the bus system of Montgomery, Alabama, by civil rights activists and their supporters that led to a 1956 U.S. Supreme Court decision declaring that Montgomery's segregation laws on buses were unconstitutional" (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018). It was one of the reactions against racial segregation on buses in Montgomery.

The main reason behind the boycott was the arrest of seamstress Rosa Parks on December 1, 1955, due to her violation of local laws that stipulated that whites sit in the front seats and blacks in the back, and if the seats were full, whites would have the right to sit in the seats designated for blacks, and this was what Rosa rejected. Parks did not accept to give up her seat, as a result, she was arrested, but she was released from prison on bail by civil rights leader Edgar Daniel Nixon.

After the arrest of Rosa Parks, a campaign to challenge apartheid laws began by distributing leaflets by the Women's Political Council and the NAACP calling for a boycott of buses on December 5, 1955, i.e., the day of the trial. The campaign resonated with American civil rights leaders, who played a major role in its support.

On December 5, 1955, about 40,000 African Americans responded to the bus boycott, representing at least 75% of bus passengers. On the same day, the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA) was established, led by Martin Luther King Jr., who addressed the audience, saying :

I want it to be known that we're going to work with grim and bold determination to gain justice on the buses in this city. And we are not wrong... If we are wrong, the Supreme Court of this nation is wrong. If we are wrong, the Constitution of the United States is wrong... (Stanford University, 2023)

King's statement indicated the legitimacy and justice of their struggling cause.

This association had several demands, including implementing the first-come, first-seated policy in addition to hiring black drivers. However, the boycotters' demands were rejected by bus companies and Montgomery officials, and they were threatened with dismissal from their jobs. The boycotters and protesters were the subject of many acts of violence, intimidation, and imprisonment, but the boycott continued for about a year.

A lawsuit was filed by the MIA to desegregate buses. In accordance with the Fourteenth Amendment, the Montgomery federal court ruled on June 5, 1956, that racial segregation on buses was illegal and unconstitutional. This ruling was upheld by the Supreme Court in November 1956, which began its implementation on December 20, 1956, and the boycott ended the next morning, December 21, 1956, after the integration of Montgomery buses.

However, the decision to integrate had a violent reaction from whites, as the KKK intervened and carried out many terrorist acts, such as bombing the homes of African American leaders, including the house of Martin Luther King, in addition to churches. Furthermore, segregation continued through separate bus stations.

3.2.3. Sit-in movement and Freedom Rides

Within the framework of the racial segregation practiced against blacks, it was met with peaceful reactions such as a Sit-in movement. This reaction refers to:

An act of nonviolent protest against a segregated lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina, that began on February 1, 1960. Its success led to a wider sit-in movement, organized primarily by the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), that spread throughout the South. (Ray, 2015)

It was one of the most peaceful sit-ins opposing apartheid in various public facilities.

The Greensboro sit-in incident went back to four African-American students, Ezell Blair Jr., David Richmond, Franklin McCain, and Joseph McNeil, applying to buy from the Frank Winfield Woolworth store, where their request was rejected because they were sitting at a table designated for whites. They refused to leave and remained seated until the store was closed, despite the arrival of the police, who did not intervene because there were no acts of vandalism or violence. This protest was planned by Mahatma Gandhi-influenced students who became known as The Greensboro Four with the help of a white businessman, Ralph Jones.

After the event became public, many North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University students joined the Greensboro Four in the sit-in. Moreover, the media coverage contributed to pushing students from other Southern states to engage in the event, like Texas, and Tennessee.

The most important thing that distinguished the sit-ins was their peaceful nature, as black students adopted a policy of non-violence as evidence of their awareness and the sincerity of their cause, and this was with the contribution of several human rights organizations such as the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). Despite the acts of repression and violence they received

from the police and whites, they remained steadfast and did not resort to riots and violence.

The spread of this movement increased in all Southern states. Students protested in different states, including Maryland, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Florida, Tennessee, and Alabama, in addition to Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, and Georgia, then Mississippi, West Virginia, Ohio, Kansas, Oklahoma, Illinois, and Missouri.

The CORE and SCLC were active in various Southern states universities, and this resulted in the founding of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) in Raleigh, North Carolina, in April 1960, which played a major role in organizing students and black communities in general.

Through the sit-ins and the resulting losses and damage to the companies, racial segregation was ended in the summer of 1960 in several Southern states, such as North Carolina, Arkansas, Maryland, and Tennessee, where the Greensboro restaurant took the initiative to integrate, contrary to Mississippi, South Carolina, Alabama, and Louisiana.

Despite the momentum gained by the sit-in operations and their role in ending racial segregation in some Southern states, they were met with no interest or intervention from the federal government. As a result, the SNCC shifted its activity in late 1960 from sit-ins to organizing Freedom Rides toward the South.

The Freedom Rides were "A series of political protests against segregation by Blacks and whites who rode buses together through the American South in 1961"(The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018). They organized excursions to the South with the aim of confronting the racist JCL.

This type of protest emerged after the *Boynton v. Virginia* decision of 1960 by the Supreme Court, which declared the unconstitutionality of racial segregation in travel facilities such as bus stops, restaurants, and restrooms. Trips were organized to the Jim Crow South to experience this court decision by using facilities designated for whites.

The Freedom Journey began on May 4, 1961, on two Greyhound and Trailways buses heading toward New Orleans, which were carrying 8 blacks and 6 whites. During the trip, the blacks took advantage of the facilities designated for whites, while the whites used what was designated for blacks.

The first violent reaction to this trip was in South Carolina on May 12, where two Freedom Riders, a white and a black, were attacked as a result of their presence in a waiting area designated for whites.

Following the Greyhound bus arrival in Anniston, Alabama, on May 14, 1961, it was met by an angry crowd and chased, causing its tires to explode. A bomb was thrown on the bus, and the passengers were assaulted. The Trailways bus that arrived in Birmingham experienced the same treatment, as the Liberty passengers were beaten by the white mob, with no police intervention in either incident.

After the Freedom Riders were unable to find transportation due to the recent events, they stopped these trips. After that, another group appeared, organized by the SNCC, which included ten students.

The new Freedom Riders headed towards Montgomery, Alabama, secured by the police, but they abandoned their mission as the mob took advantage of it and attacked the new riders, which required the intervention of the National Guard.

On May 24, 1961, about 27 Freedom Riders headed towards Jackson, Mississippi, but they were arrested and directed to prison on charges of trespassing on the property of others due to their exploitation of facilities designated for whites. Despite all the restrictions and acts of violence, the Freedom Rides continued. September 1961 marked the end of racial segregation in transportation facilities after the Interstate Commerce Commission was assigned this task by order of President Kennedy.

3.2.4. March on Washington 1963

During the struggle of the pioneers of the BPM, it was necessary to draw the attention of the government and all parties in society through the largest event, which was the March on Washington, 1963. The latter is defined as a “Political demonstration held in Washington, D.C., on August 28, 1963, that was attended by an estimated 250,000 people to protest racial discrimination and to show support for major civil rights legislation that was pending in Congress” (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018). It was a massive march in which demonstrators participated by organizing a march in Washington to protest racist laws.

The idea of organizing a march in the capital city emerged after the merging of the ideas of Martin Luther King, who wanted to organize a march for freedom, and Philip Randolph, whose idea was to arrange for jobs, besides the cooperation of CRM leaders such as Roy Wilkins, Whitney Young, John Lewis, James Farmer, Philip Randolph, and Martin Luther King.

During the meeting with the leaders of the CRM, President Kennedy supported the march after warning the leaders of what might result from it, but the insistence culminated in the appointment of the president's brother, Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy, to secure this march.

On August 28, 1963, the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom event was launched when about 250,000 people headed towards the Lincoln Memorial. This event received massive media coverage and was organized by the activist Bayard Rustin.

During the march event, several speeches were delivered by activists and leaders of the CRM, including Roy Wilkins, John Lewis, Young, Dizzy Betts, Walter Reuther, and Josephine Baker. The event also witnessed the participation of artists, including Mahalia Jackson, Marian Anderson, Bob Dylan, and Joan Baez, who performed musical songs.

The end of the event was special as Martin Luther King Jr. ascended to deliver his famous speech. He began by singing the spiritual classic I've Been 'Buked, and I've Been Scorned, then went on to deliver his historical lyrics:

I say to you today, my friends, so even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, I still have a dream. It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream....I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream that...one day right there in Alabama, little Black boys and Black girls will be able to join hands with little white boys and white girls as sisters and brothers. (Tikkanen, 2018)

King expressed his optimism for the future of the next generation of African Americans.

The efforts of the African American CRM and its leaders contributed to the federal government's push to pass the Civil Rights Act (CRA) of 1964.

3.2.5. The Civil Rights Act of 1964

As a result of the success of the CRM, the CRA of 1964 was passed. The act was a “Comprehensive U.S. legislation intended to end discrimination based on race, color, religion, or national origin” (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2019). The latter was one of the laws against racial discrimination. It was President Kennedy's proposal in 1963, and it was signed by subsequent President Lyndon B. Johnson on July 2, 1964.

One of the motives that led to the issuance of the Act was the role of the civil rights movements that exerted tremendous pressure through protests and sit-ins after the ineffectiveness of previous constitutional amendments under JCL in the South, which forced President John Kennedy to issue it.

After Lyndon B. Johnson assumed the presidency to succeed the assassinated President Kennedy, he met with members of Congress to pass the bill, which witnessed great opposition from Southerners because they believed it infringed on states' rights.

The bill was then presented to the Senate, where there was great procrastination on the part of Democrats in the Southern and Border states for 75 days until Republicans were persuaded to support the bill against the Democratic opposition, with the intervention of Everett Dirksen of Illinois, the minority leader in the Senate, adding to the support of Senator Hubert Humphrey and President Lyndon B. Johnson. As a result, the bill was passed by a vote of 73 against 27, and the President signed the law on July 2, 1964.

Public facilities, such as parks, hotels, and courthouses, were prohibited from segregation or any form of non-provision of services under the CRA through Title VII. Martin Luther King described the law as a second emancipation.

The passage of this law witnessed a great wave of anger from white groups, adding to challenges to its constitutionality, but it was upheld in the test case, *Heart of Atlanta Motel v. US* (1964), by the Supreme Court.

The CRA of 1964 played a major role in ending segregation and racial discrimination and paved the way for the emergence of the Voting Rights Act (VRA) of 1965.

3.2.6. The Voting Rights Act of 1965

To guarantee African Americans' right to vote, the VRA of 1965 was issued. The act refers to:

U.S. legislation (August 6, 1965) that aimed to overcome legal barriers at the state and local levels that prevented African Americans from exercising their right to vote under the Fifteenth Amendment (1870) to the Constitution of the United States. (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018)

It is a law that guaranteed African Americans voting rights . It was signed by President Lyndon B. Johnson.

In fact, African Americans faced many obstacles in exercising their voting right through various forms of restrictions, such as poll taxes, literacy tests, grandfather clauses, and acts of intimidation and violence, even though it was a right guaranteed by the Fifteenth Amendment.

The acts of exclusion and violence continued until the fifties and sixties of the twentieth century, i.e., the period of the CRM, when activists of the movement were brutalized and suppressed by Alabama state forces during the Selma to Montgomery March on March 7, 1965, to demand the voting right. Some demonstrators were severely beaten and bloodied, while others fled for their lives. The incident was filmed on national television.

In the wake of the shocking incident, Johnson called for comprehensive voting rights legislation. In a speech to a joint session of Congress on March 15, 1965, the president outlined the deceptive ways in which election officials denied African-American citizens the right to vote.

Recent events prompted President Johnson to meet with Congress, where he criticized and blamed the deprivation of African-American citizens from voting by election officials through literacy tests and also required voting rights legislation.

On May 26, 1965, the US Senate discussed the Voting Rights Bill, when the Senate members voted to pass it by 77 votes against 19 votes. Then it was approved by the House of Representatives on July 9 by 333 votes against 85 votes.

Through a ceremony on August 6, 1965, attended by several civil rights leaders, the VRA was formally signed by President Johnson, which required the cancellation of literacy tests and poll taxes under the Twenty-Fourth Amendment.

In the beginning, the process of implementing the Voting Rights Law was slow, especially in the Southern states, but it resulted in a large turnout for African Americans to vote after all the imposed restrictions were removed, as their percentage rose from 6% in 1964 to 59% in 1969.

3.3. Asian Americans Civil Rights movement

Due to the restrictions imposed on Asians and the influence of the BPM, Asians organized themselves under the name of the Yellow Power Movement (YPM) to defend their rights and struggle against systemic mistreatment and discrimination through various legal cases and organizing strikes.

3.3.1. Korematsu v. United States case

In the context of the mistreatment practiced by the federal government against Asians, many of them challenged the racist decisions, as Korematsu did. In fact, this issue was:

Legal case in which the U.S Supreme Court, on December 18, 1944, upheld (6–3) the conviction of Fred Korematsu—a son of Japanese immigrants who was born in Oakland, California—for having violated an exclusion order requiring him to submit to forced relocation during World War II. (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018)

It was also known as one of the most Important racial minority issues in the USA, which saw the imprisonment of the Japanese Korematsu upheld by the Supreme Court.

The case traced back to the period of WWII (1939–1945), within the framework of existing tension between the USA and Japan after the process of deporting the Japanese to detention camps pursuant to Executive Order No. 9066 in addition to Exclusion Order No. 34, whichever was issued on May 3, when young Korematsu refused to comply with the executive decisions and to move to the camps and not accompany his family.

On May 30, Korematsu was arrested and was directed to the Tanforan Center in San Bruno, South of San Francisco. He was imprisoned for five years on probation after he was convicted by a federal district court of violating a military order. Then Topaz Internment Camp in Utah became a destination for Korematsu and his family.

The US Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit appealed the decision of the federal district court but, in the end, endorsed the previous decision. The Supreme Court also heard Korematsu's appeal and confirmed the previous decision and conviction on October 11, 1944.

The court's decision drew strong opposition from Frank Murphy, Owen Roberts, and Robert H. Jackson. The three justices who opposed the Japanese internment declared that:

Korematsu was born on our soil, of parents born in Japan. The Constitution makes him a citizen of the United States by nationality, and a citizen of California by residence. No claim is made that he is not loyal to this country. There is no suggestion that, apart from the matter involved here, he is not law-abiding and well disposed. Korematsu, however, has been convicted of an act not commonly a crime. It consists merely of being present in the state where he is a citizen, near the place where he was born, and where all his life he has lived. (The Editors of Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018)

They expressed their rejection of the idea of the Japanese internment and their innocence of suspicion.

3.3.2. Lau v. Nichols case

Among the discriminations suffered by Asians was exclusion in schools, and Lau v. Nichols was one of the most famous incidents. It is defined as:

Case in which the U.S Supreme Court on January 21, 1974, ruled (9–0) that, under the Civil Rights Act of 1964, a Californiaschool district receiving federal funds must provide non-English-speaking students with instruction in the English language to ensure that they receive an equal education. (Bon, 2019)

It was one of the issues that addressed racial exclusion in schools and prohibited it under the CRA of 1964.

The case dated back to the exclusion of about 1,800 non-English-speaking students by the San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD) from receiving supplementary language courses, which was authorized in 1971 through a federal decree to teach 2,900 students of Chinese origin who were non-English speakers. However, only 1,000 of them received supplementary language lessons.

Because of the SFUSD violation of the EPC of the Fourteenth Amendment besides the Section 601 of the CRA of 1964, which prohibited in any program or activity that received federal financial assistance various forms of discrimination, whether in terms of sex, race, color, or national origin. Therefore, this exclusion prompted the Kenny Kimon Lau and a group of students to file a lawsuit against the SFUSD, with H. Nichols, the school board president, as a defendant.

The case was brought up in federal district court, where Lau's lawyers claimed that non-native English-speaking students were not provided with the same learning opportunities as native speakers, citing the Supreme Court's ruling that SBE educational facilities were unconstitutional. On the other hand, a federal district court did not convict the SFUSD and held that the same opportunities and conditions were provided to non-English-speaking students. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals also upheld the court's earlier ruling that there was nothing compelling the SFUSD to offer supplemental language courses.

Again, the case was brought to the Supreme Court on December 10, 1973, and focused on the California Education Law in the SFUD Manual, which stipulated that all students must be proficient in the English language; otherwise, they would not obtain a high school diploma. Although the SFUSD received funding to improve language competencies, it excluded 1,800 students from that.

The SFUSD was found guilty by the Supreme Court, ruling in favor of Kenny Kimon Lau and his associates, and decided to offer supplemental language courses to those students who did not speak English.

3.3.3. Chinatown Garment Workers Strike

The number of Chinese workers in the USA increased after the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965 repealed the CEA of 1882, as women workers had a large share in the clothing industry.

Chinese female workers were subjected to harsh working conditions, such as overcrowding and low wages. Despite working long hours, they were paid fifty cents per garment, in addition to their housing in crowded and poorly prepared neighborhoods, which resulted in the spread of diseases such as tuberculosis. Employers also abandoned dealing with the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and forced workers to cancel retirement and reduce vacation days.

These conditions served as an incentive for the Chinese workers to rise up. The worker, Katie Quan, began coordinating and communicating with her fellow workers through the press in order to organize a strike, and leaflets calling for a strike on June 24 began to be distributed.

The workers went on strike on June 24. At first, not many responded as they went into hiding, but they eventually joined the strike, and the number of strikers reached twenty thousand on that day. They also repeated the strike on June 29. In point of fact, this strike was successful as the employers accepted all of the workers' demands, including contracting with the union.

3.4. The Chicano Movement

As a result of the influence of other etminorities' movements, Hispanic Americans joined the civil rights movements through the CM, which "Sparked national conversations on the political and social autonomy of Hispanic groups everywhere in the United States" (Kratz, 2021). That is, this movement took responsibility for addressing and supporting Hispanic issues in the USA.

3.4.1. The United Farm Workers

The United Farm Workers (UFW) is defined as :

U.S. labour union founded in 1962 as the National Farm Workers Association by the labour leaders and activists Cesar Chavez and Dolores Huerta. It seeks to empower migrant farmworkers and to improve their wages and working conditions. The union also works to promote nonviolence and to educate members on political and social issues. (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2024)

It was initially an association known as the National Farm Workers Association (NFWA), headed by its founder Cesar Chavez in 1962, which emerged with the aim of standing up for workers' rights and improving workers' conditions.

Among the most important activities of the NFWA was sponsoring and participating in the Grape Pickers' Strike organized by the Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee (AWOC) in 1965 with the aim of increasing workers' wages. This cooperation resulted in the merger of the NFWA and the AWOC in 1966 under the name United Farm Workers.

The union joined the civil rights movements that were widespread at that time by defending the rights of Hispanic workers by organizing marches towards the capital in addition to strikes. It played a key role in signing contracts for the benefit of grape growers, which guaranteed them health insurance and appropriate wages.

Mexican culture was present in the struggle of the UFW through the use of several national symbols. For example, the union's logo contained a black eagle similar to what is found in the Mexican flag, in addition to the use of images of the Lady of Guadalupe, i.e., the Virgin Mary, and the Mexican revolutionary Emiliano Zapata in marches and strikes.

The UFW witnessed the withdrawal of many leaders as a result of internal conflicts, and it also withdrew from the fields. After the death of Cesar Chavez in 1993, he was succeeded by his son-in-law, Arturo Rodriguez, and the union returned to the fields as well as organizing in urban areas, despite the lack of contract workers.

3.4.2. The Brown Berets Participation in the Chicano Movement

The Brown Berets (BB) were considered one of the most significant groups that participated during the period of civil rights movements. They were defined as:

A militant Chicano (Mexican American) civil rights group, modeled in part on the African American Black Panther Party . Like the Black Panthers, the Brown Berets arose out of a desire to fight discrimination and especially to defend the Mexican American community from police brutality. (Encyclopedia.com, n.d.)

It was a Hispanic youth group that challenged police injustice and discriminatory treatments.

This militant group got its start at a Mexican American Youth Conference in East Los Angeles (ELA), California, in 1966, where high school students gathered to discuss problems facing Mexican Americans. The students continued to work together over the next year, and their group was named Young Chicanos for Community Action.

The group became known as the Brown Berets due to their uniform, which included a brown beret. They adopted a set of principles, the most important of which was rejecting the idea of assimilation and abandoning their culture, in addition to showing morals and good behavior.

The BB participated in major events of the CM, including the Blow Outs in ELA, i.e., demonstrations in which more than ten thousand students from Garfield, Roosevelt, Lincoln, and Belmont high schools walked out to protest educational discrimination against them.

They were very active from 1967 to 1972, opposing segregation in schools, supporting protesters, and also standing against police repression of Chicanos. Also, a free clinic was built by the BB in ELA.

Among the most important events in which the BB participated were the annual marches from 1969 to 1970 that were joined by the Chicano Moratorium Committee to protest the deaths of Chicano soldiers in the Vietnam War (1954–1975). Late 1972 marked the end of the BB, when they disbanded as a result of police harassment.

3.4.3. East Los Angeles walkouts

Due to the suffering of Hispanics from racial segregation in education, they rose up against it through ELA Walkouts. These marches were “Social protest in March 1968 in which thousands of Mexican American high-school students walked out of classes in Los Angeles, protesting inequality in the public education system” (Tikkanen, n.d.). In other words, it was a strike by Mexican American high school students over inequality.

In light of the conditions that Chicanos lived in during the fifties and sixties of the nineteenth century, their children also suffered from the discriminatory system in education. Chicano schools were in a miserable condition, ill-equipped, and without facilities, to the point that their classrooms were overcrowded. As well, the educational system was in disarray with the employment of incompetent teachers, which resulted in large school dropouts due to students receiving vocational training lessons instead of academic teaching.

Therefore, the current circumstances that Chicanos students were living in led the Mexican American professor Sal Castro to assume the responsibility of educating these students and teaching them about their culture and history by giving lessons on Mexican and Mexican American history and culture.

As a result of the Chicano students' awareness campaign, their demands for equality began to emerge, but they were ignored by school administrators. This neglect led to the planning of a strike in ELA on March 6, 1968, by Professor Sal Castro, with the help of former students. They also put forth a set of demands, demanding the need to teach Mexican American culture and history and bilingual education, in addition to providing job positions for Hispanic teachers and administrators.

On March 1, Wilson High School students went on a sudden strike which was not planned. It was organized due the cancellation of a play. Then, Garfield High School witnessed a strike organized by 2,000 students. During the rest of the week, between 15,000 and 20,000 students from seven schools joined the strikes, with the support of parents and other segments of society.

A committee was formed on March 11. It included a group of students, teachers, parents, community members, and activists. This committee was called the Educational Issues Coordinating Committee (EICC), with the aim of meeting the LA Board of Education. This took place on March 28, where a set of demands presented by the EICC were discussed in order to improve school facilities and curricula in Chicano schools; however, they were rejected by the council under the pretext of a lack of funds.

Finally, Professor Castro, along with 12 other strike leaders, were arrested by the police on March 31, but they were released on bail on June 2, and Castro returned to his job after he was fired.

3.4.4. The Chicano Moratorium

The American-Vietnamese War, which claimed the lives of many Hispanics, prompted the organization of a peaceful march to stop the war.

About 20,000 Hispanics, including well-known Chicano politicians and artists, gathered in Laguna Park in LA on August 29, 1970, in what was known as the Chicano Moratorium, a peaceful demonstration aimed at stopping the Vietnam War.

Despite the peacefulness of those gathered, the fear of looting and vandalism led to the intervention of the police, who in turn met their peacefulness with violence, dispersing them using tear gas and arresting many of them, which sparked riots in LA.

Among the tragedies of this march was the killing of one of the most prominent activist voices, journalist Ruben Salazar, as the police were accused of intentionally killing him because of his status among the Chicanos. The CM suffered a painful blow because of repression and the killing of Ruben Salazar, but it continued to be active for racial equality and civil rights.

Conclusion

The period of the civil rights movements during the fifties, sixties, and seventies of the last century was a prominent period in the lives of the various ethnic minorities in the USA in terms of their struggle against all forms of exclusion and discrimination through organizing a range of events and groups in order to obtain their full citizenship rights. As a result, they achieved what they wanted the federal government to do; however, they still face some kinds of exclusion and racism, including violent treatment.

General Conclusion

This research is one of the studies that are interested in the issue of race and citizenship in the United States of America by examining the experiences of different racial minorities. Throughout the thesis, a comprehensive overview of the two concepts of race and citizenship and their relationship are provided, along with a historical background of different ethnic minorities. As they were defined, who were they? How did they come to the United States? And how did they live before and during the twentieth century?

During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, different minorities faced many kinds of discrimination and racism. They were subjected to several exclusion acts that deprived them of their basic citizenship rights, including education, voting, and accessibility to public facilities. These maltreatments against non-white people were through racist laws legislated by even the states or the federal government.

However, groups of various ethnic minorities with different names emerged during the civil rights movements. They took the responsibility to stand up and fight against all the racist and discriminatory treatments. Certainly, the leaders and the various groups of the civil rights movements faced many kinds of abuse, like arrest, violence, and even killing. Despite all the obstacles, the civil rights movements were able to bring about major social changes, as their success forced the federal government to legislate laws guaranteeing civil rights to various ethnic minorities.

The findings of the current study confirmed the following hypothesis: that the different racial minorities were deprived of their civil rights as they were excluded from job opportunities, housing, and education. In addition, the research outputs validated that the federal government played a key role in the exposure of colored people to marginalization and discrimination through the legislation of different racist laws, such as Jim Crow laws and the Internment of Japanese Americans during the Second World War. They also approved the hypothesis that the civil rights movement succeeded in obtaining their citizenship rights through their fighting against all kinds of racism and exclusion.

The present study contributed to providing a definition and explanation of the terms race and citizenship and their relationship concerning their influence and impact on ethnic minorities through a historical study of their conditions in American society, which depicted all the injustices and mistreatment with which non-whites were treated. Unlike other works, this

one dealt with and focused on explaining the racist actions and laws of the federal government to control the dominance of whites only.

Nevertheless, this research focused on the conditions of minorities in the United States over a specific period of time, as racist acts and exclusion have continued until the present century. It also dealt with specific minorities only, as other minorities in the United States also suffered and experienced the same harassment. In addition, the research relied primarily on qualitative research and historical analysis, and the lack of sources was a reason for not being more comprehensive.

To further advance knowledge, future studies can focus on the conditions of various ethnic minorities during the twenty-first century. For instance, Arab and Muslim minorities can be taken as a case study due to the spread of Islamophobia in the United States of America. In addition, it is possible to examine the cases of European immigrants in the United States. Further studies can also discuss the relationship between different minorities.

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Appendices

Appendix A:

The Emancipation Proclamation by the President of the United States of America,
Abraham LINCOLN.

By the President of the United States of America:

A Proclamation.

Whereas, on the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit:

“That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

“That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof, respectively, shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be, in good faith, represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States.”

Now, therefore I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief, of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in

accordance with my purpose so to do publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days, from the day first above mentioned, order and designate as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, (except the Parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James Ascension, Assumption, Terrebonne, Lafourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the City of New Orleans) Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia, (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth[]), and which excepted parts, are for the present, left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and henceforward shall be free; and that the Executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known, that such persons of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty three, and of the Independence of the United States of America the eighty-seventh.

By the President: ABRAHAM LINCOLN

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

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Appendix B:

A map of the division of the United States of America during the Civil War.



Source: Retrieved from National Park Service

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Appendix C:

A picture of a Japanese internment center during World War II.



Source: Retrieved from Encyclopedia Britannica.

<https://www.britannica.com/event/Japanese-American-internment>

The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica. (2018). Japanese American internment | History & Facts. In Encyclopædia Britannica.

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Appendix D:

A picture of an Indian boarding school in Oklahoma as a part of the assimilation of indigenous children. Retrieved from Encyclopedia Britannica.



Source: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Native-American/Assimilation-versus-sovereignty-the-late-19th-to-the-late-20th-century>

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<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Native-American/Assimilation-versus-sovereignty-the-late-19th-to-the-late-20th-century>

Appendix E:

A picture of Asian American women participating in the Garment Workers Strike in 1982.



Source: Retrieved from .Nbc News. <https://www.nbcnews.com/news/asian-america/40-years-later-labor-leaders-remember-nyc-chinatowns-garment-worker-st-rcna25469>

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Appendix F:

A picture of Chicano movement activity.



Source : Retrieved from Encyclopedia Britannica
[.https://www.britannica.com/topic/Chicano](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Chicano)

Gallardo, M. E. (2017). *Chicano*. In Encyclopædia Britannica.
<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Chicano>

Appendix G:

A picture of one of the leaders of the Civil Rights Movement, Martin Luther King, while giving his famous speech, “I Have a Dream”.



Source: Retrieved from Center for American Progress.

<https://www.americanprogress.org/article/the-march-on-washington-looking-back-on-50-years/>

The March on Washington: Looking Back on 50 Years. (n.d.). Center for American Progress. <https://www.americanprogress.org/article/the-march-on-washington-looking-back-on-50-years/>

Appendix H:

A picture of the theatrical character named Jim Crow.



Source: Retrieved from Jim Crow Museum.

<https://jimcrowmuseum.ferris.edu/who/index.htm>

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Appendix I:

A picture that expresses racial discrimination within the framework of Jim Crow laws framework.



Soucre: Retrieved from Encyclopedia Britannica. <https://www.britannica.com/event/Jim-Crow-law>

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Appendix J:

An image of the Bureau of Indian Affairs occupation by members of the American Indian Movement.



Source: Retrieved from National Park Service

<https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/trail-of-broken-treaties.htm>

The Trail of Broken Treaties, 1972 (U.S. National Park Service). (2023, March 17). National Park Service. <https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/trail-of-broken-treaties.htm>