

The summer of 1968 was relatively a "cool" one so far as urban riots were concerned. In the preceding April the slaying of Dr. Martin Luther King had touched off the second worst month of rioting in recent years, but during the summer the number of major urban disorders was down sharply from the disruptive summer of 1967. The most ominous racial disorder of the summer (began

RADICAL BLACK MILITANCY .

Chapter

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on the evening of July 23, 1968, when a full-scale gun battle broke out between Cleveland police and black snipers An hour and a half later five people lay dead and 17 others were wounded. Most of the casualties were policemen. The central figures in the outbreak were Fred Ahmed Evans and his militant group, the Black Nationalists of New Libya.

In September, following the conviction of Huey P. Newton minister of defense of the Black Panther party, for manslaughter in the fatal shooting of a white policeman, the Oakland police reportedly fired into the Black Panther headquarters with rifles and shotguns.

In October, prison sentences were imposed on two alleged members of the Black Revolutionary Action movement for conspiring to murder civil rights leaders Boy Wilkins and Whitney Young, Jr.

Jengs rating) incidents of)(flowed up sporadically . Similar (Mough less spectromation weeker ween blacks and police throughout the rest of 1968, 2 and in 1969A Throughout the winter and on into the spring of 1969 violent-clashe/s-between black extremists and police continued, and violence by black students spread from San Francisco State College to campuses across the nation. \mathcal{A}) The Report of the Kerner Commission, published in April of 1968, concerned itself primarily with the phenomenon of more recent urban rioting. Developments in our racially troubled make ve_made, it necessary that, this nation since that time Commission, consider a different though related phenomenon: the lincreasing number of "radical black militants" who actively espouse and sometimes practice illegal retaliatory violence and even guerrilla warfare tactics against the existing social order particularly the police and the schools. This new kind of tobuce is potentially even more descructure than the riots to have been . spread of redical black instrancy Timby and we shall be effective only if we understand the close the first when it is we are dealing with. This chapter of our Repear is indeed to confude to such an should be should be sure house house to al thank with sale williaways is, by tracing its courses, and by outliving the principles which should govern the malion's response to this thread.

1. Radical Black Militancy

Radical black militants, who embrace retaliatory violence and guerrilla warfare tactics, are part of a larger militant movement within the rising generation of young black activists.

The history of black protest in America is the history of the temporary decline, fall, and resurgence of almost every conceivable means of achieving black well-being and dignity. Today the focus of attention is "black militancy" - a phrase with many meanings, some of which we shall examine in this chapter of our Report. But black militancy is not a new phenomenon. Negroes in America have allows engaged in militant action. The first permanent black settlers on the American mainland, brought by the Spanish explorer Ineas Vasquez de Ayllon in 1526, rose up during the same year, killed a number of whites, and fled to the Indians.

In the nearly 450 years that have passed since that time, black protest has never been altogether dormant in America, and militant blacks have continuously experimented with a wide variety of tactics, ideologies, and goals: insurrection and riot, passive resistance and non-violence, legal action and political organization, separatism and integration -- all these and many others have been tried in every period of our history. No simple linear or evolutionary explanation covers the complexity of those developments: in the larger perspective of American history there has been no constant historical trend of black protest from non-violence to violence.

Black protest in America today is similarly complex. Despite the public attention which acts of violent protest always seem to attract, the use of legal argument and of the ballot is far from dead in the contemporary black protest movement. Many black leaders are working quietly but effectively "within the system" toward the same basic goals -black well-being and dignity -- as those who have adopted more militant tactics. Inevitably, a report of the Communication on Volume Marker will concern itself primarily with the violent aspects of current black protest, but this emphasis should not be permitted to obscure the multi-faceted character of Negro leadership today.

This same point must be made even more emphatically with regard to that part of the larger black protest movement which MUU is called "black militancy." Black militancy is a complex, <u>and vidence is only one part of dis</u> many-dimensioned phenomenon, Three major themes stand out in contemporary black militancy:

-- cultural autonomy and the rejection

-- political autonomy and community control;

-- "self-defense" and the rejection of

non-violence.

Each of these three themes is a cluster of ideas, values and activities which are shared in widely varying degrees and combinations by different groups and individuals.

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Those whom we call "radical black militants" are persons who embrace notions of "self-defense" which include illegal retaliatory violence and even guerrilla warfare tactics. These radicals generally share ideas of black cultural and political autonomy with other militants who do not espouse violence in excess of the legal right of self-defense. As black militancy is a part of the larger murs black protest movement and can only be understood as such, ,only so the radicals are one wing of, one group within, militant

black protest. Before focusions on Tosse the violence of the radical black militant in Tosse the violence of the radical black militant perspective, then, we must first examine the values which which dence quilled you have a solution of the values of he shares with other, black militants authors commitment to

black cultural and political autonomy.

Cultural autonomy pha dejection of white values. The

movement toward black cultural autonomy and rejection of white both DILLO values mixes indigenous and international influences. Looking country, and outward at what is seen as American "neocolonialism," werearisely tradium volues of Ownerson werearies black militants there question the cultural bases of American backward at the long history of white domination in this

- The historical expenses of the black man in this wouldry the

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has made rejection of that culture less difficult

for the black militants. James Baldwin observes:

The American Negro has the great advantage of having never believed that collection of myths to which white Americans cling; that their ancestors were all freedom-loving heroes, that they were born in the greatest country the world has ever seen, or that Americans are invincible in battle and wise in peace, that Americans have always dealt honorably with Mexicans and Indians and all other neighbors and inferiors, that American men are the world's most direct and virile, that American women are pure.

From the Nego perspecture, the performance of This country under the dominance of wertain alknal values has been less impressive than it seems in white perspective, and > - militant blacks are now

looking to their own cultural heritage as a source of affirmation of a different set of values. \rightarrow

Supported by the revival of awareness of African history and culture, militant blacks have grown more and more impatient with what is seen as the attempt of American institutions such as the schools and mass media to enforce white cultural standards which either ignore or deprecate the independent cultural heritage of Afro-Americans. The SNCC position paper proclaims: Political autonomy and the reseation of traditional (S) politics. Contemporary black militancy is oriented strongly to the idea of black community control and the the development

The systematic destruction of our links to Africa, the cultural cut-off of blacks in this country from blacks in Africa are not situations that conscious black people in this country are willing to accept. Nor are conscious black people in this country willing to accept an educational system that teaches all aspects of Western Civilization and dismisses our Afro-American contribution . . and deals with Africa not at all. Black people are not willing to align themselves with a Western culture that daily emasculates our beauty, our pride and our manhood.

He Afro-American His addition to demanding recognition of a rich (cultural abs actache what are new as heritage, militant blacks resent the policy implications

of the rejection of that heritage by whites. A thought to have produced to result of the denial of black culture has been an entire

set of political and social conceptions centoring around the nilicons thus reject (it is a time the marked , for example, the for the political deprivation": (black children to said)

fail in schools because they come from a "cultureless", Nother them community, not because the schools do not teach. Central to

this perspective is the ideology of American public welfare,

with its commitment to raising the moral standards of the (by the milicours) poor and its matter intrusions into the family arrangements

of ghetto blacks, The drive toward cultural autonomy,

therefore, is in part a rejection of the cultural vacuum of

sd-called "welfare colonialism", into which parts of the

black community have been thrown

Political autonomy and the rejection traditional ics. Contemporary black militancy is oriented strongly to the idea of black community control and the development of independent black political bases and a black political the effort to overcome black party, The movement of thack militants toward a concern fronter powerlessness while as the same time largely rejecting a result of several influences. The failure of manual procession of the several influences. traditional politics to play a sufficiently effective port of block laders con exercise power on behalf of their constructions in the drive for black dignity and woll-boing. A recent means by which a recent study of Chicago publics, vor stam showed that Of a total of 1,088 policy-making positions in federal, state and local government in Cook County, only fifty-eight, or five percent, were held by Negroes in 1965, although blacks comprised at least twenty percent of the country's population. Naturnide, the total number of black AN RESON Xo besele كدو Ь berel 520,000 the .02 * Hours Haeles are e the lach that of the cuder 12 cons on NOP responsive more UR S may asperations to Hack hereboel owever: in the Voring Rights ack were into the when 19405 Koraxa alles Hore were but 72 about Hack لصفك Q officials in the eleven Southern states the

(1 1 more than 1968 elections that number had increased to 388. Another major factor influencing the thrust for black political autonomy is the fact that residential segregation has created the conditions for effective black political organization. Residential segregation has meant that, in the black belt South as well as the urban North and West, blacks occupy whole districts en bloc. With the growing the central cities, and the corresponding more and more executes of whites to the suburbs, larger and larger of the inner cities are developing black majorities: in the next fifteen years the number of major cities with Nego mojorities will rise from three to Huisen , and matthe patter and months the a third factor in the the drive toward Hack rongener benegrahe est i landros plices Hrox control over the centers of decision-making means control over the things about which This includes, of course, such traditional decisions are made, civil_rights issues as housing, employment, and education, as well as newer focal points of black protest like the police and the welfare apparatus. Black power like stokety, Charles Charles Herrichs buch on Connectical and Hannelon believe that such control can be achieved only Huough independent black publical organizations:

1 Before a group can enter the open society, it must first close ranks. By this we mean that group solidarity is necessary before a group can operate effectively from a bargaining position of strength in a pluralistic society. Traditionally, each new ethnic group in this society has found the route to social and political viability through the organization of its own institutions with which to represent its needs within the larger society. society.

Going beyond disenchantment with non-violence, and beyond the exercise of legal rights of self-defense, radical black militants now espouse and practice violence as a legitimate response to what are perceived as instances of illegitimate oppression by a racist society.

The third major theme in contemporary black militancy is self-defense and the rejection of non-violence. of the 1950's and the self-The civil rights movement, under the leadership of

Martin Luther King, and the sit-ins and Freedom-rides-of the

1960's stressed non-violence and what some called "passive But wil reguls workers in the South nometimes resistance."

Jound that they could not depend your local or even federal officials for potection against troient actocles by the Ku Klux Klan and other while terrorist groups. Local police and shuriffs welfare of rights workers, and at where active particimants in total terrorist groups. Os a result of number of curl nights activities and their local allies began to any themselves, and local defense groups spreng up in several plack communicats in the South. as a nule, there groups shill fourord nor-vidence as a civil nights tack for full fourord hor is could be effective only when the demonstrators are proceeded from tradict only when the demonstrators

Or this time the focus of black protest becan to ship to the quettoes of the Worth, and expanded motions of relf - defeure woon anose After the Watts riot of 1965, local Negroes formed a Community Action Patrol

to monitor police conduct during arrests. In 1966, a small group of Oakland blacks carried the process a little further by instituting armed patrols. From a small group organized on an ad hoc basis and oriented to the single issue of police control, the Black Panther Party for Self-Defense has grown into a national organization with a ten-point program for achieving

political, social and economic goals. In the process, they have condensed the name to the Black Panther Party, but the idea of self-defense remains basic. Huey Newton, the Party's Minister of Defense, has said in an interview with our staff: "The Panther never attacks first, but when he is

backed into a corner, he will strike back viciously."

The confrontation between radical black militants and some elements of the police has gone beyond any legal concept mile in some coses of self-defense and has become a bloody feud verging on open warfare Although aggressive attacks of this kind obviously excued far transcend any lawful concept of self-defense, black radicals nonetheless believe them to be legitimate and to fall within "self-defense" when that concept is properly understood. As a militant leader argues, "We have been assaulted by our environment." This "assault" is considered to neutralize restraints against the use of counter-violence, which is seen by the radicals not as aggression but still as "defensive" retaliation. A Seattle Panther recently stated: "You see, we've been backed into a corner for the last 400 years, so anything we do now is defensive."

by black redicals on the police

Aparticularly vivid example of How easily violence

against police and other symbols of authority can be perceived

as legitimate by radical black militants was provided in the horogets secure of testimony before this Commission by a ^gmoderate^g Negro

leader:

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For you see, Mr. Chairman, what most people refer to as violence in the ghetto, I refer to as self defense against the violence perpetrated on the ghetto. Dr. King's widow has put it well: "In this society," she said on Solidarity Day, "violence against poor people and minority groups is routine."

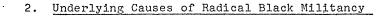
I must remind you that starving a child is violence. Suppressing a culture is violence. Neglecting school children is violence. Punishing a mother and her child is violence. Discriminating against a working man is violence. Contempt for poverty is violence. Even the lack of will power to help humanity is a sick and sinister form of violence.

The people of the ghetto, Mr. Chairman, react to this violence in self defense. Their self defense is becoming more violent because the aggressor is becoming more violent.

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How has it come about that substantial numbers of black people in this country, especially among the black youth, see the government and the white majority as an "aggressor"? What are the root causes of radical black militancy and its readiness to use violence? How can a sense of the legitimacy of American institutions be developed in these hostile, alienated members of the Negro community? These are the questions we must now try to answer.



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The Kerner Commission found that the underlying cause of urban rioting by Negroes is the enduring structure of racial attitudes and behavior by white Americans toward black Americans: properly understood, the same cause ultimately underlies the phenomenon of radical black militancy.

In March of 1968 the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders filed its historic Report at the end of a comprehensive investigation into the causes and prevention of the urban riots which have plagued this country in the 1960's. The Commission found that the causes of the rioting were "imbedded in a massive tangle of issues and circumstances social, economic, political, and psychological - which arise out of the historical pattern of Negro-white relations in America." The most fundamental strand in that tangle, said the Commission, is "the racial attitude and behavior of white Americans toward black Americans."

White racial attitudes, the Commission found, are essentially responsible for the "explosive mixture" in our cities that has recently erupted into large-scale rioting. Three main ingredients of the mixture were identified:

1. Great numbers of Negroes have been excluded from the benefits of economic progress through discrimination in employment and education and their enforced confinement in segregated housing and schools.

2. The massive and growing concentration of impoverished Negroes in our major urban areas has greatly increased the burden on the already depleted resources of the cities and created a growing crisis of deteriorating facilities and services and unmet human needs.

3. In the teeming racial ghettos, segregation and poverty have intersected to destroy opportunity and hope, to enforce failure, and to create bitterness and resentment against society in general and white society in particular.

The Commission found that other factors catalyzed the mixture, factors such as the frustrated hopes aroused by the successes of the civil rights movement; the climate of encouragement of violence arising out of white terrorism and violent black protest and rhetoric; and the frustrations of black political powerlessness and alienation from institutions of government and law. Thus catalyzed, relatively minor racial incidents -- frequently involving the police -- are sufficient to spark the mixture into an explosion of violence.

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We find no reason to disagree with this analysis. No witness appearing before this Commission has disputed it. Our investigation of the Miami disorders of last August reached the same conclusions as to that particular instance of rioting. The research studies of our Task Forces have all yielded results consistent with the Kerner Commission's analysis, and our NVC Survey has in fact provided a striking confirmation of one essential feature of that analysis: we found that in response to a series of questions concerning segregation and integration, white Americans remain far less committed than black Americans to the goal of a fully integrated society.

Far from disagreeing with the Kerner Commission's analysis of the causes of urban riots, we conclude that the analysis is largely applicable to the phenomenon of radical black militancy. We find that radical black militancy, like the urban riots, is ultimately a response to conditions created by racial attitudes and behavior that have widely prevailed among the white majority since the days of slavery. Having said this we must immediately add three essential qualifications, absent which our finding might be misunderstood:

-- First, to say that the violence of contemporary radical black militancy is a response to an historical pattern of white racial attitudes is not to say that it is a justified response. It is not, and we condemn it unequivocally.

-- Second, in speaking of white racial attitudes, we are not referring primarily to the personal relationships which today exist between individual white and black Americans; rather we particularly mean the enduring institutional and ideological legacy of white supremacy and Negro inferiority, which our tragic racial history has bequeathed to contemporary America.

-- Third, to identify white racial attitudes as the ultimate cause of radical black militancy is not to deny the existence of other, more proximite causes, without which this phenomenon would not have emerged. As we shall show, there are several other levels of causation which cannot be ignored. All of these, however, operate in the matrix of our dominantly white society and its customs and institutions; it is to this matrix that we refer when we speak of white racial attitudes.

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The first of these three points needs no elaboration: as our whole Report should make abundantly clear, we agree with the Kerner Commission that "violence cannot build a better society." Elaboration of the third point will occupy much of the rest of this chapter. Before turning to the precipitating causes of the rise of radical black militancy, however, we wish to amplify our second point by exposing at some length the historical roots of contemporary institutional and ideological "white racism."

> The "white racism" of contemporary America is not primarily a matter of personal relationships between individuals; rather, it is a social condition whose roots are to be found in the institution of slavery, the aftermath of its destruction, and the rise of the urban ghetto.

The reaction of many white Americans to the Kerner Commission Report was to deny angrily that they were "racists," to point to friendships with individual Negroes, and to ask if the Commission thought that it was "white racists" who were doing all the rioting. This response misconceives both the basic thrust of the Kerner Commission Report and the true nature of "white racism". That rather incendiary phrase should be understood as a short-hand designation for a complex social condition whose source is to be found only in the whole history of race relations in this country.

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This history has three major phases, which we now trace: slavery, segregation and the ghetto.

The Institution of Slavery. Slavery was established in the New World almost immediately after its discovery. For the blacks who were subjected to slavery, the existing social systems of West Africa were interrupted, and new, traumatic ones were imposed. Tribal institutions and customs which prepared blacks to meet their needs and cope as adults in African societies were no longer useful or possible. A new kind of socialization was necessary in order to develop --not an adequate, competent participant in adult society --but rather a subhuman, dependent creature fully subservient to the master's needs.

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Dut it was always destructive of normal individual development. Even humane treatment was shaped by the need to establish and maintain the unnatural master-slave relationship. An ex-slave from Louisiana said: "Marse always say being mean to the young-uns make them mean when they grows up and nobody gwine to buy a mean nigger."

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Children born into the slave system were prepared from birth for a life of subservience. Nurture and pyhsical care came from an adult -- not in the interest of a family, kinship group or tribe -- but in the interest of the master. Children were not destined to become elders, chiefs, warriors, or traders and to hold positions of respect and status within unnohual the tribe. Instead they were to become slaves, no doubt this is the reason why so many adult slaves cared so little for children -- a fact which confounded slave owners and observers.

The adult slave was without power and without security. His legal status was that of a piece of property, without rights in court and without the protection of any institution. Completely subject to their masters' control, dispersed throughout a larger white culture, and unable to maintain the institutions of their previous societies (kinship ties, family organization, religion, government, courts, etc.), slaves were generally unable to run away en masse, to organize effective large-scale attacks against their oppressors, or even to turn inward on their own culture for psychological support.

Some slaves were able to run away to the Indians, to Canada or to "freedom" in the North. Most could not, however, but had instead to find ways of adjusting to the slavery environment. Some led a passive-aggressive existence in relationship to the white master -- working as little as they could without being punished, feigning illness, sabotaging property and generally provoking the master. Some participated in the more than 250 small, relatively unorganized occasionally

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insurrections that occurred_during the slavery years. Others internalized their aggressions and engaged in self-destructive behavior and in violent acts against other blacks. Some found in Christianity a relationship to God and a place in a spiritual kingdom that enabled them to endure the sufferings of their life in this world. Still others adopted a life style which tried to copy, to the extent possible, the style of the white master. Common to all these adaptations, and shaping the form they took, was the overriding fact of the slave system.

The impact of slavery on white society was no less profound. Because of the function profound belief that "all finds its most perfect expression in the Peeteration of the life degrad of the function of the life and the perfect expression in the peeteration of independence, whites could not rationalize the slave system simply only on the basis of adjeconomic need for manpower. If slavery was to be justified, it was necessary to believe that the Negro was inherently inferior, that he belonged to a lower order of man, that slavery was right on scientific and social, as well as economic, grounds. A large body of literature came into existence to prove these beliefs and the corollary belief in the natural superiority and supremacy of the white race. The ideology of white superiority and black inferiority was reinforced both by the destructive impact of slavery upon Negroes generally and by the institutional and cultural denial of individual Negro accomplishments in the face of overwhelming obstacles. For more than two centuries the institution of slavery studiously wove the strand of racism deep into the fabric of American life.

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It is thus not surprising that the conditions of life in the United States were hardly better for free Negroes than for slaves. Some free Negroes achieved material success, or head which is achieved material success, or head which is achieved material success, some even owned slaves themselves, but the vast majority knew only poverty and rejection by white society. Forbidden to settle in some areas, segregated in others, they were targets of prejudice and discrimination. In the South, they were denied freedom of movement, severely restricted in their choice of occupation, forbidden to associate with whites or with slaves, and in constant fear of being enslaved. In both North and South they were regularly the victims of mobs. In 1829, for example, white residents invaded Cincinnati's "Little Africa," killed Negroes, burned their property, and ultimately drove half the black population from the city.

The Aftermath of Slavery. The violence of the Civil War tore the nation apart and succeeded in destroying the institution of slavery_____But the War proved incapable of rooting out the deeper structure of racism upon which slavery rested: that had

> (Long after France (1794) and England (1833) had abourhed is in their oversees possessions in the New World.

been built up over too long a time and was too firmly embedded in American society, North as well as South. Indeed, as we have said, racism had become an integral part of the black man's experience in America: the large number of Negroes who could not or would not leave the plantation after slavery indicates the degree to which blacks had been absorbed into the master-slave relationship.

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After stavery, blacks were quickly, and often

violently, closed out of the economic, political, and educational mainstream of American life. The program of <u>Codecol Computational</u> Federal Reconstruction failed, for a variety of reasons, to provide blacks with a solid economic, political or social base and consequently failed as an adjustment tool. None of the organizational structures of the African culture remained to provide a basis for group stability and direction. Only remnants of previous African life-styles remained, greatly modified by the American experience and of little value in promoting adjustment in the post-slavery period. As a result of factors such as these, Negroes remained economically, socially and psychologically dependent on whites who retained almost complete control.

In some respects the condition of the Negro worsened after the War. Under the segregation system which rapidly a power of <u>decisions allowing</u> developed (and which was ratified by the Supreme Court in the "repainte but equal" docknine embraced by the Court in 1896), control and authority over blacks were extended to all whites, most of whom were economically vulnerable and more in need of a psychological scapegoat than the wealthier slave-owning class. Whites outside the planter caste were more likely to act in an unjust, violent fashion toward blacks.

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The first Ku Klux Klan, arising in 1865 and lasting until 1876, was a principal means of keeping the Negro in his place in the early post-War period. The Klan helped overthrow the Reconstruction governments of North Carolina, Tennessee, and Georgia, and was responsible, according to the findings of a Congressional investigation in 1871, for hangings, shootings, whippings, and mutilations numbering in the thousands. The commanding general of federal troops in Texas reported: "Murders of Negroes are so common as to

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render it impossible to keep accurate accounts of them." to power in virtually eliminated from the political life of the South. Still denied the opportunity for personal achievement and the resultant sense of adequacy and security which achievement brings, blacks made various adaptations to meet adequacy and security needs in a society in which they were now "free" but still rejected and abused. Religion was embraced more firmly. Many informal and formal Afro-American

4 ousiones, which

mutual support organizations developed after slavery, reflecting the need for black sharing and mutual support in a hostile society. Some blacks continued as employees of their former masters and in many cases identified strongly with whites. Some wandered about, disorganized and hopeless.

Under the violence of the segregation system black dudawe, parents had to teach their children to avoid aggressive lifestyles which might lead to disastrous conflicts with whites. Such socialization, similar to that under slavery, naturally led to the diminution or destruction of the capacity for incorrectly for incorrectly socialized, exploration, learning and work in many Negroes. Zome blacks were largely pleasure-oriented, responding to inadequately controlled sexual and aggressive drives by behavior that often resulted in violence and in conflict with the larger society. Such behavior was not viewed by whites as the natural product of a society which had failed to create the conditions for adequate social and psychological development among many blacks --- instead it was viewed simply as "the way niggers are."

The Rise of the Urban Ghetto. In 1910, 91 per cent of the country's 9.8 million Negroes still lived in the South. During World War I large-scale movement of Negroes out of the rural South was stimulated when the industrial demands of the war created new jobs for unskilled workers in the North, while floods and boll weevils hurt farming in the South. The

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Depression temporarily slowed this migratory flow, but World War II set it in motion again. The migration proceeded along three major routes: north along the Atlantic Seaboard toward Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston; north from Mississippi to St. Louis, Chicago, Detroit, Milwaukee; west from Texas and Louisiana toward Los Angeles and San Francisco. While the total Negro population more than doubled from 1910 to 1966 (from 9.8 million to 21.5 million), the number living outside the South rose elevenfold (from 0.9 million to 9.7 million) and the number living in cities rose more than fivefold (from 2.7 million to 14.8 million).

The early pattern of Negro settlement within the Northern cities followed that of other immigrants: they converged on the older sections of the central-city because the lowest-cost housing was located there, because friends and relatives were likely to be living there, and because the older neighborhoods then often had good public transportation. Unlike other immigrants, however, the Negro remained -- and remains today -- largely confined in the original ghetto -still the prisoner of the American racial heritage.

In the light of our whole racial history, should we be . surprised that, for the Negro, the great cities of the North

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have not been ports of entry into the mainstream of American life? Can we fail to see that the black ghetto is ultimately the product of slavery and segregation, that it is but the third great phase of the black man's bondage in America? The Report of the Kerner Commission has exhaustively described the conditions of the black ghetto and the manner of its formation. For our purposes we need only to illustrate a few of the many continuities which exist between life in the ghetto and the black experience under slaverysegregation.

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-- Race riots and violent racial conflict were a hallmark of the early twentieth century Negro experience in northern cities, the Negroes invariably suffering most of the violence. In East St. Louis, Illinois, a riot which claimed the lives of 39 Negroes and 9 whites erupted in 1917 against a background of fear by white workingmen that Negro labor was threatening their jobs. Other major riots by whites against blacks took place in 1917 in Chester, Pa., and Philadelphia. In 1919 there were riots in Washington, (D. C.) Omaha, Charleston, Longview, (Texas), Knoxville and Chicago. In Chicago between July 1917 and March 1921, 58 Negro houses were bombed, and recreational and residential areas were frequent sites of violent racial conflict. Negro soldiers returning home from service in World War 1 in segregated combat units were mobbed for attempting to use facilities open to white soldiers.

-- Although many Negro families in the ghettoes attained incomes, living standards and cultural levels matching those of whites who upgraded themselves out of the function of the still most Negro-families remained in predominantly black neighborhoods because they were effectively excluded from white residential areas. Able to escape poverty, they were unable to escape the ghetto --and their confinement rendered their accomplishments less visible to the larger society which continued to embrace old the myth of innate Negro inferiority. More often, however, the pervasive discrimination in employment, education and housing rendered the escape from poverty even within the ghetto all but impossible.

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-- Many ghetto blacks responded to their condition of oppression with self-hatred and low self-esteem. These traits in turn gave rise to passive, self-destructive modes of behavior such as excessive use of alcohol and narcotics, violent assault on a friend over a dime or a bottle of wine, poor impulse control generally, low aspiration levels, and high rates of family conflict. Another destructive pattern begun under slavery continued under conditions of unemployment in the urban ghetto: the Negro male often played only a marginal role in his family and found few cultural or psychological rewards in family life. Often the Negro father abandoned his home because he felt useless to his family, the absence of the father then condemning the sons to repeat the pattern.

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3. Direct Causes of Radical Black Militancy

To say that an enduring structure of white racial attitudes and behavior is ultimately responsible for the phenomenon of radical black militancy is only to identify a picocontanter first cause, an underlying matrix. We must now look to more direct causes in order to understand why radical black militancy has emerged at this particular point in our history.

Our study has identified four such direct causes, each inextricably interwoven with all the others and with the underlying social matrix created by slavery, segregation and the ghetto. These causes are of different kinds and operate in different ways:

(1) contemporary-historical: the dealine of the civil rights movement;

(2) ideological: the rise of an "anti-colonial" dogma ;

perspective; (3) economic: the temporary slackening of material

advancement;

(4) psychological: the breaking of the "dependency bond."

In this section we will discuss each of these causes in turn.

Radical black militancy arose out of the frustrations of the civil rights movement and the limitations of that movement as a force for Negro betterment and leadership in the Northern urban ghettoes.

From the decline of Marcus Garvey's separatist philosophy in the 1920's until quite recently, the dominant thrust of black protest was toward political, social, economic and cultural inclusion into American institutions on a basis of full equality. Always a powerful theme in American black militancy, these aims found their maximum expression in the civil rights movement of the 1950's and early 1960's.

For the civil rights movement, the years before 1955 were filled largely with efforts at legal reform, with the NAACP, especially, carrying case after case to successful litigation in the federal courts. There was a considerable gap, however, between the belief of the NAACP and other groups that major political changes were in sight and the reality of the slow pace of change even in the more advanced areas of the South. The gap was even greater between the conservative tactics and middle-class orientation of the established civil-rights organizations and the situation of the black ghetto masses in the North.

Since the NAACP, the Urban League, and other established groups continued to operate as before, new tactics and new leaders arose to fill these gaps. In 1955, Mrs. Rosa Parks

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of Montgomery, Alabama, refused to give up her bus seat to a white man, and a successful boycott of the bus system materialized, led by a local minister, the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr. Around the same time, with less publicity, another kind of organization with another kind of leader-1/t7i ship was coming into its own in the northern ghettos: Elijah Muhammed and the Nation of Islam represented those segments of the black community that no one else, at the seemed to be moment, Was representing -- the northern, urban, lowerclasses. It was this derende sect which would produce the man who was destined to rise from a petty criminal to a "black shining prince" and who would far overshadow Dr. King in influence among the new generation of black militants: Malcolm X.

Neither the direct-action, assimilationist approach of King nor the separatist, nationalist approach of the Black Muslims were new. Rather, they were both traditional strategies of black protest which had been adopted in the past in response to specific situations. Direct action was used by the abolitionists prior to the Civil War, by left-wing organizers in the ghetto in the 1930's, and by CORE in the early 1940's. It had been threatened by A. Phillip Randolph in his March on Washington in 1941, but called off when President Roosevelt agreed to establish a Federal Fair Employment Practices Commission. The roots

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of black separatism are equally deep, beyond Marcus Garvey a Howard-educated Negro physician and noveliet to Martin Delaney, and the American Colonization Society who in the NSO's were seen and the American Colonization Society in the eighteenth century, pulsation and support of American in the eighteenth century, pulsation and support of Moster port Negrees to Africa, as considered and the south brought civil for years rights protest out of the courts and into the streets, hus terminals restaurants and voting booths. Nevertheless

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bus terminals, restaurants, and voting booths. Nevertheless, it remained deeply linked to the American political process and represented an innate faith in the protective power of the federal government and in the moral capacity of white Americans, both northern and southern. It operated, for the most part, on the implicit premise that racism was a localized, essentially southern malignancy within a relatively healthy political and social order; it was a move to force American morality and American institutions to cure the last symptoms of the diseased member of the body politic.

Activists in SNCC, CORE and other civil rights organizations met with greater and more violent southern resistence as direct-action continued during the sixties. Freedom Riders were beaten by mobs in Montgomery; demonstrators were hosed, clubbed and cattle-prodded in Birmingham and Selma. In mean were of Throughout the South, civil rights workers, black and white, were victimized by local officials as well as by night-riders and angry crowds. At the same time, the problems of white violence were compounded by

The was the continuing a sine allerne to integration by some iner liguoen Sour Henrichs southern governors such as Faultures Wallace, and the relevillers of there et some nouthern cours and junes, and die pour power ful the repegorionists judicial intransigence and by political constraints on prevenced/ such as the federal government, such that it failed to from moving Sunator decisively toward a radical alteration of the southern Easslowd situation faced by the civil nights activity. At the march on Washington in 1963, John Lewis of ressed ISNCC wolved the growing mood of disenchantment what the government. The simple and harsh fact, made clear in Albany, and reinforced by events in Americus, Georgia, in Selma and Gadsden, Alabama, in Mississippi, is that the federal government abdicated its responsibility in the Black Belt. The Negro citizens of that area were left to the local police. The U.S. Constitution was left in the hands of Neanderthal creatures who cannot read it, and whose only response to it has been to grupt and swing their clubs. Even many moderates, agreed with the Urban League's Whitney federa Young that the government was "reacting rather than acting" in the drive for Negro rights. Activists who had been in the South were inclined to agree with a white observer that the interior government seemed "uncommitted emotionally and ideologically to racial equality as a first-level value. 10 remmer 2 mobernit The "COPO summer project" in Mississippi/in 1964 was a hybrid phenomenon, less of a moral confrontation than

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Birmingham the year before, and more of a new kind of power

(<u>COFO</u>, the Congress of Federated Organizations, play.

loose ad hoc consortium funded by established groups CORE and SCLC, and the Notional Council of Churches, such as the NAACP, and the Urban League, but given its cutting edge by the leaders of SNCC. Masterminded by a SNCC staff disillusioned by white reprisals and violence against earlier voter registration drives, the COFO Project was presented as a massive effort to get voter registration off the ground with the aid of large numbers of vacationing white college students.

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_But COFO's voter registration goal turned out to be a cover for a more ambitious and aggressive SNCC strategy: to provoke massive federal intervention in Mississippi amounting to an occupation and a "second effort at Reconstruction."

Summer

The Mississippi experience was an extraordinary one the more than 2000 from all over the United States. for many of its participants (Three young men were murdered

by a white conspiracy, and many others saw at firsthand racial

the ugly face of southern repression. The Mississippi Project

Summer culminated, not with a second Reconstruction, but

with the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party's failure to hegroes

to get its delegation seated at the 1964 Democratic national (although two at large state were offered and special efforts/bopen state parties convention. This symbolic defeat climaxed a growing dis-illusionment with "white liberals" among young blacks, A next four years) (total States & D

By the middle of the decade, then, many militant Negro members of SNCC and CORE began to turn away from American

society and the "middle-class way of life." Despite the passage of

and perhaps more than any other single event destroyed the faith of civil right's activity of the abolity of the regarine to purge isself of racism.

Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965, they became deeply cynical about the tradition of American liberal reform. They talked more/of "revolutionary" changes in the social structure, and of retaliatory violence, and they increasingly rejected white assistance. They insisted that Negro power alone could compel the white "ruling class" to make concessions. Yet, at this time, they also spoke of an alliance of Negroes and unorganized lowerclass whites to overthrow the "power structure" of capitalists, politicians and bureaucratic labor leaders whom they accused of exploiting the poor of both races while dividing them through an appeal to race prejudice.

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The increased criticism of liberals, white intellectuals, and federal bureaucracies was part of a broader turn to a renewed critique of the situation of blacks in the North. To a large extent, and despite such evidence as the Harlem uprisings of 1935 and 1943, most white northerners had congratulated themselves on the quality of their "treatment" of the Negro vis-a-vis that of the South. But direct action by civil rights leaders in Northern cities, largely in the form of street demonstrations, had failed to make any substantial impact on the problems of separate and inferior schools, slum housing, and police hostility, although it had succeeded in lowering some barriers to Negro employment.

With the explosion of Harlem and several other northern cities in 1964, attention among black activist leaders was drawn sharply to the problem of institutional racism in the North, and this shift of focus was accelerated by the Watts riot the following year. In a real sense, the outbreak of riots not only surprised liberal whites, but most established black civil rights leaders as well. While undermining the moral credibility of liberal northerners as to the nature of the racial situation in the North, the riots also left most civil rights leaders without a vocabulary with which to express the deeper emotions of the northern ghettos. There was ond work hours heares a widespread sense that civil rights leaders either could we not or would not speak to the kinds of issues raised by the riots, and that a wide gulf separated those leaders -max third wind mostly of middle-class background -- from the black urban masses. During the 1964 Harlem riot, for example, Bayard Rustin and other established civil rights leaders were booed and shouted down at rallies and in the streets, while growds shouted for Malcolm X.

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In this setting the rhetoric of "Black Power" developed, and was bought dramaheally to the values's attend on on The precipitating occasion was the Meredith March from Memphis to Jackson in June 1966, but the slogan expressed

tendencies that had been present and gaining strength for

Some time in the Negro community. The slogan emerged when the Negro protest movement was temporarily slowing down when it was finding increasing resistance to its changing coals, when it was discovering that nonviolent direct action was no more a panacea than legal action, when CORE and SNCC were declining in terms of activity, membership and financial support. SNCC replaced its non-violent leader John Lewis with Stokeley Carmichael, and CORE elected Floyd McKissick, who refused to denounce the Watts riot of the previous year. Under Carmichael SNCC formally and deliberathey disassociated itself from the civil. rights movement's traditional commitment to nonviolence and took up a position on the leftward militant fringe.

The strategic innovation of 1967, was the dramatic behavior of Carmichael and Rap Brown. While Brown Kopt the home fires burning with incendiary speeches, Carmichael traveled to Havana, Hanoi and Moscow, incorporating the dogmas of Frantz Fanon, Castroite anti-Americanism and Viet Cong guerrilla precepts ("the enemy of my enemy is my friend") into a popular black revolutionary ideology. The extravagant speeches and behavior of Carmichael and Brown amplified the psychological effect of the 1967 riots

on both blacks and whites, while the riots themselves -and especially the then exaggerated reports of organized urban warfare -- lent credibility to their rhetoric. With the riots, the way way way and the out the out of With the riots, the newer younger and more militant black leaders and organizations emerged to represent the interests of the Northern urban lower-classes, and the older representatives of the civil rights movement were required to redefine their programs and techniques to accommodate these new forms of militancy. The impact of the riots on young Negroes and on established black leaders was graphically depicted in the testimony before this Commission of Sterling Tucker, Director of Field Services of the

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National Urban League:

I was standing with some young, angry men not far from some blazing buildings. They were talking to me about their feelings. They talked out of anger, but they talked with respect.

'Mr. Tucker,' one of them said to me, 'you're a big and important man in this town. You're always in the newspaper and we know that you're fighting hard to bring about some changes in the conditions the brother faces. But who listens, Mr. Tucker, who listens? Why, with one match I can bring about more change tonight than with all the talking you can ever do.'

Now I know that isn't true and you know that isn't true. It just isn't that simple. But the fact that we know that doesn't really count for much. The brother on the street believes what he says, and there are some who are not afraid to die, believing what they say. When black activists came to interpret the urban riots as purposeful rebellions, and to advocate violence as one technique for achieving black dignity and wellbeing, the phenomenon of radical black militancy had become a part of the troubled American racial scene.

> Radical black militancy is strengthened by an anti-colonial ideology which sees the white majority in this country as "an organized imperialist force holding black people in colonial bondage

By the mid-1960's, many militant black leaders had become convinced that the aims and methods of the civil rights movement were no longer viable. The failures of the white majority to meet black expectations, the fact of the urban riots, and the increasing American involvement in Vietnam all served to catalyze a fundamental transformation in militant black perceptions of the place of the Negro in American society. This transformation resulted in what can be called an "anti-colonial ideology", which is aptly expressed by a spokesman of the Black Panther Party as follows:

We start with the basic definition: that black people in America are a colonized people in every sense of the term and that white America is an organized imperialist force holding black people in colonial

Unique when expressed by Malcolm X in 1964, the anti-colonial perspective now provides many militant blacks with a structured world-view -- and, in the case of the radicals, with a rationalization for violence. Many articulate black militant spokesmen now see the final hope of black Americans in identification with the revolutionary struggles of the Third World. Even moderate focus attention on leaders point to the discrepancy between the massive commitment of American resources abroad and the lack of a decisive commitment to end racism at home. Martin Luther King wondered, for example, why "we were taking the black young men who had been crippled by our poverty and sending them 8,000 miles away to guarantee liberties in Southeast Asia which they had not found in Southwest Georgia or East Harlem and he called the United States government "the greatest purveyor of violence in the world today." ("/ In 1965, the McComb branch of the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party issued a leaflet which caught the growing mood of disillusionment and suspicion:

* King, "Beyond Vietnam," Black Protest, p. 419, ed. Joanne Grant (Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Premier, 1968).

No Mississippi Negroes should be fighting in Vietnam for the White Man's freedem, until all the Negro people are free in Mississippi. . . No one has a right to ask us to risk our lives and kill other colored people in Santo Domingo and Vietnam, so that the white American can get richer. . We don't know anything about Communism, Socialism, and all that, but we do know that Negroes have caught hell right here under this American Democracy. 43

Black militants in America have in the past looked to Africa for recognition of common origins and culture, and the influence has been reciprocal. W.E.B. DuBois, one of the founders of the NAACP in 1909-10, saw that the "problem of the color line" was international in scope, and was a guiding force behind the movement for Pan-African unity. Marcus Garvey, founder in 1914 of the Universal Negro Improvement Association, and other American and West Indian black nationalists stimulated the development of African nationalism and informed the intellectual

Today the successful revolt against colonialism in Africa and other non-white regions has created a heightened sense of the international character of Facial conflict and has provided the impetus for the growth of an anti-colonial ideology among American black militants. This ideology may be somewhat artificially divided into two components, the cultural and the political, the latter of which is of far more significance so far as the violent aspects of black

militancy are concerned.

Asian nations in the UN in 1945. Twenty years later there were 36 African and 15 Asian countries represented. Offician and Review Since 1945 The rise of these new states has been closely bound up with an assault on the dominance of Western culture and on what is seen as the cultural and historical dispossession of the nonwhite peoples of the world.

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After the Second World War, African nationalist movements began a process of reconstruction of African history and re-evaluation of African culture which continues today. Much scholarship has been devoted to charting and analyzing the growth of early African civilizations, and affirming their high level of cultural and technological development. The intensity of these efforts at cultural reconstruction efflected the pervasiveness of white colonial stereotypes of natives as being without a history or a culture.

This cultural reconstruction by anti-colonialist movements in Africa has substantially reversed for many black intellectuals in this country the stereotypes which suffused Western thought and dominated the thinking of blacks as well as whites. There has been an enthusiastic reappraisal by American black militants of the potential of nonwhites, and hence of themselves. Malcolm X, a central figure in promoting the international outlook in American black militancy, found the existence of a technological society in Egypt to have an emotional impact: "I believe what most surprised me was that in Cairo, automobiles were being manufactured, and also buses. . . I can't tell you the feeling it gave me. I had never seen a black man flying a jet."

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Politics. The revolt against colonialism has/altered the structure of power in the world, and this fact has demonstrated to black militants in America that peoples supposed to be culturally and technologically "backward" can emerge victorious in struggles with ostensibly superior powers. A It has developed in many militants a conseiousness that, in slobal terms, people who are not white represent the majority. This consciousness is an important part of the development of black militancy in America.

"Two-thirds of the human population today," wrote Malcolm X, "is telling the one-third minority white men, 'Get out.' And the white man is leaving." The recognition that whites are an international minority has changed the meaning for many American black militants of their national minority position and given them a new sense of power. Malcolm X emphasized this point repeatedly: "There are whites in this country who are still complacent when they see the possibilities of racial strife getting out of hand. You are complacent simply because you think you outnumber the racial minority in this country; what you have to bear in mind is wherein you might outnumber us in this country, you don't outnumber us all over the earth."

Beyond the question of mere numbers, the political and technological achievements of nonwhite countries produce a sense of pride and optimism: "For the Negro in particular, it has been a stirring experience to see whole societies and political systems come into existence in which from top to bottom . . . all posts are occupied by black men, not because of the sufferance of white superiors but because it is their sovereign right."" With the disintegration of white rule in Africa and the rise of autonomous black nations, political autonomy for Negroes in America -- ranging from traditional democratic concepts of community control to notions of geographic separatism -has received a new impetus and a new idelogical

The success of the movements for political independence in the colonial countries required a recognition that the plight of the "native" was a political problem, and that political action was the most effective vehicle of major.

* Emerson & Kilson, "The American Dilemma In a Changing World: The Rise of Africa and the Negro American," Daedalus pp. 1066-67 (Fall, 1965).

social change. Early nationalist movements in Africa, therefore, sought ideologically to turn nearly every aspect of life into a political issue. This was true, for example, of the area of culture, whose political importance lay in the fact that "natives," as people without history or culture, were also seen as people without political claims of their own, and therefore as people to be dealt with from above -- benevolently or otherwise.

Political ideology also worked its transforming magic on violence. Through the same process of "politicization," instances of black resistance in history were ideologically redefined as precursors of contemporary political struggles. Native crime was redefined as <u>early</u> revolutionary activity. Instances of rebellion were sought in the past and their significance amplified.

This process extended to the creation of a whole new world-view. History was viewed as an arena of struggle between colonial power and native population, with heavy emphasis on the intrinsically violent character of colonial oud is supposedly wreuceable bestility to the interest of the non-ubites domination Colonialism was seen as dependent on the routinization of violence, both physical and psychological, against the native. Consequently, revolutionary violence against the colonial regime was not only necessary, but justifiable, on both political and psychological grounds.

Colonialism, wrote Frantz Fanon, "is violence in its natural state, and it will only yield when confronted with greater violence." Further, he said, "at the level of individuals, violence is a cleansing force. It frees the native from his inferiority complex, and from his despair and inaction; it makes him fearless and restores self-respect."

Anti-colonial writers thus defined the situation of nonwhites as one of subordination under a political, social, economic and cultural order intrinsically and irrevocably hostile to the interests of nonwhites, and therefore not susceptible to change through orderly political processes (Trevolt is the only way out of the colonial situation, and the colonized realizes it sooner or later. His condition is absolute and calls for an absolute solution; a break and not a compromise." The rejection of compromise meant a corresponding rejection of the native middle class, which was seen as parasitical, timid, and generally antagonistic to the struggle of the native masses for liberation. The motive force of the anticolonial revolution, for these writers, lay in the lumpenproletariat of the cities. Through revolutionary violence, Fanon wrote, "these workless less-than-men are chabilitated in their own eyes and in the eyes of history."

Under the influence of radical militant propagandists such as Stokeley Carmichael, similar ideological developments have taken place among some blacks in America. The anti-colonial ideology has enabled black radicals to see urban riots as the harbingers of revolution and to see in urban violence the means of destroying white domination and achieving black dignity. If, as the Panthers would have it, "White America is an organized imperialist force holding black people in colonial bondage," then it follows that violence against the police and other agents or symbols of authority is not crime but heroism, not merely an unlawful act but a revolutionary gesture against an illegitimate government.

Tragically, this poisonous ideology has found fertile soil in the black ghettoes of America. Its roots do not yet, perhaps, go very deep, and the commitment to violence is found only among a relatively small group of black radicals. But it has the potential for growth, and it will grow to the extent that the white majority can successfully be cast by radical propagandists in the role of oppressors of the black minority.

Most Neground leaders continue to behavie that change can come in this country through Jegitimose, orderly political Land, beebin, burs, erenory this is the only way it will come.

The ghetto Negro's frustrated desire for improved living conditions has been one important cause of the rise of radical black militancy. 50

History teaches us that men's frustration over the material circumstances of their lives is a frequent cause of collective violence. The more intense and widespread the discontent is, the more intense and widespread the violence is likely to be. Of course, the occurrence, extent and form of economically motivated violence are strongly influenced by other factors: the degree of legitimacy which the discontented group accords to the existing social and political order; the effectiveness of agencies of direct social control such as the police; the extent to which political institutions afford peaceful alternatives to violence; and many other factors. But the economic motive, the frustrated desire for improved living conditions, has undeniably been one important cause of violence in many periods of man's history.

Has this cause been operative in the rise of radical black militancy? The answer is clearly yes. A dominant theme of black protest in the United States has always been the improvement of the material circumstances of the Negro, and this goal has proved most frustratingly unobtainable precisely in the cradle of radical black militancy: the northern urban ghettoes. exhausticity examined elsewhere, parcelarly by the Kerner part of its study of the phenomenon of urban rioting. Commission Many of the Kerner Commission's findings were subsequently discussed in testimony before this Commission by Mr. Dav/id Ginsburg, Executive Director of the Kerner Commission and have been comprehensively updated by the "One Yean Later" Study of the Urban Coalition and Urban America, Inc. It is unnecessary for our purposes to repeat these findings again in detail, since even a few of the facts of life in the ghetto are enough to suggest the level of frustration that prevails there:

examined the conditions of life in the racial ghetto as-

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the Kerner Commission exhaustively

-- Unemployment rates for Negroes are double those for whites. In the ghettoes in 1966 the unemployment rate was 9.3 per cent overall and even higher for blacks. Moreover, in these urban poverty areas two and one-half times the number unemployed were underemployed: part-time workers looking for full-time jobs, full-time workers earning less than \$3000 per year, or dropouts from the labor force. Among nonwhite teenagers -- a group well represented both in riots and in radical black militant activities -- the unemployment rate in 1967 in poverty neighborhoods was approximately 30 per cent.

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have been

-- Blacks own and operate less than one per cent of the nearly five million private businesses in the country -typically small, marginal retail and services firms. <u>Twenty-odd banks out of a national total of 14,000 are</u> black-owned; seven automobile dealerships out of 30,000; fewer than 8,000 construction contractors out of a total of 500,000. In Washington, D. C., blacks comprise two-thirds of the population but own less than 7 per cent of the business. Ninety-eight per cent of all black income is spent outside the black community.

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-- In the metropolitan northeast, Negro students start school with slightly lower scores than whites on standard achievement tests; by sixth grade they are 1.6 grades behind the white students, and by 12th grade, they are 3.3 grades behind. Many Negroes -- between one-third and one-half among male students -- fail to finish high school, the Negro drop-out rate being more than three times the white rate.

-- In 1965 a black woman was four times as likely to die in child birth as a white woman; the black child was three times as likely to die in infancy as the white child. White people on the average lived seven years longer than black people. -- In 1966 the national illegitimacy rate among 26%; nonwhite women was 26.3 per cent; in many large city ghettoes it is over 50%: in Harlem 80% of the first-born are illegitimate. In 1966 over 50% of the known narcotics addicts were Negroes. Rates of juvenile delinquency, violent crime, venereal disease, and dependency on public Many times assistance are much higher in disadvantaged Negro areas than in other parts of large cities.

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In the face of undisputed evidence of the disadvantaged condition of blacks in the urban ghettoes, some persons tend to minimize the importance of deprivation as a cause of riots and of radical black militancy. Two observations are commonly offered in support of this point of view. First, it is pointed out that Negroes have long suffered from frustratingly inferior living conditions, yet they have never before resorted to collective violence of the magnitude that has occurred in the last five years. Secondly, it is urged that while the lot of the Negro may be an unsatisfactory one, nonetheless it has been continually improving, particularly during the precise period when the greatest violence has occurred. In support of this second point, the following facts can be offered: -- The non-white unemployment rate in 1966 and 1967 was the lowest since the Korean War, and in 1968 the black unemployment rate in poverty neighborhoods had dramatically declined by more than 50% in comparison with the 1966 figure. 54

-- The seven black-owned automobile dealerships (out of a total of 30,000) are seven times as many as there were two years ago. New black-owned banks are in formation in seven cities, and one recent study showed that in certain areas of Harlem, black business ownership has risen to 58%. Between 1960 and 1967 there was a 47% increase in the number of blacks in white-collar positions, craftsmen and operatives -- the better jobs -- compared to a 16% increase in the number of whites in such jobs.

-- The percentage of non-white persons enrolled in

school was higher in each age group in 1966 than it was In which will be the education gap between non-white and in 1960. In 1960 the education gap between non-white and interess 25 to 29 years doge has necessary by about one year, and white young men was two years of school experience; by the propertien of this group completing high school das usin form 1966 the gap was only one-half year.

-- The non-white maternity mortality rate in 1965 was 20% less than what it was in 1960 and less than oneninth of what it was in 1940. The proportion of non-white households situated in housing that either is dilapidated or lacks basic plumbing has decreased sharply since 1960 in all areas, especially in large cities. Although the number of non-white families living in poverty areas in large cities has been fairly constant between 1960 and 1966, of the total number of non-white families the percentage living in such areas has declined sharply since 1960.

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One fatal difficulty, however, undermines most of this seemingly plausible case against the proposition that the disadvantaged condition of the Negro is a significant cause of ghetto violence. That is the failure to pay adequate attention to the comparative economic condition of whites and Negroes, and to make this comparison over a longer period of time than the last few years. The lesson of history is not that poverty as such causes violence, but rather that frustrations arising out of poverty can cause violence. There may often be poverty but no frustration: the frustration is present only when the disadvantaged person expects, or feels entitled to, better material circumstances than those he is living under. Increasingly, the black man in America has come to expect living conditions on a par with those of the white man and has come to believe that he is entitled to such equality.

These expectations that the economic gap between black and white will be closed have stemmed in part from the Negro's experience of economic progress, and the frustration has occurred because in the late 1950's and the early 1960's the gap between black and white stopped narrowing and in some respects began to widen.

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One basic measure of the gap between black and white is median family income. Figure 1 plots median family income (total, white, and Negro) for the years 1950 and <u>using measure forming her when freedom since (1950)</u> 1965. Examination of this Figure reveals that/the dollar gap between white and Negro family income has steadily increased nearly every year between 1950 and 1967.

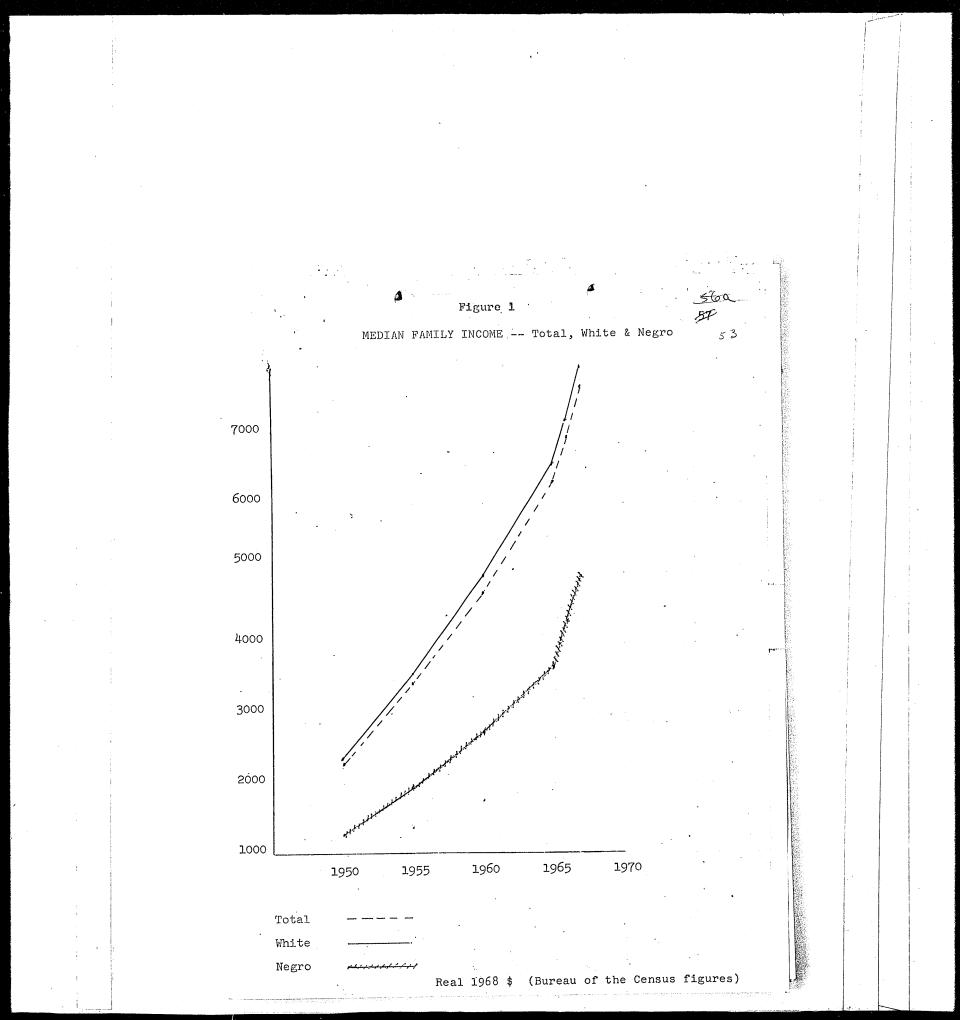
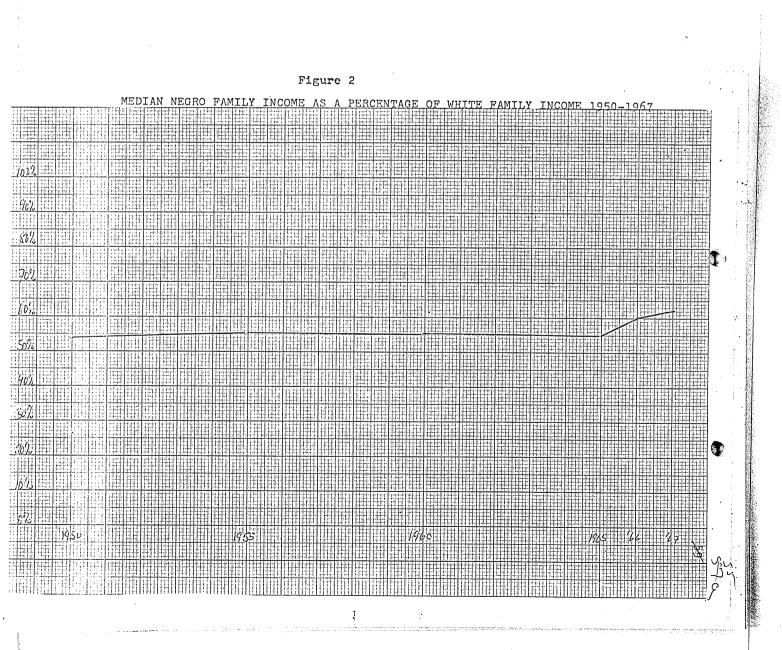


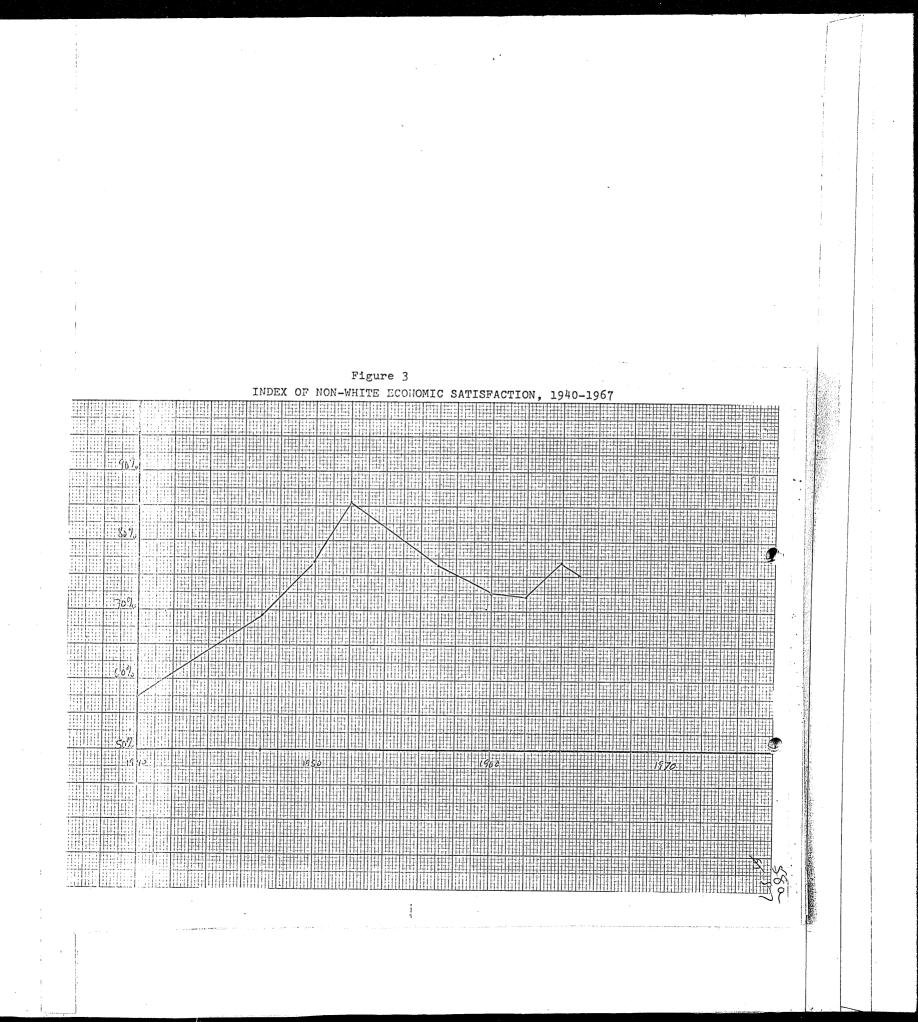
Figure 2 expresses median Negro family income as a percentage of median white family income. It indicates no significant Negro progress in closing the gap between the years 1950 and 1965 -- but it does show a heartening upsurge between 1965 and 1967.



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In Figure 3 a further refinement of this analysis is introduced. In that Figure the average family income for the total population and for the non-white population has been divided by the average years of schooling for each group, and the resulting figure for the non-white population has then been expressed as a percentage of the resulting figure for the total population. This percentage can be considered an "index of non-white economic satisfaction": if blacks and whites with the same amount of education were earning the same amount of income, the index would be 100% and blacks would be as satisfied economically as whites. Figure 3 shows that this is not the case, that the progress toward closing the gap between white and black stopped in the early 1950's, and that the relative economic position of the Negro worsened over the next ten years. Only in the last few years has the gap begun to close again, and still the index of non-white economic satisfaction is below its high point in the early 1950's.

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The analysis in these three Figures is confirmed <u>desvowie and social</u> by other indicators. Thus, for example, although the

non-white unemployment rate in 1966 and 1967 has been the lowest since the Korean War, the ratio of non-white to white employment has remained roughly the same: two to one. Although the school enrollment gap has narrowed for kindergarteners and sixteen and seventeenyear-olds, it has widened for persons in their late teens and early 20's, and proportionately more whites are going on to higher education. (Obviously, if proportionately higher percentages of non-white students do not continue on to college and graduate school, the relative gains of Negroes in professional and skilled jobs of the past decade may soon level off.) In 1940 the illegitimacy rate among non-white women was 16.8%; in 1966 it had risen to 26.3%. Between 1950 and 1966 the percentage of fatherless families among Negroes rose by one-third while the percentage of fatherless families among whites remained substantially constant.

What these facts all add up to is that after a period of black progress and rising expectations following the Second World War, a slackening of progress occurred and, by many indicators, the relative economic position of the Negro deteriorated over the next ten years. From defeated expectations of progress, and an unsatisfactory condition to start with, frustration arises. It was this frustration which has been one important cause both of the recent ghetto riots and of the rising violence of radical black militancy.

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The contemporary disruption of the historical pattern of white supremacy and Negro dependancy has released among many black people an energy, usually constructive, that also finds violent, destructive expression in radical black militancy.

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All men are born with drives and needs which conflict with those of other human beings. In all societies, parents, caretakers and authority figures of one kind or another are charged with the responsibility of meeting the child's basic needs and helping the young convert their drive energy into "the basic which will help them cope with the demands of an adult society. This is the process of "socialization." Libidinal energy becomes the force for human relatedness, and raw aggressive energy becomes "the stuff" of exploration, learning and work. Without satisfactory socialization, these energies may result in a variety of troublesome forms of personal behavior, including self-destructive action and unwarranted conflict and violence against people and property.

When, however, the young are adequately developed and socialized and are able to cope as adults, they enjoy a sense of adequacy and security. Being able to cope and as a result receiving the respect and acceptance of significant peers is the primary way an individual meets basic and man-made needs. When members of a society experience satisfactory patterns of socialization, a high level of peace and stability can exist in families and the society without the use of physical force to control individuals or groups.

As our discussion in the second section of this chapter suggests, the basic pattern of socialization running through the black man's history in America has been the destructive, unsatisfactory relationship of dependency and inferiority vis-a-vis the white man. In slavery the master functioned as a father, ruler and god. The condition of total power in the master and total . powerlessness in the slave, with the master providing and regulating the slave's most basic needs, resulted in an intense emotional bond between the black slave and the white master. Over time the values of the white master and of the slavery system were often internalized by the slaves and transmitted from generation to generation under the continuing influence of the slavery system. The myth of Negro inferiority and white supremacy was widely and deeply ingrained into black man and white man alike.

Under segregation and in the ghetto the same pattern prevailed, although in a constantly weakening form. The clear implication of segregation was still that whites were superior and Negroes inferior, that the white man was the

father and the Negro, the "boy." But other social forces were now unleashed: even under the segregation system black dependency on white power was sharply decreased in comparison with slavery, and in the teeming racial ghettoes of the Northern cities the old relationship of dependency became attenuated in the extreme.

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The widening "crack" in the pattern of forced dependency was the beginning of the development of a positive black group identity. Many blacks, as preachers, teachers, physicians, and other professional service people, began to develop skills which gave them a sense of adequacy and the capacity to cope. In the South in particular, successful business communities developed. Black youngsters were able to identify with people like themselves in positions of leadership and respect. Obviously the level of selfrespect was limited by the implications of a segregated system, but nonetheless it was of tremendous value in enhancing black self-esteem. More among the black masses were better able to earn enough money to take care of their families and as a result were able to develop a sense of personal adequacy. Involvement in two world wars and achievement in entertainment, athletics, and other areas, together with the myriad effects of migration to Northern cities, began to change the black American's image of himself. A positive sense of self began to replace the previous negative self concept.

Today's young adult blacks and teen-agers grew up observing the heroics of Jackie Robinson and Jimmthe Brown. They watch Sidney Poitier and listen to Aretha Franklin. They observe educated blacks achieve success, and move to positions of high responsibility. They test themselves against white youngsters on the gridiron, in the military service and in the classroom and often find they can perform just as well. When this is not the case, it is often clear that limited opportunity and not a lack of ability is the cause.

Many of the young black militant leaders of today were part of the civil rights movement in its direct action phase. Many watched Bull Connor bring out the dogs to interfere with the peaceful protest of unjust laws and practices. Many looked in vain for swift, decisive action by the legislative, judiciary and executive branches of government to remove obstacles to first class citizenship. Perhaps most troublesome, they watched white <u>Such as Fouries Round Unlace</u>, public officials, defying the law be elected to offices of high trust and responsibility because they stood for the unjust exercise of power against blacks.

The reaction to this old -- but weakening -- pattern of white resistance to black achievement would now be different from what it was under slavery or in the South

under segregation. Ghetto blacks are no longer largely employed in Southern agriculture and consequently vulnerable to economic reprisal for any self-interest activities -political, economic or social. Black adequacy and competence is now built on more than white approval. A significant number of black parents no longer teach their children to accept white authority, right or wrong. On the other hand, many whites, now economically more secure and better educated, no longer need or approve of the scapegoating of blacks. The white majority is increasingly transcending the limits of the old racial myths of America. In short, the tie that bound -- the old socialization pattern of black social, economic and psychological dependence on a dominating, often oppressive white community -- is now breaking decisively for the first time in American history.

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With the destruction of the old socialization pattern and the breaking of the dependency bond have come expected responses, some constructive, some destructive. The painful social process is in some ways analogous to the difficult period of adolescence in the individual when the achievement of adult independence often seems to the youth to require a destructive rejection, not merely a quiet putting away, of childish things. Many militant blacks who are now seeking a positive cultural identity and a new pattern of black socialization also experience a "black rage" against whites who seem to block this development by their unwillingness to "get off the back" of the striving black man. In the case of the black radicals, this rage is expressed in aggressive violence against the newly-vulnerable symbols of white authority such as the police.

The breaking of the dependency bond, acceptance of blackness as a positive value, and a sense of outrage is an energizing, explosive set of psychological developments for the rising generation of militant blacks. The black American often experiences intense and ambivalent feelings as a result and is confronted with numerous questions and conflicts. Should he attempt to become a part of the mainstream of his society -- now changing but once so abusive and rejecting -- or is he obliged to retaliate or reject it? Does manhood require retaliation, rejection or even violence? Can he trust a white America which has never before demonstrated itself trustworthy with regard to recognizing and protecting the human rights of black Americans?

The shooting of a black man in connection with a jay-walking traffic violation in Washington, D. C. recently wood in the prompted a violent, retaliatory black community, more necessitating a massive police confrontation. In St. Louis,

black churchmen made angry demands for an apology when a white cashier referred to the group of men as "boys." A black student was ordered off the lawn at his predominantly white college campus by a white policeman. To be a man -a black man -- he had to hit the policeman, a symbol of oppression. But it was a "minor incident" and to avoid difficulty he had to hold back. In fury, rage and confusion he smashed his arm through a plate glass window a few minutes later. Any expression of white superiority or excessive control now evokes a strong reaction from many blacks. New ground rules for black and white interaction are being established, and militant blacks are highly sensitive to violations or insults to black dignity.

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The new feeling among blacks sometimes results in a loss of self-control after "trigger incidents" (reflecting the old pattern of white superiority and black helplessness) with attendant burning of property and other acts of violence. With a temporary breakdown in personal control, bowl blacks loot and plunder the "symbolic enemy." This reaction is not one that is found only among a small "riff-raff" who are sometimes thought to be responsible for urban riots. A study of participants in the Watts riot showed that the riot had a "broad base" of support and was characterized by "widespread community involvement." Although participants in the Watts riot were predominantly

71 mate and youthful, support for rioting was as great from the better-educated, economically advantaged, and long-time residents as it was from the uneducated, poor, and recent merants. Fogelson's and Hill's study of participation in the 1967 riots which was published in the Kerner Comhast mission's volume of Supplemental Studies similarly found that (1) a substantial minority, ranging from 10 to 20 percent, participated in the riots, (2) one-half to threequarters of the arrestees were employed in semi-skilled or skilled occupations, three-fourths were employed, and three-tenths to six-tenths were born outside the South, and (3) individuals between the ages of 15 and 3^4 and especially those between the ages of 15 and 24 are most likely to While the majority expressed disparticipate in riots. approval of the violence and destruction," writes Cohen in the Los Angeles riot study, "it was often coupled with an expression of empathy with those who participated, or sense of pride that the Negro has brought worldwide attention to his problem." * Sears and McConahan, Los Angeles Riot Study: Riot Participation; Cohen, Los Angeles Riot Study: Summary and Implications for Policy. Institute of Government and Public Affairs, University of California, Los Angeles, 1967.

In the one-to-one black and white relationship where mutual respect exists and where interaction occurs on a personal rather than symbolic level, constructive interaction between the races is less difficult, perhaps more so than ever before. It is in his abstract role as the symbolic enemy that the white man is anathema to some radical black militants. Disturbingly, this symbolic perception of whites has filtered down to youngsters, sometimes as young as three or four years of age. Just as young members of the Klan and other children of the "white ghetto" are taught that it is permissible to.

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abuse blacks, some young blacks are now being taught that it is permissible to abuse whites. The conflict between personal and symbolic perceptions by blacks of whites is vividly illustrated in an incident that took place in a Washington, D. C. racial disturbance: a group of black youngsters escorted their white teacher out of the danger area but hurried back to throw stones at the passing cars of "white honkies."

The energy released by America's rejection of the old racial pattern and the development of a positive group \cdot

of this Report

See Chapter

concept among blacks is profound. If channeled, it can be a powerful force for black community development, pride and constructive change within the present social system. But if it is to be channeled and if new, healthy patterns of socialization among blacks are to replace the suboduction, old pattern of white superiority and black inferiority then it must be clear to blacks that support of the present system and participation in it is in the interest

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of justice for the black masses.

Constructive attitudinal and economic changes have been made. In many places, members of the white majority have shown an unprecedented interest in facilitating black entrance into the mainstream of American life. The interaction is establishing new and more healthy ground rules for black and white relations. But often the complex factors related to emergence from a dependent, despised position to full participation in the society are often neither well understood nor subject to control in the short-run. Thus the black man's passage to full dignity and well-being in America has been, and will continue to be, marred by violence and destruction as well as by constructive action and positive social change.

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4. Prevention of Radical Black Militancy

<u>Orinciples of Response</u> From our study of the nature and causes of radical black militancy we have distilled four main creducing we have distilled four general "principles of responsed which have guided us in the formulation of our specific recommendations for dealing with this problem.

First: because radical black militancy is a highly complex phenomenon, with many different causes, no <u>simples</u> one-dimensional solution is possible -- whether it be a program of law enforcement or a program of social reform.

Our analysis of radical black militancy has been an effort both to see this phenomenon in the perspective of the larger militant movement and to uncover the different kinds of factors which have operated to produce a commitment to illegal violence on the part of a small but significant element in the black community. We have seen that the radicals' of queilla worker destructive notions of "self-defense" are often intervoven with constructive ideas in the areas of politics and culture. We have seen that in the rise of radical black militancy there has been a contemporary leadership factor -- the new black radical leaders who have emerged following the failures of the source to respond fully to effet the civil rights movement in the mid-1960's; there has been

an ideological factor -- the spread of a revolutionary

"anti-colonial" perspective; there has been an economic factor -- the frustration bred by living conditions in the racial ghettoes; there has been a psychological factor -the violent emotions unleashed as blacks break out of their dependent position. Moreover, underlying all these factors has been the historic institutional legacy of white supremacy and black inferiority which has decisively shaped the Negro experience in America, including the recent emergence of a virulent radical black militancy.

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In the face of complexities of this magnitude, it is impossible to believe that any one-dimensional package of solutions can effectively meet the problem of black radical violence. Improved law enforcement can undoubtedly deter and apprehend some radicals who engage in illegal violence -but the policeman and the judge have little power to check the spread of an ideology, to improve economic conditions or to alleviate psychological pressures. Accelerated social reforms in employment, education and housing can undoubtedly improve living conditions and open the doors of opportunity and constructive citizenship for increasing numbers of blacks who might otherwise be tempted to violence -- but incendiary anger leaders, violent ideologies and "black refer (can prove dis-well-meaning programs of social reform.) mayingly unresponsive to anything short of, at best, utopian. si Guo Redicil block minisoner is not a one-sided public -reform or, at worst, merety anarchic change. does not admix of one-sided robulious.

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urban rioting, a phenomenon deeply rooted in an enduring institutional and idealogical legacy of white supremacy full and equal That tont and Negro inferiority, end decommitment treaturing of black citizens into all aspects of American life action on an unprecedented seale" can produce a set of

responses "equal to the dimension of the problems."

"National action on an unprecedented scale" -- "equal to the dimension of the problems" -- these are the phrases the Kerner Commission Report used in its urgent call for improvement of the social conditions underlying the urban riots. As we have said in this chapter, the same conditions also underlie the violence of radical black militancy. Accordingly, we adopt this language of the Kerner Report as our own.

equality Our study of radical black militancy has convinced we must have un support of the goal of black diguity and work terres us that only unprecedented national action can assure us (in order for there to that there will be a remission in the cancerous growth of and attitudes frace black violence. Today's violent racial outbursts are the outgrowth of fundamental attitudes, customs and institutions -- both white and black -- that have worked their way into our society for centuries. Today we reap what we have sown. and neither lamentations for the past, nor wishful thinking for the future, nor goodwill and present policies for today likely save us from intolerable levels of racial conflict

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We need action --- "compassionate, massive and sustained, backed by the will and resources of the most powerful and richest nation on this earth" -- to create quickly, as a nation, what we as a nation have destroyed through centuries of slavery and segregation: the necessary preconditions for black dignity and well-being.

The Hack community's perceptions of ebusited loiduerer be while comme oward Kochr as ations are to (J-0) gives some experiences Joth are rearious From be somered by source of rend colled "niger" to the sight Governor boy d phollace standing in the schoolhouse door? endence doctos today are still forubarded laci Sheer not Atal race US O vie. A The movement to secure the integration of blacks itizens who all aspears of Oursucon life mush believer bus becon was and weekelied The demand of local black communicien for control of decisions that affect them and for and with Louinesel-fler" vous row is the goal of integration, so hove as there is you rociely which does not exclude mbers of m beeper . prinumence pure most group larger pure

-fundamen Cally This demand is provisishent with the historic commitment of the United States to democratic local decision - making and is a means for achieving more change without violence, for uder und kins of versel aconomic health \$

Third: because radical black militancy is an ideobogical force in the Negro community, efforts to control the violence of black radicals must always involve attention to the effect of such efforts on the legitimacy of the existing social order.

The radical black militant who attacks a policeman or bombs a school is not simply a common criminal. He is indeed a criminal, but he is different from the burglar, the robber or the rapist. He is acting out of a profound alienation from society. He believes that the existing social and political order in America is not legitimate and that black people in America are being held in "colonial bondage" by "an organized imperialist force." Thus he is able to interpret his act of violence not as a crime but as a revolutionary (or "pre-revolutionary") act. As an isolated occurrence, this distorted interpretation would not be significant -- but the interpretation is sustained by an articulated ideology that is today competing with traditional American values for the minds and hearts of the rising generation of black ghetto residents.

Whenever the police illegally harrass a radical black militant leader, whenever the courts fail to accord such a person equal justice under law, whenever political leaders expressions of advocate indiscriminate suppression of all militant discontent, then the anti-colonial ideology gains new adherents: new proof appears to have been given that the social order in I L the United States is inherently and unalterably oppressive $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{N}}$ the other hand, 6 of the black race. Similarly, though this is less of a Webauce. problem, when leaders of undoubted goodwill and decency files black vacillate in the condemnation and control of unlawful violence de are services are (so burdened with an inerodicable "guilt" as to be dry they seem to admit that the social order is unworthy of this too feeds revolutionary underce (preservation: / To deal effectively with the developing

ideology of radical black militancy, we shall have to have the strengthen, and not impair, the legitimacy of the insti-

tutions for whose preservation and improvement they are responsible.

Fourth: because radical black militancy is but one highly visible aspect of our total racial problem, uncommon courage and compassion will be required of the American people if the necessary steps toward solution are to be

taken.

America's racial problem, of which radical black militancy is but one highly visible aspect, is grave and deep. How grave and how deep the Kerner Commission Report heres has fully demonstrated. In the past there have been other commissions, other reports, other recommendations with small results. It may be, however, that today we as a nation understand for the first time the full, terrible dimensions and what is the has done to our peuple. Hus of our racial problem Perhaps we realize that its solution will require far more of us than merely to recover old values or to improve on old techniques. Perhaps we now see that racial peace and justice will require us in fact to transcend often painfully, our whole history -- to create new institutions, new customs, new attitudes, in which the old system of white supremacy subordución and black inferiority will no longer have any place. Uncommon courage and compassion will be required from all our people white and blacky if this challenge is to be met. A nation does not easily find its way out of a problem of this magnitude: we shall have to have the courage and the com-

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passion to try and fail and try again, to see it through, to hold together, until we finally become, for the first time, one society, black and white, together and equal.

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In addition to the above studies, the following worked are recommended for the generation readers: Meier & Rudwicht, From Blougagion To Ghebto: Cu Attention of Conversion Magness Attention of Conversion Magness (Attention of Conting Series paperback, # 1968). [erc. - to be complexed]

(Milton S. Eisenhower's Notes)

From our studies of violence and attitudes which indicate, at best, a growing alienation from established norms to, at worst, open warfare on the streets and campuses, and in the ghettoes, we must solemnly declare that we have become more fearful of internal threats to our free society than we are of any probable combinations of external ones.

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We recognize that the creation of a society in which neither color nor religion nor national origin is relevant and in which discrimination has been completely eliminated will cost a great deal and will take time.

We recognize, too, that public funds cannot be transferred from sterile defense purposes to more productive ones until the war in Vietnam is ended, a condition which most Americans devoutly desire.

But in the meantime, Federal revenues will increase about twelve billion dollars a year at existing tax and price levels and these funds should become available for improved education and training, employment opportunities, rebuilding of our cities, better police, judicial and correctional procedures.

If it be true, as we are informed, that built-in escalation in costs of current programs will require the appropriation of the contemplated increases in Federal revenues, then we urgently recommend that priorities be reconsidered in order to finance those changes that will assure justice and equality to all our people.

Further, when the war in Vietnam is concluded, we urge that military expenditures be reduced accordingly, and that these savings, too, be allocated to the construction of a more just society.

From an studies of violence and attitudes thick indicate, alienation Establided hims contration to, at write, open wayne on the truth and campuses, are n in The petto, we must scleanly dealers that we have beerene about internal Thet to a any friend than he are any f extind (and the strand, only. We recogning that The Estation creation of a since in which nexter is relevent and in which discrimination his teen completed eleminated will Cost a grent deal for and hill take time. We recorrige, two, that puttie The Comments ten thansfined from defense proposes to more protocol anti th han_ 6% enlel, a contro more anenicans dente desero But in the personale File

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(Mrs. Harris' Notes)

M. O.I. - O O . T.

The perceptions of the black community of the essential attitudes of the white community toward black aspirations are proved by a wide range of experiences, direct and vicarious. From the direct experience of being called nigger to the sight of Governor Wallace standing in the University door, blacks today are still bombarded with evidence that race is a factor inhibiting their progress.

Even successful change, such as the remarkable increase in southern officeholders, seen by whites as progress is seen by Negroes as too small in light of their percentage of the $\frac{2}{3}$

1. The movement to insure and secure the integration of black citizens into all aspects of American life should be continued and intensified.

2. The historic commitment of the United States to democratic local decision making is consistent with demands of local black communities for control of decision making, and is a means for achieving change without violence.

The principle of community self-determination is not inconsistent with the goal of integration and free choice for individuals so long as there is an open society which does not exclude members of any civil group from any communities, and so long as there is general economic health which makes community change possible.

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LEON JAWORSKI

March 10, 1969

BANK OF THE SOUTHWEST BLOG. HOUSTON, TEXAS-77002

Reduct Black

Re:

Drafts on "Radical Black Militancy" and "White Extremism and White Militancy"

Dear Lloyd:

The one most important basic change I strongly recommend in the two above captioned drafts relates to a restructuring and restatement of the Commission's unalterable stand on acts of violence that flow from such militancies. In my view, this stand of the Commission is neither to be buried in the body of a chapter nor is it to be watered down. It is not to be stated in an apologetic manner or clouded by excuses. On the contrary, it is to be boldly stated and firmly put without the slightest appearance of pussyfooting. Any implied justifications of violence or conduct productive of violence will be as fatal to our report as were these intimations in the Kerner Report.

You heard Congressman McCulloch's statesmanlike comment. Although a member of the Kerner Commission, he forthrightly recognizes the mistake inherent in this report. I have heard it said time and again by men in high places and in lesser places that the persuasiveness of this great work was lost on a large segment of the public because of the very failure, implication and omission to which I allude.

I would suggest that at a prominent place at the beginning of the report (it is worthy of a "box") and again in this chapter, we state in plain and unmistakable terms that we condemn unequivocally all forms of violence of contemporary radical militancy (to use the words appearing on page 19 of the draft), whether white or black; similarly that we condemn all radical militancy productive of violent conduct.

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It will do little good to say this if we, in subsequent portions of the text, "water it down" by statements that impliedly excuse such conduct or offer some germ of justification for it. The point we should always preserve is that such conduct is unlawful and that unless we say this "loud and clear", we may well do more harm than good, especially with those individuals and groups we hope to persuade to the adoption of better attitudes and the acceptance of better practices.

Although you have heard my views stated before, I must record that I feel equally as strong on acts of civil disobedience resulting in the spawning of violent conduct. There is no middle ground on matters so vital to the preservation of the rule of law.

I need not explain to you -- because you know my views, but others may read this who do not -- that I am as ashamed of our nation's failures to which we allude in other portions of the drafts of our report and which other reports have cited, but I am confident that my fellow Commissioners will agree that under our democracy violence and other forms of lawlessness can never be accepted as the remedy.

You are familiar with other observations I made in our session on Saturday relating to the repeated condemning of the entire South in toto (pages 11, 34 and other pages) and you indicated at the meeting that there would be no problem in restating these comments.

I want to join our Chairman in urging the avoidance of so many quotations from the Kerner Commission, Crime Commission and other reports. To be sure, we can allude to some of their findings, but I urge that we be creative and original. To illustrate, I find the second recommendation appearing on Page 76 of the Black Militancy draft, lifted from the Kerner Report, undesirable. If we are not careful, our Report will be described as largely a rehashing of the Crime Commission and Kerner Commission Reports.

You will recall I also mentioned the danger of citing quotes from Carmichael and Brown without adding our strong condemnation of such attitudes. Also, I pointed to the danger of using other quotes without making it clear that these are merely references and not findings of the Commission. The draft reads very well, but to me it is more like a <u>Saturday Evening Post</u> article than a Commission report. In the latter, as you well know, extreme care must be exercised to identify the pronouncements of the Commission as distinguished from the preachments of those who engage in violence and unlawful conduct.

Below I make a few additional observations:

The draft contains generalizations and implications of the existence of general conditions throughout the country that need explanation. To illustrate, the situation you cite as existent in Chicago (page 8 of the Black Militancy draft) would not be a fair statement as to Houston, Texas where dissimilar conditions obtain. In Houston, as well as in other parts of the country, there are available only a few -- relatively few -- qualified Negroes to fill official positions. Men of the caliber of Judge Leon Higginbotham of Philadelphia or Judge James Parsons of Chicago and women of the intellect of Ambassador Harris ever so rarely appear on the scene. I readily admit that this is due largely to the lateness of educational opportunities afforded Negroes in some of our higher educational institutions, but whatever be the reason, there exists a dearth of qualified Negroes for these offices at the present time. The situation should be vastly improved in time. I think this needs to be pointed out.

I think we are vulnerable in some of the sweeping statements made on page 1 of White Militancy and Extremism. Neither has the Indian,

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the Mexican, the Puerto Rican nor the Chinaman become assimilated "into the society". There are many Mexican communities in the southern and western part of our state, for example, and in many localities these people have suffered discriminations as serious as those experienced by the Black Americans.

On page 18 of the White Extremism and White Militancy draft, I believe that the last sentence in the first paragraph needs some recomposition, lest it be understood that implied approval is being given to "civil disobedience -and perhaps even violence". In the first sentence of the following paragraph, there may well have been some exceptions. The sentence leaves the impression that there had been no effort made to prosecute, and I am afraid that this is too broad a statement.

I believe that further research will disclose that in the 1920 to 1930 decade, there was substantial Ku Klux Klan activity in the North as well as in the South. It so happened that while in my teens I lived at a locality of some 60,000 inhabitants where every single office holder was a Klansman. So overwhelming pro-Klan was the populous that all running on the Klan ticket were elected by a two to one majority. I had firsthand knowledge of their shameful misdeeds, their intimidations and their violent acts, some of which were horrendous. I well recall, however, that while on a visit to Gettysburg on my twentieth birthday, I saw a tremendous assembly of Klansmen in Pennsylvania -- on parade.

I should also like to comment upon the draft on "Anti-War Protest and Violence". I assume from the title that the discussion was to relate to violence that has emanated from protests against the Vietnam War. The draft, however, begins to discuss the Chicago situation where, I think, we begin to embark on dangerous ground. Personally, I am not willing to refer to the Chicago Report by leaving implications of agreement with the summary. I think that parts of the Chicago Report are couched in misleading terms and we should be forthright enough either to

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say so, or at least to make it clear that we are not placing a stamp of approval on the deductions drawn by the author. I am fully and wholeheartedly in accord with all comments that point to the illegality and danger of the use of excessive force by the police and how violence can result from such improper conduct. Perhaps in the Saturday afternoon discussion, which unfortunately I had to miss, you reached some appropriate accord on the treatment of this chapter.

Frankly, there is much in the Anti-War Protest chapter that I believe should better be left unsaid. If there is to be a chapter going into the detail the present draft has done, it should be made clear on page 8 of the draft that the Vietnam War was inherited by Lyndon Johnson. As it now reads, one might easily conclude that after having been elected as the "peace candidate", he involved this country in the Vietnam War. In addition, I am not at all certain that it is historically correct to say that "Americans felt they had elected the peace candidate in Lyndon Johnson".

It was good to see you again, and I look forward to our next meeting. In the meantime, I send my best regards.

sincerely yours,

Lloyd N. Cutler, Esquire Wilmer, Cutler & Pickering 900 - 17th Street, N.W. Washington, D. C. 20006

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in Kemar MATIONAL COMMISSION ON THE CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF VIOLENCE 726 JACKSON PL., N.W.

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20506

DR. MILTON S. EISENHOWER CHAIRMAN

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February 28, 1969

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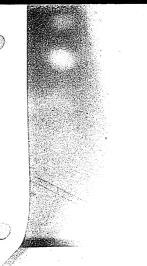
WILLIAM G. MCDONALD ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER

MEMORANDUM FOR THE COMMISSIONERS

We have sent to you under separate cover the latest draft of the Report of the Task Force on Violent Aspects of Protest and Confrontation. It will be discussed, along with the Report of the Task Force on Individual Acts of Violence, at the Commission meetings on March 7, 8 and 9.

The Report contains an excellent analysis of how the anti-war, student and black militant protest movements have developed and of how these groups look at the social institutions they are challenging. It also contains a provocative analysis of "white militancy" and of police attitudes toward protesting groups -subjects also covered from other viewpoints in the Task Force Report on Assassinations and the expected Report on Law and Law Enforcement, respectively.

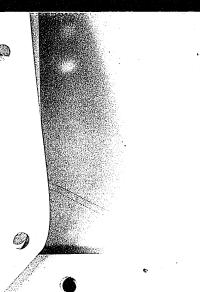
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In forwarding the report, however, I wish to record my disagreement with the recommendation made to the Commission in Professor Skolnick's concluding chapter. The central thesis of this chapter appears to be that the only effective response to violent protest is the speedy adoption of social reforms, presumably those reforms the protesters advocate, and that to accompany these reforms with measures of improved social control to prevent or punish the violent aspects of the protest is undesirable and self-defeating.

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With all respect to Professor Skolnick and the force of his arguments, his thesis in my view ignores the evidence that violent protest has been employed as a tactic not only by those seeking "good" social reforms, but also by the Nazis, the Communists and other totalitarian groups seeking reforms that would destroy basic values of our society. It ignores the danger that a tolerant attitude toward violent conduct aimed at achieving "good" social reforms may encourage violent conduct aimed at achieving "bad" social reforms, or at preventing the "good" reforms from taking place. In the present context, for example, black militants and white militants may engage in violent protest to achieve precisely opposite goals.



Accordingly, despite the risks Professor Skolnick mentions, I would urge the Commission to recommend the response to violent forms of protest that combines more effective control over the violent conduct with the adoption of those social reforms that the majority can be persuaded to accept as necessary to assure the fairness and justice of the social order for all. I have discussed these views with Professor Skolnick and he is now considering possible revisions.

Attached to this memorandum is a draft statement on black militancy for consideration as a section of the Commission Report. By the end of the week, we hope to circulate a draft statement on white militancy and, at some point in advance of the next meeting, on antiwar protest. Draft Commission statements on student protest, the police, and the courts will be deferred until a later date in order to reflect the results of the San Francisco State study, the scheduled conference with university presidents, and the work of the Task Forces on Law and Law Enforcement and Individual Acts of Violence.

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Lloyd N. Cutler

Attachment

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ANTI-WAR PROTEST AND VIOLENCE

Vigorous and widespread opposition to the war in Vietnam has caused much of the protest that has plagued the United States in recent years. Scattered incidents of opposition in 1964 evolved the following year into peaceful and inquiring "teach-ins" in many of the nation's colleges and universities. In the months that followed a full-scale anti-war movement emerged and grew. Last summer, opposition to the American involvement in Vietnam reached its dramatic culmination in the massive violence between police and demonstrators in the streets and parks of Chicago.

The actual violence associated with the anti-war movement is not the only reason for this Commission--and, indeed, the nation--to be concerned. The movement is more serious than the violence it has caused directly because wit goes beyond opposition to the Vietnam War. It is bound inextricably to the protest of students and black Americans which has swept the campuses and the cities of the nation. It reflects a significant disaffection on the part of millions of Americans, a disillusionment with national policies and programs and, to some degree, with the political system itself.

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Some observers feel that most of the anti-war protest will end when the war itself ends. They rightly point out that opposition to wars is not new in the United States, and that every war, including the American Revolution, has aroused the ire of some groups.

This is a comforting theory, but we are not so optimistic. No other war in our history has caused such bitter and widespread protest as the war in Vietnam. The opposition to it is unique both in character and intensity, and the war itself is unique in many important ways. It did not burst upon us like World War II and the Korean War. It did not galvanize patriotism as World War II did, nor have the sanction of the United Nations that the Korean War had. The American people had time to think about the Vietnam war before the United States became involved in it and during the early stages of only token participation. Like the Korean War, the war in Vietnam is a "controlled" war, fought in the constraining context of the nuclear age when neither victory nor defeat on the Construction In battlefield may be possible. Unlike the Korean War, however, the Vietnam War is not being fought in the perilous and ominous first phase of the Cold War; the "conspiracy of International Communism" is not quite great as credible as it was in the early 1950's, the United States policy of "containment is not as readily accepted,

and the chilling fears of post-World War II are not nearly as compelling. Consequently, Americans have heard respected leaders from all segments of society question the rationale for America's involvement in Vietnam and the moral, legal, and strategic implications therein. Moreover, for the first time in our history, we Americans have had the opportunity to watch the war number out out out our own television screens in our own living rooms.

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These and other.factors have convinced us that the Vietnam War protest has special significance for the future. Perhaps the most important conclusion of our study of the current anti-war movement is not that it is so much an exception to the past, but that it may well be a harbinger of things to come. The continuation of the Cold War and the revolutionary movement in developing nations may well result in future wars very much like Vietnam. If so, and if the foreign policy of the United States dictates American involvement in these future conflicts, the anti-war movement of recent years is likely to recur.

The dilemma for our Democracy now and surely for the future is as old as the Republic itself: What does a free society do when the rights of individuals to dissent conflict with the duty of the government to maintain order? This was the question implicit in the title of the report submitted to this Commission on the anti-war riots in Chicago last summer--<u>Rights in Conflict</u>. The future is unlikely to permit this question to go unanswered. And the way we as a nation answer it will determine in some measure how turbulent and how violent that future will be. A number of factors have contributed to anti-war sentiment, but the primary cause has been the Vietnam war itself as it has escalated, so has the anti-war novement.

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When the let road of the you The first significant dissent to the Vietnam War of the occurred in the Spring of 1965, when the first "non- Swares loadje 40 retaliatory" air strikes against North Vietnam began and the first combat troops were landed in South Vietnam. During the period of 1965 to 1968 popular support for the war declined steadily and significantly. In August, 1965, a Gallup poll asked Americans: "In view of the developments since we entered the fighting in Vietnam, do you think the United States made a mistake sending troops to fight in Vietnam?" Sixty-one per cent of the respondents said no; 24 per cent said yes. This was the peak of . support for U. S. policies. In early October, 1968, the same question was asked and 54 per cent replied that U. S. involvement was a mistake; 37 per cent said no. In December, 1967 Gallup found that 52 per cent of Americans described themselves as "Nawks" while 35 per cent thought

of themselves as "Doves." Ten months later, in October 1968, the "Hawks" numbered only 44 per cent, and the "Doves" had increased to 42 per cent.* (See Figure 1.)

The anti-war movement grew as the anti-war sentiment of the larger society grew. As Figure 2 shows, the size of anti-war demonstrations parallels the popular opposition to the war. The strength of the movement appears to be causally related to widespread American sentiments and attitudes toward the war.

Although every war in American history has had its opponents, the widespread and diverse antipathy toward the Vietnam War is unusual. A number of factors account for this:

* The American people have had to cope with some of the risks and anxieties of war without the aid of a "wartime emergency" mentality. The United States' involvement in Vietnam was gradual and Americans had time to contemplate events as they unfolded. Moreover, two decades of crises in the Cold War have somewhat blunted the fearful tensions that characterized the era immediately

* Since more people believe the U.S. involvement in the war to have been a mistake than regard themselves as doves, it is obvious that some "hawks" have lent at least temporary support to the anti-war majority. These "hawkish" people seemed to be more opposed to the United States' conduct of the war rather than the war itself. It would seem that their concern is for better results, and they might support an intensification of present policies to achieve them.

FIGURE 1 -

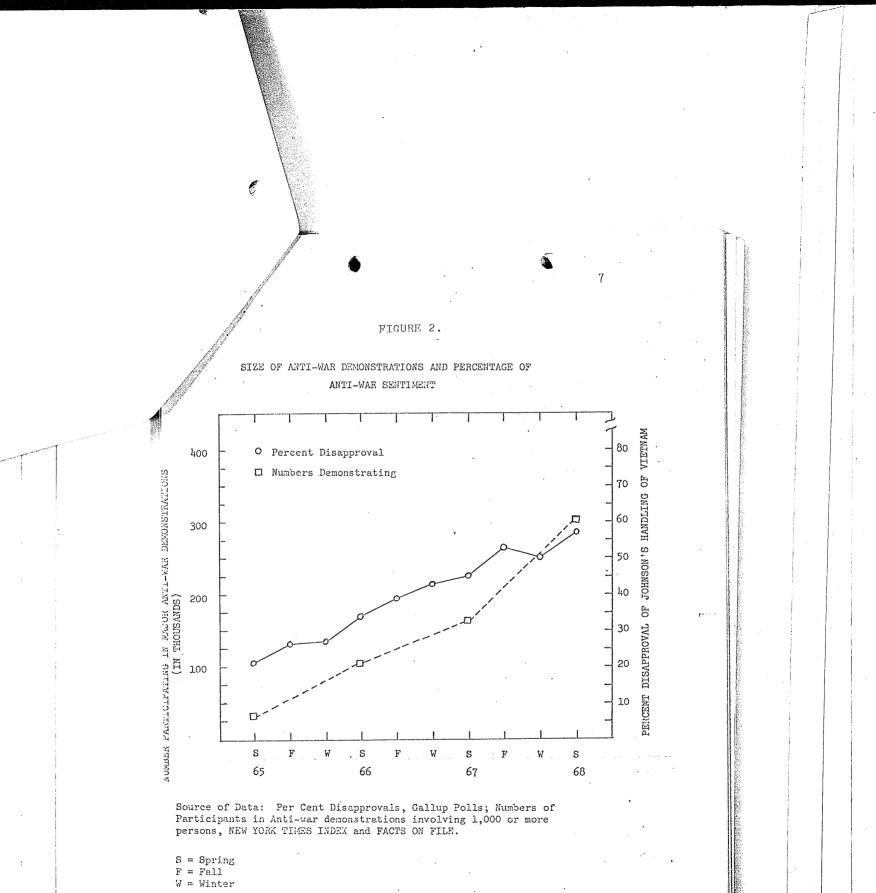
Gallup Poll Answers to the Question, "In View of the Developments Since We Entered the Fighting in Vietnam, Do You Think the U.S. Made a Mistake Sending Troops to Fight in Vietnam?"

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| | Yes | No | No Opinion | |
|----------------------|-----|----|------------|---|
| | k | 76 | 7 | |
| August '65 | 24 | 61 | 15 | |
| March '66 | 25 | 59 | 16 | |
| Мау '66 | 36 | 49 | 15 | • |
| September '66 | 35 | 48 | 17 | |
| November '66 | 31 | 51 | 18 | |
| February '67 | 32 | 52 | 16 | |
| May '67 | 37 | 50 | 13 | |
| July '67 | 41 | 48 | 11 | |
| October '67 | 46 | 44 | 10 | |
| December '67 | 45 | 46 | 9 | |
| February '68 (early) | 46 | 42 | 12 | • |
| March '68 | 49 | կլ | 10 | |
| April '68 | 48 | 40 | 12 | |
| August '68 | 53 | 35 | 12 | |
| October '68 (early) | 54 | 37 | 9 | |

Gallup Poll Answers to the Question, "How Would You Describe Yourself, As a 'Hawk' or a 'Dove'?"

| December '67 January '68 February '68 (early) February '68 (late) March '68 April '68 October '68 (early) | Hawk % 52 56 61 58 41 41 41 | Dove % 35 28 23 26 42 41 42 | <u>No Opinion</u> % 13 16 16 16 16 17 18 14 |
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after World War II. The warming of relations between the United States and Russia and the worsening of relations between Russia and Communist China have made the Cold War policy of "containment" and the "domino theory" of defense less compelling.

* In 1964, Americans felt they had elected the "peace candidate" in Lyndon Johnson; Senator Goldwater, portrayed as a "Hawk", had been overwhelmingly defeated. The fact that the American involvement in Vietnam expanded substantially during President Johnson's administration undoubtedly led to disillusionment and contributed to anti-war sentiment.

* Many prominent public officials and private citizens have criticized United States policies and the escalation of the Vietnam War. Senate "Doves" and occasionally Senate "Hawks" openly have expressed criticism. Former members of President Kennedy's administration left government service and have become opponents of the war. Influential war correspondents and columnists have mounted a sustained attack on America's war policies. Prominent foreigners and leaders of other nations have joined in the criticism, as have scholars, clergymen, and disillusioned war veterans. Television has brought the dissent into America's homes and set it against the background of continuing battlefield coverage of the war itself.

* War critics have challenged both the legality of American intervention and the government's interpretation of the conduct of the war. Opponents of the war have claimed American involvement is unconstitutional since only Congress has the power to declare war--and no such declaration has been made. They have accused the government of distorting the provisions of the 1954 Geneva Accords. They have questioned official pronouncements on the development of the war and have charged that a "credibility gap" exists. The more extreme Source critics have declared that American intervention is counter-revolutionary, designed to perpetuate the power of a ruling elite over the South Vietnamese people. Efforts of government spokesmen to refute these charges have had no effect on war critics. Of more practical importance than the truth or falsity of the charges was the fact that many people came to believe them.

" Of all the causes of anti-war sentiment, none has been more important than the course of the war itself. Presumably, a brief and successful assault against the enemy in Vietnam would not have aroused sustained criticism in this country. There is nothing in the previous history of American involvement to suggest otherwise. The Vietnam War, however, has dragged on seemingly without measurable progress toward victory. The renowned might of the American military machine seemed to make little headway against the smaller enemy. The war escalated step-by-step with increased bombing, bloody battles, and mounting enemy casualties, but predictions of success went unfulfilled.

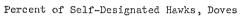
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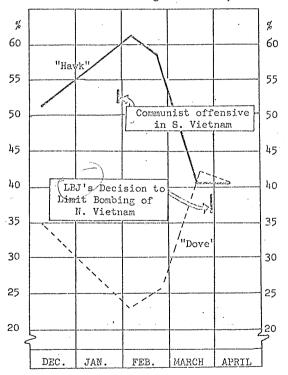
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In May, 1967 the Senate Republican Policy Committee issued a 91-page Republican Blue Book on The War in Vietnam. The Blue Book was highly critical of United States policies; it agreed with many of the criticisms already expressed, and it spelled out the costs of the war--the actual money costs, such as \$300,000 for each dead enemy soldier. The Tet Offensive of early 1968 shocked military and government officials and the American public. It lent impetus to the anti-war movement and prompted a somber reassessment of the United States position in Vietnam. On March 31, 1968, President Johnson announced to the nation his revision of the American bombing policy and his decision not to run for reelection. This and the beginning of negotiations in Paris quieted much of the anti-war protest. Figure 3 shows the correlation of anti-war sentiment with events in the war.

FIGURE 3.

Gallup Poll's Correlation Between Hawk/Dove Sentiment and Key Military Events





The proportion of self-designated hawks increased immediately after the Tet offensive in late January, but decreased somewhat in late February. A tremendous drop in the number of hawks was recorded in early March.

The anti-war movement today has been essentially disorganized, a loose alliance of many groups, some old and some new, that generally act in concert despite their differences.

More than 150 organizations can be classified as anti-Vietnam protest groups. Though they share broad continuities and some common tendencies, these groups are essentially independent. The movement, therefore, has tended to drift with events rather than try to follow a fixed timetable. It has placed more reliance on developing a consensus of anti-war feeling than on the adoption of a "correct" political line. There have been quarrels and tensions, but they have been minor in light of the vast differences that would appear within the movement if it ever had to set forth a positive plan for the good society.

The most effective groups in marshalling mass protest, such as the National Mobilization Committee to End the War in Vietnam and the Students for a Democratic Society, have extremely fluid membership and virtually no national control over their membership's behavior. In fact, the former committee has no real membership at all, and is simply a coalition of "leaders" from various smaller groups who disagree with one another on a number of fundamental points but are willing to appear in the same demonstration. The Fifth Avenue Peace Parade Committee expresses by its very name the subordination of ideology

to coalition tactics. To say that the role of organizational leadership in the anti-war movement is restricted to applying for permits, holding press conferences, announcing the time and place of demonstrations, and mailing fund appeals and propagenda is only a slight exaggeration.

To arrange a demonstration, a coordinating committee would activate a long list of national and local groups. It would recruit adult pacifist groups: Women Strike for Peace, SANE, War Register's League, Committee for Non-Violent Action, and Fellowship for Reconciliation. For student support, it would call on Students for a Democratic Society, Student Peace Union, and the Student Mobilization Committee. Three veterans groups would be summoned: Veterans for Peace, Vietnam Veterans to End the War in Vietnam, and Veterans and Reservists to End the War in Vietnam (the last of which is the most militant, i.e., the most willing to take direct action, risk arrest, and turn in medals and military papers.) Antidraft organizations would include the Resistance (whose members burn draft cards, refuse the draft, and denounce deferments, and insist on conscientious objector status) and black anti-draft groups.

In most <u>professions</u>, from writers to academicians, there are numerous ad hoc organizations dedicated to war protest. Since the Spring Mobilization in 1967, <u>Reform</u>

Democratic Clubs had participated in the New York movement, helping thereby to bring the war issue into the traditional political arena. Other political organizations contacted for mass support are left-wing, multiissue groups like the Communist Party and the Socialist Workers Party. Some union groups, such as units of the International Ladies Garment Workers Union and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers Union, Local 1199 of the Drug and Hospital Employees, and District 65 of the Retail Wholesale and Department Store Union are also called on for support. Clergy and religious organizations have played an increasing role in the anti-war movement, and, in addition to many ad hoc groups, there are the Episcopal Peace Fellowship, Clergy and Laymen Concerned About Vietnam, Catholic Peace Fellowship, and American Friends Service Committee. In September, 1967, Business Executives Move for Vietnam Peace was founded; most of its members are managers or owners of medium-sized firms.

Including the local, city-wide, regional and national committees, there are in all some 150 groups, of which more than 75 are specifically anti-draft organizations. Some organizations perform particular functions. Women Strike for Peace, for example, specializes in fund raising. Membership lists, when they exist, overlap as individuals ally themcelves with various church, professional, and single-issue organizations.

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Anti-war groups tend to spring up to give focus to activities that already exist. For example, a few pacifists decided to picket the Naval Weapons Depot at Port Chicago, California; they attracted attention and decided to stay indefinitely as the Port Chicago Vigil; the Vigil rallies support from the anti-war community; draft cards are destroyed by individuals, prosecutions begin, the press takes notice; finally, a new organization emerges: The Resistance. The Resistance, in turn, poses a challenge to persons ineligible for the draft but sympathetic toward young men being arrested and indicted, and so additional organizations like RESIST and the Committee for Draft . Resistance are formed. Businessmen, (VISTA volunteers, writers, artists, clergymen, doctors, student body presidents, and so forth typically get together in ad hoc groupings whose sole aim may be to place an advertisement in a newspaper. The political work of forming common attitudes has been done in advance by the mass media and a general attitude about the war.

Many groups, of course, do have long-range purposes and clearly stated left-wing ideologies, but none of them is especially influential in the anti-war movement and they have learned over the past few years that their only hope of broad support is to participate in such paper morges as the National Mobilization Committee and the

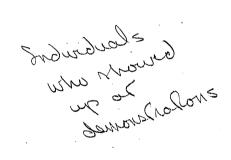
Student Mobilization Committee. The structured left-wing organizations are frustrated by the very formlessness of the movement. The participatory style of decision making which marks the Students for a Democratic Society has gained much currency; "party discipline" has virtually disappeared as a code of behavior. Indeed, the dilemma facing the movement is its lack of discipline: in exchange for spontaniety and political autonomy, it forfeits control over elements which are willing to provoke violence. In light of this, it is not surprising that the American Communist Party has been among the most peripheral and least noticed components of the peace movement.

The lack of organization and unifying ideology in the anti-war movement is especially significant in the face of widespread conviction that the movement is either controlled or at least spurred on by a Communist conspiracy. Communist organizations unquestionably delight in the activities of the protest groups and may even attempt to influence them. We have found nothing, however, to support the belief that Communists or foreign powers are responsible for the anti-war movement.

The Chinese-oriented Progressive Labor Party has been part of the anti-war movement to be sure, but so have Senator Mark Hatfield and U Thant. The Communist journalist Wilfred Burchett has supplied fuel for the movement, but he has had less impact than the <u>New York Times</u>'

Harrison Salisbury. The Republican Party's Blue Book on Vietnam probably contributed more to the movement than Bertrand Russell's International War Crimes Tribunal.

We must resist the tendency, fostered both by would-be leaders of the movement and by those who want to blame them as the source of all trouble, to identify the antiwar movement with its most radical and estranged element. The anti-war movement is not a fixed group of people; it is a widespread attitude that has cut across a broad cross section of the American public.



The Anti-war sentiment has flourished primarily among middle-class Americans, and it is from their ranks that the anti-war movement has recruited most of its members. 18

Insofar as the anti-war movement has an ongoing membership, it is best characterized along social rather than organizational lines. For the most part, the movement has relied on the middle class for its support. Two groups that might be expected to support the movement--labor and the Negroes--have been generally indifferent to it.

With notable exceptions, rank-and-file American workingmen have not supported the peace movement for a variety of reasons which need not be discussed here. To the degree that the peace movement emphasized disarmament, sympathy with the Viet Cong, and self-conscious and anti-bourgeois styles of protest, it actually drove labor support away.

Despite denunciation of the Vietnam War by Martin Luther King, Malcolm X, and other prominent blacks such as Cassius Clay, and despite some significant instances of anti-Vietnam black protest, the war has been for blacks a relatively minor issue distant from the emergency of the American cities and the problems of equality. Insofar as they are militant, Negroes are unsympathetic to the nonviolent ethic of the pacifists; insofar as they are economically deprived, blacks desire the material goods which the white radical despise as tokens of an unjust economic system; and insofar as anti-war protest invites police billy clubs, blacks (more familiar with billy clubs) cannot work up the requisite enthusiasm. Still, the anti-war movement has been influenced by the struggle of black Americans. Anti-war whites, sensing the vitality the black movement holds for radicalism as such, have consistently sought to attach themselves to civil rights struggles. This white attachment to black protest has produced tactical similarities between the anti-war movement and the civil rights movement and has encouraged overlapping memberships and actions. In fact, the anti-war movement can be said to have grown out of the stimulus provided by the civil rights movement. From 1954 to 1964, blacks and whites worked together in the civil rights movement through such organizations as the Congress of Racial Equality and the Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee. Early in the anti-war movement, black leaders in those organizations supported the anti-war protestors. In the spring Mobilization of 1967, Stokely Carmichael's contingent of black people marching from Harlem to the UN was the rallying point of the anti-war protest movement of the day.

Within its middle-class and relatively well-educated base of strength, the peace movement has drawn most heavily on teachers, students, and clergy. Each of these three groups has made a distinctive contribution.

The role of teachers and of intellectuals generally has been prominent from the beginning of the movement. Although there was a good deal of scattered protest in 1964, many observers feel that the movement properly started with the spring of 1965 when campus "teach-ins" began. The tactic is still in use, but it was especially appropriate to that period when less was known

about the war and when more militant forms of protest were unpalatable to many dissenters. The teach-in was by nature a form of hesitation between respectful inquiry and protest, and its campus setting emphasized that objections to the war were still mostly on the intellectual plane. Unsatisfied by official responses to the questions raised, the teachers became more militant.

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Although intellectuals in America are not reputed to have the popular influence possessed by their European counterparts, they were influential in the peace movement because the movement consisted largely of people who <u>do</u> pay attention to intellectuals. The intellectuals defined the movement's conscience and set forth its logic. Some who had held high posts within the Kennedy administration influenced public opinion with their defection from the official view. Literary figures joined the movement and shared their objections with their audiences.

The central role of students in the anti-war movement has been obvious. The student generation entered the political life of the nation in an unprecedented way in the civil rights movement of the early 1960's. While justice for blacks has been a profound matter of conscience for a vanguard of middleclass white students, it has, nonetheless, been beyond the normal scope of their lives; they had to seek out battlefields in the deep south and in the unfamiliar urban ghettos. The Vietnam War, by contrast, has affected them directly in many ways. Most obviously, the students have been subject to the draft; their academic studies have been haunted by the prospect of conscription, and the draft has become the critical unknown as they seek to plan for the future. Even more than inconvenience, however, the draft confronts students with the possibility of death on a faraway Asian battlefield in a conflict which many of them reject as immoral.

For draft-eligible young men, the overriding question has been not merely whether to lend approval to the American effort, but whether to commit their bodies and perhaps their lives. There have always been concientious objectors, but the Vietnam war has been the first to produce a sizable number of draft resisters, young men willing to spend years in a federal prison rather than fight in a particular war that they consider immoral. This raises a perplexing problem for the society, for it poses the principle that each man shall have the right to decide in which wars he will fight and in which he won't. Congress, the Selective Service System and the Courts have rejected the principle; they have decreed that draft resisters are subject to criminal prosecution. Conscientous objection is respected only if the objector swears that he opposes war in any form as a result of convictions arising from religious training and belief. On October 26, 1967, the national director of the Selective Service recommended that local draft boards issue punitive reclassifications to unruly peace demonstrators. This drove some young men into

open resistance, others out of the country, and still others into seeking educational and occupational deferments.

When the manpower needs of the war led to the cancellation of such deferments early in 1968, the issue of cooperation or noncooperation became inescapable for large numbers of youths who opposed the war. Even before that announcement, 22 per cent of the respondents to a survey of Harvard senior men said they would go into exile or jail rather than serve in the army; 94 per cent disapproved the conduct of the war. The posture of such young men compelled many of their elders to choose between lending them moral support or allowing them to be regarded as disgraced felons.

The war had been a campus reality for some time in the form of military and war-industry recruiters, cooperative research projects with the Pentagon, and the Reserve Officers Training Corps. By 1968, when the Columbia University riots erupted, it was becoming difficult to distinguish the anti-war effort from the effort to alter the internal structure of the universities. But the draft remains the focal point of student hostility toward the Vietnam War and its influence on the movement can hardly be overestimated. More than 75 of the 150 or so anti-war organizations are specifically anti-draft groups.

Clergymen have been especially prominent in the peace movement in contrast to their relative silence during former wars. Partly because of their experience with non-violent

protest in the civil rights movement, but more because they found difficulty in reconciling the claims of religious doctrine with the demands of the Vietnam War, religious leaders have played a central role in the peace movement

The most active group, Clergy and Laymen Concerned about Vietnam, declared in a position paper in early 1967: "Each day we find allegiance to our nation's policy more difficult to reconcile with our allegiance to God....We add our voice to those who protest a war in which civilian casualties are greater than military; in which whole populations are deported against their will; in which the widespread use of napalm and other explosives is killing and maiming women, children, and the aged...."

The clergymen in particular have highlighted the issue of "war crimes" in the Vietnam War. They have pointed to reports of civilian bombing, the use of gas and fragmentation bombs, the defoliation of forests and destruction of the countryside, and the depopulating of entire districts. They have cited the Charter of the Nuremberg Tribunal that "The fact that [a] defendent acted pursuant to order of his government or of a superior shall not free him from responsibility." In defense of their dissent and their sometimes unlawful actions, the clergymen have invoked "a higher morality," a "universal truth," an unavoidable "duty to conscience."

Although there have been violent events in the anti-war movement, and its tactics have sometimes provoked violence, the movement has, for the most part, been non-violent. 24

A great variety of tactics have been employed within the anti-war movement; in fact, protestors fall into two broad groups -- those for whom tactics are chiefly a moral question and those who see tactics mainly as a means to political ends. Nearly all pacifists fall into the first of these categories. For them the ethical posutre of non-violence is as important as the cause for which they may be working. Believing in a government of law, they insist on making themselves liable to the law's penalties; they hope to persuade others by the example of their sacrifice. Most non-pacifists, in contrast, are more interested in impeding the war than in achieving a "correct" moral posture. They are not bothered much by the idea of tactics which "hurt the enemy" while enabling the protestor to avoid arrest. The philosophical debate over which tactical approach is the more effective has split the movement since its inception and prevents the evolution of tactics from being simply or wholly explainable in pragmatic terms.

The difference was epitomized in Stop the Draft Week of October 16-20, 1967. The organizers of this series of demonstrations found that they could not agree among themselves on the best means of "shutting down the Oakland Induction Center." As a result, October 16 and 18 were given over to those of pacifist orientation, who sat in the doorway of the induction center in small orderly groups and allowed themselves to be arrested peaceably. October 17 and 20 were dedicated to the mass-mobile tactics of the "militants." These demonstrators, along with newsmen and spectators, were beaten and sprayed with MACE as they blocked the arrival of busloads of inductees and they retaliated with harassing tactics. They attempted, generally with success, to avoid arrest, although their leaders were later prosecuted for "conspiracy to commit misdemeanors." The pacifists were more successful in literally preventing the induction center from functioning, but the militants argued that their operation made a greater impact on the public.

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The pacifists and the militants are not likely to agree on the superiority of one approach. Radical militants are as averse to the posture of meekly courting arrests as the pacifists are to hit-and-run vandalism. Both groups are inhibited by their life-styles from adopting a certain tactical approach, and their means of protest are bound to diverge. There are, of course, many tactics that both groups can agree on, such as peaceful marches, mass rallies, ballot initiatives, picketing, agitation against the draft, and community organizing projects like Vietnam Summer. Recognizing this, movement coordinators have increasingly turned to unstructured demonstrations in which ideological lines are not insisted upon and protestors are free to take the sort of action that suits them individually. This free-wheeling approach makes it impossible, however, for the coordinators to control a demonstration and thus to give assurances to authorities from whom they seek permits that the demonstration will remain peaceful.

There can be no simple equating of militancy and violence or of pacifism and non-violence. The tactics of obstruction were used by pacifists before Vietnam was an issue. Sitdowns before the White House and the Senate and war factories, the tying of canoes to troop and munition ships, the boarding of destroyers, the chaining of demonstrators to AWOL soldiers, the destruction of draft files, the sailing of medical supplies into Haiphong harbor under American aerial bombardment --- these gestures have all been conducted by pacifists. No "militant," furthermore, has done anything so extreme as Quaker Norman Morrison's self-immolation before the Pentagon on November 2, 1965.

The attention of public authorities is nevertheless concentrated on the "militants," and understandably so, for they are the ones who are not prevented by ethical scruples from passing into a more "revolutionary" phase. Within this group there has been a development --haphazard and halting -- toward confrontationism. The anti-war movement is not wedded to confrontation as a favorite tactic, but the number of protestors who find it philosophically acceptable and politically meaningful has been increasing. The minority within the movement that actually seeks violence and claims that moderate tactics have failed is growing. Until the Vietnam War ends, the minority is likely to keep growing. Curiously enough, the very achievement of the movement in winning a majority of the public to oppose the war has played into the hands of the radical militant who point out that even the will of the majority is not sufficient to end the war. The only recourse, they argue, is increased pressure and, if necessary, violence. The pressure for more violent action often comes from a very small but influential segment of the movement that is /present day America opposed to rather than anti-war. This group is more interested in a Viet Cong victory than in ending the war. The number of anti-war rallies, protests, and demonstrations increased steadily from 1965 through 1967, but it

tapered off in 1968 as anti-war protest became absorbed by presidential politics. Many of the dissenters turned with renewed hope to the political process in the hope of electing a candidate who would end the war.

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The direct action tactics of the anti-war movement first became noticeable late in 1965 with silent days of protest, draft card burning, picketing draft stations, and even symbolic suicides like that of Norman Morrison.

The year 1966 brought an acceleration in confrontation. The universities were attacked for revealing class rankings to the Selective Service, draft centers and ROTC units were sabotaged, military recruiters were harassed, government spokesmen were beleagured when they spoke throughout the country.

On April 15, 1967, some 100,000 people marched from New York's Central Park to the United Nations Plaza to protest the war. Permits had been issued, and the demonstrators quietly occupied 10 city blocks listening to speeches by Martin Luther King, Jr. and others. Nearly 150 separate organizations were represented in the demonstration. As 1967 went on, however, many antiwar leaders stated that the movement would increasingly seek confrontation. This sentiment was frankly expressed by Mobilization Committee head David Dellinger just before the Pentagon March in October 1967. Local and federal agencies cooperated with the coordinators of the Pentagon March to arrange permits, parade routes, rally sites, and general ground rules. Some 50,000 antiwar demonstrators participated. Although officials handled the demonstration skillfully, it resulted in disruption and violence. Some 2,000 demonstrators pushed their way up the steps at the front entrance to the Pentagon and physically confronted federal marshals and military policemen. Another 3,000 or so were able to step through police lines and rush another entrance-some entering the building. Before the disturbance ended, more than 600 participants had been arrested and many were injured.

A few weeks later, a number of demonstrators picketing Secretary of State Dean Rusk clashed with

police. Some of the protestors stopped traffic, hurled plastic bags of cattle blood, stones, bricks, and bottles.

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By April, 1968, leaders in the protest movement served notice that they would no longer obligingly cooperate with authorities. David Dellinger threatened that the Mobilization Committee would not apply for a permit for its April 27 march in New York City. "It would be a mistake to think that the fight against the war can be won in the ballot box," Mr. Dellinger said, "it still has to be won on the streets." He suggested, therefore, that any organization with a fundamental commitment to anti-war protest be allowed in the New York Rally "to do its own thing."

The Mobilization Committee did obtain a parade permit, but a dissident group did not and a bloody riot ensued. It should be recalled that the Columbia University Student Rebellion had erupted a few days earlier and the Poor People's Campaign was about to begin in Washington. The mass media were full of reports of protest and violence and tension was high. The fact that May 1 was Loyalty Day, when patriotism is celebrated, may also have contributed to the violence in New York City.

A comparative study of civil strife in America between May, 1963 and June, 1968 indicates that there were 104 anti-war demonstrations involving about 680,000 participants; 400 injuries and more than 3,200 arrests resulted from these events.

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All other violent incidents in the anti-war movement, however, pale by comparison with the events in Chicago during the week of the Democratic National Convention in August 1968. An Investigative Task Force has submitted to this Commission a report on these events. The report describes in detail the violent confrontation between anti-war demonstrators and police in the streets and parks of Chicago.

Planning for the Chicago demonstration began in October, 1967. The hope was that a national coalition of peace groups could bring 100,000 demonstrators to the city from all parts of the nation -- "an assembly of people too large to be considered the lunatic fringe." The Administration Committee of the National Mobilization undertook the task. A planning paper in March 1968 declared: "The campaign should not plan violence and disruption against the Democratic National Convention. It should be non-violent and legal." Although subsequent pronouncements confirmed the non-violent approach, there were continued references simultaneously in the demonstration publicity to disruptive tactics. Leader Dellinger called the demonstration an effort to have a "moral impact," but he also said that each participating group would be free to demonstrate as it wished.

Rights in Conflict, the Task Force Report to this

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. Commission, describes the prelude to convention week in

Chicago:

Among the dissidents planning to come in protest were violent revolutionaries, pro-Peking sympathizers, Communists, anarchists, militant extremists, as well as pacifists, poor people's campaigners, civil rights workers, and moderate left-wingers.

For those who had forsaken electoral politics, the convention offered a convenient occasion to rally supporters and to broadcast their disillusionment.

There were also hippies, and among them were hippies turned inside out; becoming concerned with their relationship with the "Other Society" they cast themselves in the role of self-styled revolutionaries. A few of the more deliberate and creative of these invented an acronym , YIPPIE! and a "non-organization" to go with it.

The tactics planned by radical dissenters reflect various attitudes, ranging from complete pacifism to hard-core militance. And their motives vary from individual to individual and association to association. In the main, though, the disruptive tactics, whether violent or not, were intended to expose the inhumanity, injustice, prejudice, hypocrisy or militaristic repression with which dissenters take issue. Disruptive tactics obviously impose a high cost on society and its leaders, and, eventually, the dissidents argue, the price will become too great.

It is clear that the great majority of protesters in Chicago had no preconceived intention to initiate violence. This is not to say, however, that they did not expect it to develop.

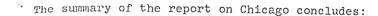
Most of those who intended to join the major protest demonstrations scheduled during convention week did not plan to enter the Amphitheatre and disrupt the proceedings of the Democratic Convention, did not plan aggressive acts of physical provocation against the authorities, and did not plan to use rallies of demonstrators to stage an assault against any person, institution, or place of business.

During the months preceding the convention, provocative and inflammatory statements, made in connection with activities planned for the forthcoming convention week, were published and widely disseminated through underground channels and by exposure in the general media. Numerous articles, speeches, and disclosed conversations promised threatening acts of public disorder and terrorism which could not be responsibly dismissed. Those committed to such actions, however, appear to have been unable to combine a broadly based following nor a well-organized plan.

Officials in Chicago, nonetheless, took the threats and the promises of disruption with deadly seriousness. Not so very peaceful peace demonstrations in New York and Washington suggested what Chicago could expect -- at the very least.

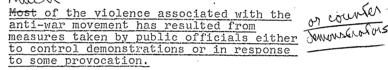
In the words of the demonstrators, the whole world was watching what transpired during that bloody week in Chicago. Chicago police were the targets of mounting provocation by both word and act. It took the form of obscene epithets, and of rocks, sticks, bathroom tiles, and even human feces hurled at police by demonstrators. Some of these acts were spontaneous; others were planned; still others were in response to police action. <u>Rights in Conflict</u> states:

That was the nature of the provocation. The nature of the response was unrestrained and indiscriminate police violence on many occasions, particularly at night.



Although the crowds were finally dispelled on the nights of violence in Chicago, the problems they represent have not been. Surely this is not the last time that a violent dissenting group will clash head-on with those whose duty it is to enforce the law. And the next time, the whole world will still be watching.

Much



Much of what passes for violence in the anti-war movement is done to rather than by the protesters. Physical harm has been done to demonstrators and movement workers in the form of bombings of homes and offices, crowd-control measures used by police, physical attacks on demonstrators by American Nazi Party members, Hell's Angels, and others, and random harassment such as the Port Chicago Vigil endured. Counterdemonstrators have attacked and beaten peace marchers, sometimes while police looked on.*

Much of the tactical debate within the anti-war movement has not been about whether to commit violence but

whether to expose demonstrators to it. The issue is not so * Such incidents are not new. When 8,000 Socialists and others staged an anti-war parade in Boston in July 1917.

others staged an anti-war parade in Boston in July 1917, soldiers and sailors in military formation, under command of their officers, broke up the parade, beat the marchers, and raided the Socialist Party headquarters.

ich whether to be violent as it is whether non-violence will be cooperative or provocative. Those who advocate provocation do so in the hope of revealing brutality and hypocrisy in the system. Unfortunately, the undisciplined and unstructured nature of anti-war demonstrations permits a small minority to light the fuse in an explosive situation. The looseness of the movement allows confrontationists on both sides to have their way, and both dmonstrators and police have been injured. Thus it was in Chicago.

Still, it must be said that while militant demonstrators do have the power to ensure that the police <u>will</u> use force, they do not have the power to prevent police violence. The role of the police in anti-war protest -- and in all group protest for that matter -- is critical; with the primary responsibility for preserving public order, the police stand at the very heart of the problem of rights in conflict.

The problems of the police are discussed at length elsewhere in this report, but a brief discussion of police behavior in protest situations is in order here.

Like demonstrators, police also respond to visible symbols. They are likely to react with anger and disgust to the burning of an American flag, or the raising of Viet Cong flags, or obscenities shouted at them by

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demonstrators, especially female. When they are targets of bricks, bottles, human waste, and garbage, the police may well over-react and lash out at their "tormenters." Social investigators who have studied police attitudes report that they are more likely to disapprove of unwashed Yippies than of the anti-war movement itself. Thus, the police response is often to symbols deeply offensive to their personal values or to deliberate provocation by demonstrators.

Such a response from police is understandable, particularly in light of the difficult conditions under which they must perform tasks that call for extraordinary judgment, split second decisions, and unusual intelligence and courage. But understanding the provocation and the response can in no way excuse unlawful police actions. The very nature of a policeman's responsibility dictates that he suspend judgment, that he suppress personal concerns, that he not be provoked into over-reacting. This is, of course, idealistic -- but the ideal is a crucial one in our democracy: that this is a society of laws which guarantees to individuals certain inalienable rights. When those charged with upholding the law violate the law, then neither law nor order will long endure. "



Perhaps the most disheartening aspect of the Chicago violence is the comment of the head of Chicago's Fraternal Order of Police in a television interview

(Continued next page)

Our society must anticipate more major protest movements in the future, quite apart from the outcome in Vietnam. Our cities will be the scene of angry protests akin to those of the past few years. Such dissent is provided for in the Cosntitution; it is part of the political process in our society; it is one of the ways that a democracy makes up its mind. Future protests there will be, but they need not be violent. And whether they are will depend as much upon the response of public authority as it does on the tactics of the protesters.

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Rocommendations Rocommendations on the dealt options for options for - non-metagy service. - non-metagy options options such ar * (Continued from page56) nearly 7 months after the violence in his city. if he felt the police would behave differently if the

Chicago demonstrations were repeated, he replied "not so you would notice." Then he explained that Chicago policemen traveling the country on vacations were being greated with new respect and told they had done a good job. "We're proud of what we did," he said.

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON THE CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF VIOLENCE

COMAN

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DR. MILTON S. EISENHOWER CHAIRMAN

March 1, 1969

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MEMORANDUM FOR THE COMMISSIONERS

SUBJECT: White Extremism and White Militancy

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Enclosed is a first rough draft of a section on White Extremism and White Militancy.

It's relevant to our study of Group Protest and is scheduled for discussion at the meeting on . March 7.

I have made no effort to include a complete section on recommendations, but I hope to prepare something after you have discussed the topic.

Ronald A. Wolk Special Assistant to the Chairman

Encl.

DRAFT 2/28/69

WHITE MILITANCY AND EXTREMISM

History reveals quite clearly that most of America's domestic violence has been associated with racial, religious, and ethnic intolerance. This is sadly ironic in a nation which was founded as a citadel of individual freedom and equality by refugees from religious and political persecution.

History also reveals, however, that America has made progress toward this ideal. The bigotry and the violence notwithstanding, racial, religious, and ethnic minorities have gradually become assimilated into the society. Black Americans, in large measure, have not. Among the first to arrive in this nation, they are the last to be admitted. Much of the contemporary strife and disorder in the United States today is the price we are paying for our failure to integrate the Negro into the larger society.

Even here, progress--though often painful--has been made. Since the early 1940's, survey research has measured a striking decline in the verbal expression of anti-Negro prejudice and a striking reduction in support for discrimination and racial segregation. Though a majority of Americans disapprove both the pace of this we will progress and the means by which it has occurred, they do the walk support the goals of black Americans -- even to the point where they are ready to approve even the most Grastic federal programs to attack the root causes of violence massive in the black ghettos.

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A minority of whites strongly oppose the aspirations of the black community. They can be described as militant or extremist whites, depending upon their use of violence to resist the aspirations of racial or ethnic minorities. They have played a significant role in American history, and they are active today. Their organization into militant and extremist groups is--as it has been in the past--a threat to public order and public safety.

There is no adequate term to cover all of the diverse militant white groups which have fought to preserve their neighborhood, communities, or country from forces they considered alien. The lack of a common term for Ku Klux Klansmen, vigilantes, nativists, antivers, and anti-Catholic organizations reflects the fact that they and other similar groups have had different origins, different goals, and different compositions and that they have arisen in response to specific historical situations. All of these groups, however, have been

* Befine in Fn.

characterized by bigotry and their willingness to use violence in support of their goals.

This Commission has studied militant and extremist white movements, historically and currently. We have sought to learn who the white militant is, what motivates him, why he expresses his discontent in extremist behavior against other racial, religious, and ethnic groups.

Social scientist cannot fully explain to us the causes of white militancy or the sociological and psychological dynamics of prejudice. They do point out that no single sociological characteristic can completely account for patterns of such intolerance, and that societal forces are mediated through the personalities of individuals. To understand the white militant, therefore, we must understand the social forces at work, the psychological factors which influence him, and the situation in which he operates. Our study, hopefully, is a beginning to such understanding.

Perhaps our most significant finding is that the white militant, like his black counterpart, is alienated from the larger society. He is one of millions of white Americans who are socially and economically deprived, politically impotent; and disillusioned with the system and the circumstances in which he lives. In a very real sense, his militancy is as understandable as black militancy.

III

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Much of the domestic (violence and civil disorder in American history has been caused by militant whites--usually in opposition to ethnic or racial groups or in defense of some existing or remembered social order.

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We have a long tradition in this nation of citizen groups acting outside of the law to preserve what they believe to be the proper social order and even to enforce their own version of acceptable moral and social behavior. Until recently, these militant or extremist groups often acted with the encouragement--or at least the tacit blessing--of more stable segments of the population. Frequently, they enjoyed the sanction of the established authority.

In most of these private law-enforcement ventures, the aims were fairly simple: to get things done which needed doing. This was the essence of vigilantism--that institution peculiar to America which began in 1767 and has persisted into modern times. In the raw and dangerous days of the frontier, the rationale for vigilante movements was understandable. Where agencies for social control were non-existent or primitive at best, citizens banded together to deal directly with horse thieves, bandit gangs, cattle rustlers, counterfeiters, and rowdies. Harsh as it was, vigilante justice brought a crude kind of order to sparsely settled areas.

Beneath this pragmatic approach to law and order, however, lay a number of dangerous precedents. The self-help tradition is largely inconsistent with the contraints which a developed legal system imposes on the quest for order. The practice of a given group deciding under particular circumstances what the law should be and how it should be enforced wreaks havoc on any notion of individual rights and due process. Thus, private violence came to be used as an instrument for enforcing a system of social, political, economic, and cultural arrangements against the claims of groups outside the system whose actions or whose very existence were seen as a threat. Sometime this was done in conjunction with constituted authority, sometimes not. The result, in any case, has been a long history of private violence by white militants and extremists often expressed in racist or nativist actions.

The first "alien" group to feel the combined assault. of private and official violence are the American Indians. They were victims of massive private violence like the massacre of more than 200 (most women and children) which took place on Indian Island in California in 1860.

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The San Francisco Vigilance Committee of 1851 and the Great Committee of 1856 are the best known of Western vigilante organizations (although they had counterparts in all states west of the Mississippi). On the whole, they were composed of leading white citizens who sought neither legislative change nor institutional reform, but rather the punishment of criminals and undesirables whom the courts had "allowed to escape." They sought, in short, to act as a substitute for a judicial process which they saw as weak and inefficient. In practice, they reserved their harshest "justice" for foreigners and minorities, especially Mexicans and Chinese.

The private violence against minority groups in the West was really the cutting edge of an endemic regional nativism supported by much of the population and elevated into the laws of the land. California state law, for example, prohibited Chinese from testifying in cases involving whites, which led militant whites to terrorize and murder Chinese with relative impunity. As often happened in nativist oppression, there tended to develop a division of labor between "respectable" elements which used legislation to protect self-interest, and mobs who resorted to violence. Thus, political leaders succeeded in enacting legislation in 1882 banning further Chinese immigration into the country, and mobs looted, burned, and murdered men, women, and children in the Chinese quarters of the West Coast. The "preservation of order" was often translated into violence on any pretext. In Los Angeles, for example, a white was killed during a tong war, so white mobs invaded China town, looting and killing 21 persons; fifteen men, women, and children were hanged from lamposts.

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Even before the excesses of private citizens on the West Coast, White Anglo Saxon Protestants in Eastern cities focused their bigotry on foreigners and Roman Catholics--particularly immigrant Irish. The anti-Catholic, antiimmigrant political organization known as the Native American Party took root in Eastern manufacturing centers and rose to power as Irish immigration increased. The new party's literature and street oratory was designed to instill fear and excite passions. One document signed by 900 party members and sent to Congress expressed fears concerning "the rapid and extraordinary increase of the foreign population" which would "ere long expose the institutions of the country to serious danger." The Native American Party held street meetings and parades in the heart of a predominantly Irish neighborhood in Philadelphia in 1844, to which members were urged to come "prepared for defense." Prolonged street rioting ensued in which several persons were killed and many were injured. Two Catholic churches, two parochial schools, and at least a dozen homes owned by Catholics were burned to the ground.

During the 1850's the "Know-Nothing" movement added distinctive links to the chain of violence that was coming to characterize the new nation. Dedicated to keeping Catholics and foreigners out of office, the Know-Nothings set about "subverting the deadly plans of the Jesuit and Papist." In Boston in May, 1854, Know-Nothings, enflamed by street orators, attacked a Catholic church, smashing windows and tearing down its cross, then went on to destroy the homes of Irish Catholics in the neighborhood. During 1854 and 1855, there were many instances of mob violence and destruction of Irish and Catholic properties. In the national election of 1854, the Know-Nothings organized politically as the American Party and elected nine state governors and 104 members of the U. S. House of Representatives, then a body of 234. Political success, however, did not end the violence. In . 1855, 20 persons were killed in a two-day riot in Louisville, Kentucky, instigated by the Know-Nothings.

The Know-Nothing movement declined after the 1856 elections (in which its presidential candidate, Millard Fillmore received 20 per cent of the vote). During the last two decades of the 19th century, however, the vacuum it left was filled by the American Protective Association (APA), a new and powerful anti-Catholic apparatus. The APA inveighed against alleged Roman Catholic plans to destroy the public school system, against Jesuit control of the federal government, against "Romanizing" of the U. S. Army and Navy. Its leaders charged that the Jesuits had plotted the assassination of Abraham Lincoln, that Catholics had been ordered to take over the nation's "cities, railways, manufacories, mines, steam and sailing vessels--above all, the press."

Alarmed by the APA tales that Catholic churches were being used as arsenals for a massacre of non-Catholics, many Protestants armed themselves in preparation for the day of violence that the APA prophesied was imminent. The APA was responsible for violence and terror in many states. It claimed credit for overturning political regimes in New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, and other states. By 1895, its membership numbered 100,000. Of all the white extremist organizations founded on bigotry, hate, and violence, none have been more effective nor more persistent than the "invisible empires" that have arisen at various times and places over the past century under the name of the Ku Klux Klan. These have varied in membership from a few thousand to perhaps four million; in power, from the intimidation of a village to the political control of a state.

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The first Ku Klux Klan was established on December 24, 1865 in Pulaski, Tennessee, as a secret society of an innocent and purely social nature. It soon began frightening Negroes by parading through the night in white sheets. It eventually attracted thousands of embittered and fearful men and declared as its fundamental objective: "The MAINTENANCE OF THE SUPREMACY OF THE WHITE RACE in this Republic." Its tactics were terror and intimidation. Its inevitable result was extreme violence.

From 1867 until 1871, the Klan helped to overthrow the Reconstruction governments of North Carolina, Tennessee, and Georgia. It was responsible, according to the findings of a Congressional investigation in 1871, for hangings, shootings, whippings, and mutilations numbering in the thousands. In Louisiana, at least 2,000 had been killed or wounded in a few weeks preceding the presidential election of 1868. Seventy-five killings were reported in Georgia, and 109 in Alabama. In a single county in Northern Florida, more than 150 men were murdered within a few months. The commanding general of federal troops in Texas reported: "Murders of Negroes are so common as to render it impossible to "keep accurate accounts of them."

South States

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The Tuskegee Institute has kept a record of lynchings in the United States since 1882 which gives an indication of white violence and serves as a reminder that the white extremist has been the single most violent force--outside of war--in American history. For the period of 1882-1959, Tuskegee has recorded a total of 4,735 lynchings, of which 73 per cent were Blacks and 85 per cent took place in Southern and border states.

The Klan had been born in the aftermath of the Civil War, when emancipation, the Fourteenth Amendment, and the ravages of war itself had disrupted the traditional caste order and had weakened white control over Blacks. Southerners looked upon the Reconstruction as repression and upon governments elected by former slaves and immigrant Northerners as illegitimate. In this atmosphere, Klan violence worked hand-in-hand with legislative efforts to restore a system of social control over Blacks, ultimately climaxing in the redemption of 1877 and the later proliferation of the Jim Crow system.

The first Imperial Wizard of the Klan, General Nathan B. Forrest, explained the need for the Klan in these terms:

> "Many Northern men were coming down there, forming Leagues all over the country. The Negroes were holding night meetings; were going about; were becoming very insolent; and the Southern people... were very much alarmed...parties organized themselves so as to be ready in case they were attacked. Ladies were ravished by some of these Negroes...There was a great deal of insecurity."

Klan violence was justified, as vigilante violence always is, as "the necessary effort to prevent crime and uphold law and order." Acts of violence were accepted, even applauded by respectable elements of the population and by the conservative press. They were justified by the misbehavior of the victims. Thus a Negro was killed and his daughter whipped because she had caused embarrassment to a white family by bearing the child of one of its members.

It must be stressed, therefore, that Klan violence (as was the case with the Western vigilante movements) was only the cutting edge of widespread Southern anti-Negro militancy, which was in itself only the most blatant element of an endemic national racism and nativism. Although the first Klan had more than half a million

members by 1871, it soon disbanded under the scrutiny

and pressure of federal investigation and legislation. The aim of its reign of terror, however, ---white supremacy---had been fulfilled and outlived the Klan itself by many generations.

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The second Klan was founded in 1915 at Stone Mountain, Georgia by William J. Simmons, a former medical student and minister. It bore close resemblance to its predecessor and broadened its terrorism to include Jews and Catholics as well as blacks.

The new Klan was even more successful in winning popular support. It spread to all but two states and claimed a membership of between 4 and 5 million by 1925. Klansmen established a virtual dictatorship over political life in Indiana, as well as strong power in Colorado, Oregon, New Jersey, Texas, Oklahoma, Maine, Louisiana, and even parts of New York. David Chalmers in his book <u>Hooded Americanism</u> reports:

Klan violence in California was as brutual as anywhere in the South, and in the town of Taft, in Kern County, the police and best citizens turned out to watch an evening of torture in the local ball park. When an anti-Klan candidate won the Republican primary in Oregon, the Klan jumped to the Democratic Party and helped capture the governorship and enough of the legislature to outlaw all parochial schools. In Colorado, the Klan, with business support, elected two U. S. Senators and swept the State. When the Grand Dragon, a Denver doctor, was accused of having forced a high school boy into marriage by threatening him with castration, the governor appointed the Klan leader aide-de-camp as a show of confidence. Violence remained the keystone of the Klan program. The New York <u>World</u> compiled statistics on Klan violence during a single year, even before it reached its new heights of power. The findings for October 1920 to October 1921:

"Four killings, one mutilation, one branding with acid, forty-five floggings, twenty-seven tar-andfeather parties, five kidnappings, forty-three persons warned to leave town or otherwise threatened, fourteen communities threatened by warning posters, and sixteen parades by masked men with warning placards."

After years of similar actions in the interest of "law and order," the second Klan, impelled by its antisemitism and race theories, joined with the pro-Nazi German-American Bund in 1940.

In addition to the resurgence of the Klan, the era during and after the first World War saw an eruption of private violence against numerous different groups, again often supported by high placed authorities. During a wave of agitation against German-Americans during the war, Theodore Roosevelt advocated shooting or hanging any German-American who proved to be disloyal. The APA awakened from dormancy to use violence against German-Americans, unionists, and draft evaders. Vigilante violence against the Wobblies in the Pacific Northwest took place in the context of a judicial system explicitly



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hostile to unions and largely controlled by business interests. In some of the post-war race riots, police and the military joined with other militant whites in assaults on the Black community. And where nativist violence was not officially sanctioned or well organized, whole communities sometimes rose up against "alien" ele-(ments. John Higham, in his book <u>Strangers in the Land</u>, reports:

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During the night of August 5, 1920, and all through the following day, hundreds of people laden with clothing and household goods filled the roads leading out of West Frankfort, a mining town in Southern Illinois. Back in town their homes were burning. Mobs bent on driving every foreigner from the area surged through the streets. Foreigners of all descriptions were beaten on sight, although the Italian population was the chief objective. Time and again the crowds burst into the Italian district, dragged cowering residents from their homes, clubbed and stoned them, and set fire to their dwellings. The havoc went on for three days, although five hundred state troops were rushed to the scene.

The 1930's and the early 1940's were marked largely by words and acts of violence against Jews. The pro-Nazi German-American Bund and its predecessor organization "Friends of New Germany" were primarily interested in exerting political influence in the United States as the fervor for war mounted in Europe. Its leaders were convinced that violence and bloodshed would come to America and that they would be participating in it. Along with a similar organization, the Silver Shirts of America, the Bund urged its members to prepare for armed combat.

The Christian Front was established in the late 1930's as a raucous, violence-prone anti-semitic legion inspired by Father Charles E. Coughlin, the "radio-priest" from Royal Oak, Michigan. Coughlin published an antisemitic sheet which contended that Communism was Jewish and that Hitler had come to power to prevent the introduction of Communism by Jews into Germany. The Christian Front grew, and it was predictably violent in both rhetoric and action. At a rally in Columbus Circle, New York, a Christian Front speaker called for "jewish blood to or torestand flow all over America."

In 1939 alone, 233 arrests were made of Christian Front members for trying to incite violence. The FBI CAN charged Christian Front followers with conspiring to bring about successive revolutions leading to a Christian Front takeover of the United States Government.

The evidence is abundant that white extremism and violence has not been simply an isolated phenomenon in the backwash of American history been a main current. Private violence was a central instrument, persistently used, of substantial segments of the population to persecute minorities. Too often,

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it was accompanied, applauded, or at least accepted by a dominant, largely White Anglo Saxon Protestant population, which controlled much of America's political, military, and legal power.

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True to the historical tradition, white extremism is active in the United States today and it continues to advocate and use violence to accomplish its ends.

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White extremism and militancy in the 1960's matches in fervor many of its historical precedents. Today, however, the violent or potentially violent white militant tends to speak from a position of relative political impotence, and his militancy must be seen in large part as a protest against the impotence and the insecurity it fosters. Nonetheless, the larger political order is today, as it has been in the past, implicated in the militant white movement. In some instances, the militant white receives at least qualified support from local or regional political structures. Moreover, some segments of the national political structure have engaged in rhetoric and action which has encouraged white militancy.

The year 1960 was marked by a sharp increase in the activities of the Third Ku Klux Klan. The Second Klan died during World War II, but even before V-J Day, the seeds of a new Klan were flourishing in major southern communities from Virginia to Texas. Lacking central control, the new Klan groups were reported to be more irresponsible than at any other time in history. The postwar years until 1960 were marked by splintering and dissension in the Klan movement.

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This by no means precluded Klan violence. Through the late 1940's and the 1950's Southern Klans, acting independently of each other, resumed the violence of the earlier Klans. Throughout the South, Klans terrorized blacks, flogged them, and murdered them. The Klan rhetoric was as vicious and as filled with hate as it had ever been. The Supreme Court's decision on school desegregation in 1954 inspired the Klans to even greater activity.

In 1960, the previously splintered Klans consolidated into the National Knights of the KKK. The new group showed its strength in a series of cross-burnings on March 26, 1960, and newspapers in the South reported sightings of more than 1,000 fiery crosses through the Southern states. There is evidence that Klansmen from Florida and Southern Georgia were mobilized for and took part in the race riots that lasted for almost a week in Jacksonville, Florida, beginning on "Axe-handle Saturday", August 27, 1950. Klansmen converged on the city, bought axe-handles and baseball bats from local stores, and went to battle.

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The new Klan, however, has striven for a respectable image in recent years. Robert Shelton, head of the largest of the Klan organizations, the United Klans of America, has reportedly discouraged the use of violence by members. Nonetheless, violence is too ingrained in the ideology and the structure of the Klan to be thrown off easily, and local groups and individuals are not easily controlled. The murders of civil rights worker Viola Liuzzo in Alabama and of Negro educator Lemuel Penn in Georgia were the result of relatively disorganized "patrolling" efforts by local Klan units. Further, even the "official" repudiation of violence is qualified by the Klan's perception of the threat it faces and the urgency of its goals. The major political goal of the Klan today is to halt integration and the implementation of equal rights for Blacks. But in the curious fashion of previous extremist movements, the Klan extends its hostility to Jews, communists, and others. It preaches violence, opposes firearms control and urges its members to arm themselves; it insists that its only interest is self-defense.

The more recently formed Mississippi White Knights of the Ku Klux Klan has been the source of much of the violence against civil-rights workers in the mid-1960's. The group arose during, and in response to, the intensive civil rights activity in the state after a long period of Klan dormancy. Thirty-six White Knights have recently been arrested on charges of terrorism, including suspicion of at least seven murders. Much of this terrorist activity took place during the summer of 1964. The group has been held responsible for the killing of three civil rights workers in Neshoba County, Mississippi, during that summer, and the organization's leader along with the Neshoba Deputy Sheriff is now appealing Federal conviction for that episode.

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The Mississippi White Knights have remained in the forefront of white violence. In 1966, the head of the Hattiesburg chapter of the NAACP was killed in a shooting and firebombing on his home by carloads of White Knights. In 1967, the head of the NAACP's Natchez chapter was killed when a bomb was planted in his car. The group is suspected of burning some 75 churches.

The White Knights have stressed that the major source of their effectiveness is favorable public opinion. Their leader, Sam Bowers has written: "As long as they are on our side we can do just about anything to our enemies with impunity." As a general rule, Klan success '

throughout the South has come primarily in those areas where state and local leaders and police have been most militant in resisting civil rights activity. This conforms to a point made many years ago by Gunnar Myrdal in his classic study of the Negro problem in the United States (An American Dilemma). Myrdal pointed out that private and public defenders of segregation in the South during the 1940's endorsed violations of law and engaged in what we now call civil disobedience. This was even more apparent after the Supreme Court decision in 1954. first hand from their contact with white The Black learned/ authorities in the South that the most effective tactic in a struggle with a law perceived as unjust is civil disobédience---and perhaps even violence.

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Over the years, local and state juries and courts suised have acquired an impressive record of failing to prosecute or convict in crimes against civil rights workers. Even the Federal government was not very vigorous in prosecution until the summer of 1964. Perhaps one of the most encouraging developments of the decade is the increasing tendency of Southern states to prosecute and Southern juries to convict. An all-white jury in the Neshoba case brought forth a conviction. Also [add other

There have been other violent segregationist groups at work in the South. The National States Rights Party, with headquarters in Birmingham and membership in several non-Southern states, is anti-Semitic as well as anti-Negro. Founded in 1958 as a political party emphasizing political action to accomplish what the Klan had so often used violence to achieve, the NSRP is an outgrowth of an earlier group called the Columbians. The Columbians was a guerilla group, which, in the late 1940's, organized an armed plot to overthrow the Georgia State government. Despite its emphasis on political action, the NSRP has been extremely active in Southern racial violence. In 1957 and 1958, there was a rash of bombing incidents in the South against Synagogues and other Jewish institutions. Finally, five men were caught in an attempt to bomb a synagogue and were identified as having close affiliations with the NSRP. Moreover, an NSRP member has been implicated in the bombing of a Birmingham church in 1963 in which four Black children died. The group is also credited with a good deal of the violence accompanying racial disorders in St. Augustine, Florida in 1963. Connie Lynch, a speaker and organizer for NSRP, has been especially vile in his vilification. After the bombing of the Birmingham church he said:

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urban violence directed against blacks. Militancy seems to be increasing among some segments of the population of the northern and western cities, principally in reaction to black civil-rights activity, the ghetto riots, and a fear of increasing crime committed by blacks.

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One indication of the depth of the new militancy is the body of evidence showing that a sizable segment of the urban population is willing to arm itself and use violence to defend itself against black disorder. Many Northern whites organize in support of harsh police measures against rioters -- as, for example, the 12,500 signers of a petition organized by the Paterson (N.J.) Taxpayers Association urging the "use of all force reasonably necessary" to put down civil disorders. (Similarly, polls revealed that most Americans approved the violent response of Chicago Police to anti-war demonstraters at the Democratic Convention last summer.) Beyond sanctioning the use of official violence, many urban whites express a willingness to use private violence. A Harris poll taken in September 1967, indicated that 55 per cent of a sample of white gun owners said they would use their gun to shoot other people in case of a riot; 41 per cent of whites with incomes under \$5,000 expressed the fear that their home or neighborhood

would be affected in a riot as compared with 34 per cent of all whites. A study of white reaction to the Los Angeles riot of 1965 indicates that the willingness to use guns and personal fear of riot are related. Some 23 per cent of a sample of whites said that they had felt a great deal of fear for themselves or their families. However, nearly half of those who had considered the use of firearms were also among those who had . felt a great deal of fear. Willingness to use guns was highest in lower income communities and in integrated communities at all income levels; it was also highest among whites living in close proximity to Negroes, among men, the young, the less educated, and those in three occupational categories: managers and proprietors, craftsmen and foremen, and operatives. The high degree of willingness to use violence on the part of high income whites living close to blacks suggests that fear is a great equalizer of class distinctions.

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Expressing willingness to use guns in the face of a riot, of course, is not the same as actually doing so. Since the recent riots have been contained within the black ghettos themselves, we do not know whether behavior will follow attitudes with regard to the use of guns. We do know that white urban and suburban residents have been buying guns in the aftermath of civil disorders. A Los Angeles study found that 5 per cent of their sampled whites did buy firearms or ammunition during the Watts riot to protect themselves and their families; another 7 per cent already had guns and ammunition available. In Detroit, more than twice as many guns were registered in the first five months of 1968 than in the corresponding five months of 1967; the increase followed the riots of August 1967. A similar trend appears to have occurred in Newark. White neighborhoods were not significantly threatened in any of these riots.

Further light on the potential for white violence is shed by a study prepared for the Kerner Commission which attempted to pinpoint the "potential white rioter." A sample of whites was asked whether, in case of a Negro riot in their city, they should "do some rioting against them" or leave the matter for the authorities to handle. Five per cent of the whites advocated counter-rioting; for men the figure was 8 per cent. Surburban whites were slightly less inclined to advocate a counter-riot than were city whites. Less educated whites tended to support counter-rioting, and there was

* Interestingly, the handgun used to kill Senator Robert Kennedy was purchased for self-defense at the time of the Watts riot.

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a striking degree of advocacy of counter-riot by teenage males, 21 per cent of whom felt they should riot against Negroes. This percentage is slightly higher than the percentage of Negro teenagers who said they would join a riot if one occurred in their city.

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Again, the degree to which these attitudes are, or might be, expressed in behavior is unknown. Nevertheless, studies of recent riots indicate that a significant number of "riot-related" arrests of whites has taken place. Occasionally, as in the Detroit riot of 1967, whites have been arrested on charges of looting, apparently in cooperation with blacks. Studies show more frequently, however, that white males have been arrested beyond or near the perimeters of riot areas for "looting outside the riot areas, riding through the area armed, refusing to recognize a police perimeter, shooting at Negroes." Such incidents were particularly apparent in the New Haven, Plainfield, Dayton, and Cincinnati riots of 1967. The white counter-riot, of course, has historical precedent. In fact, most of the Northern race riots before 1935 involved pitched battles between whites and blacks with working-class white youths particularly in evidence.

The participation of white working-class youth in violence against civil rights activists and against

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blacks moving into white neighborhoods has been noted in many Northern cities. In Chicago, for example, white youth were especially prominent in the Trumbull Park housing disturbances of the late 1950's, the assault on civil rights activists attempting to integrate South Side beaches in the early 1960's, and the violence accompanying Martin Luther King's activity in the West Side in 1966. Militant white youths have been active in several racially troubled areas of Chicago in 1968. In Blue Island, for example, sixtyseven white youths were arrested after harassing and beating Negroes following an incident in which two young whites were shot. Schools in many areas of the country, in recent months, have been disrupted by conflict between black and white youngsters. The new militancy of black high school students is being countered in some areas by a corresponding white student militancy. In Trenton, New Jersey, for example, militant white high school students, many carrying signs reading "white power", boycotted classes protesting incidents of "roughing-up" by black students.

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Although youth have been prominent in relatively disorganized instances of militant white violence, the major efforts at organized militancy have been made by adults who comprise the leadership of various neighborhood defense organizations which have appeared in several places outside of the South. Some of these, like the "Breakthrough" organization in Detroit, urge members to "study, arm, store provisions, and organize"; a similar group called "Fight Back" in Warren, Michigan argues that "The only way to stop them is at the city limits." Others focus less on arms training and storage, concentrating on community patrols to discourage black intrusion. The most significant of these urban vigilante groups is the North Ward Citizens Committee of Newark which operates patrols of the neighborhood and trains its members in Karate. Its leader, Anthony Imperiale, who has recently been elected to the Newark City Council denies that his is a vigilante organization. He said in an interview for this Commission:

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The anti-vigilante bill will do nothing because I am not a vigilante. I am 100 per cent for a paramilitary law because that would outlaw people dressed in uniforms getting together and practicing sabotage and overthrow of the government. I am not out to overthrow the government. I love the government and I am trying to save it.

Newark's North Ward is a primarily Italian-American neighborhood with a large and growing black population, adjacent to the predominantly black Central Ward, which was the scene of the Newark riot of 1967. The strident nativism of the North Ward Citizens Committee reflects the ironies of the process of ethnic succession in America. Not too long ago, according to John Higham's

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Strangers in the Land:

The Italians were often thought to be the most degraded of the European newcomers. They were swarthy, more than half of them were illiterate, and almost all were victims of a standard of living lower than that of any of the other prom-inent nationalities. They were the ragpickers and the poorest of common laborers; in one large city their earnings averaged forty percent less than those of the general slum-dweller. Wherever they went, a distinctive sobriquet followed them. "You don't call an Italian a white man?" a West Coast con-dtruction boss was asked. "No sir," he answered, "an Italian is a Dago." Also, they soon acquired a reputation as bloodthingth; entriple a reputation as bloodthirsty criminals. Since Southern Italians had never learned to fight with their fists, knives flashed when they brawled among themselves or jostled with other immigrants. Soon a penologist was wondering how the country could build prisons which Italians would not prefer to their own slum quarters. On the typical Italian the prison expert commented: "The knife with which he cuts his bread he also uses to lop off another 'Dago's' finger or ear...he is quite as familiar with the sight of human blood as with the sight of the food he eats.

Today, of course, the situation has shifted considerably, and the North Ward Italians feel themselves beleaguered by a hoarde of criminal blacks, instigated

by radicals.

Paramilitary groups of white militants in the United States today are preparing for armed combat with forces they believe have already taken over the government.

A revised version of the Declaration of Independence, written by the leader of a white militant organization, expresses the rationale for a secret, armed underground guerrilla movement in America today:

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"When a free and sovereign people find their elected servants in government, and their appointed advisors, following a course of action contrary to their oath of office, destructive to the Constitution they have sworn to uphold, and leading relentlessly to the less of their freedom and their sovereignty, they must perforce take the most effective action to restore same constitutional government, or perish as a free and sovereign people.

The course of action deemed most effective by paramilitary groups is the organization of a powerful, armed resistance force.

Just such a course of action occurred to ten sportsmen on a duck shoot a decade ago. One of the hunters was Robert Bolivar DePugh, a Missouri drug manufacturer with a history of business failures. As a result of talks that day, DePugh became the founder and leader of the Minutemen, a paramilitary, underground organization dedicated to fighting "the Communist takeover" of the United States.

The Minutemen, best known of the paramilitary groups in this country, set up headquarters in Norborne,

Missouri. In 1968, however, DePugh was indicted for conspiracy to rob a Seattle bank and went into hiding. The Minutemen also moved to an undisclosed "underground headquarters." Informed estimates place active Minutemen membership between 2,000 and 20,000--probably close to 8,000--nationally, with heaviest concentration along the West Coast (particularly around Los Angeles and Seattle), the Southwest, and the Midwest (especially the St. Louis and Kansas City areas).

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Minutemen believe that Communists are in substantial control of American politics, education, and communication; that liberals and fellow-travelers are working hand-inhand, knowingly or unwittingly, with the hard-core Communists in preparation for a total Communist takeover of the country. By the reckoning of the Minutemen, this takeover will occur in the near future on an unspecified date referred to as "The Day" and patriotic Americans will have to take to the countryside with their guns to defend the country.

Like radical blacks and radical students, the Minutemen reject the democratic system as a means of political change. In July, 1966, DePugh established a "Political party" known as the Patriotic Party, but it is a Minutemen front organization with a program that reflects disillusionment with the traditional political process. Thus, the Patriotic Party's precepts are that "(1) political action <u>alone</u> will not suffice; (2) a new political party cannot win <u>by conventional means</u>; (3) a new party <u>can</u> win if it serves its proper function as the political arm of a complete patriotic resistance movement."

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Minutemen see themselves as "America's last line of defense" and believe that violence is justified to meet the grave threat to American principles. In 1961, DePugh issued a booklet entitled <u>Principles of Guerrilla</u> <u>Warfare</u>. Borrowing heavily from Mao Tse Tung and Che Guevara, DePugh listed 50 principles, ranging from methods of ambush and sniping to bombing and sabotage.

In his November, 1965 <u>Bulletin</u>, DePugh provided his members with the formula and directions for making nitroglycerin and the full details of the precise processes used in making "simple" plastic bombs, detonators, fuses, Molotov cocktails, and incendiary devises--complete with directions on how they should be used.

The rhetoric of the Minutemen is violent and specific: In 1963, for example, the Minutemen publication <u>On Target</u> listed the names of 20 Congressmen who had voted against the House Committee on Un-American Activities, and prefaced the list with the following warning to Congressmen: ...Patriots are not going to let you take their freedom away from them. They have learned the silent knife, the strangler's cord, the target rifle that hits sparrows at 200 yeards. Only their leaders restrain them. Traitors beware! Even now the cross-hairs are on the back of your necks.

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These words are often prefaced by the statement. below and printed on posters and stickers, to serve as part of Minutemen psychological warfare against their "enemy":

> See the old man at the corner where you buy your papers? He may have a silencer equipped pistol under his coat. That extra fountain pen in the pocket of the insurance salesman who calls on you might be a cyanide gun. What about your milkman? Arsenic works slow but sure. Your auto mechanic may stay up nights studying booby traps...

These words evoke memories of the World War II anti-Nazi Resistance fighters and their deadly effectiveness. Melodramatic as they are, they must be considered in the context of the kind of people who read them. Recent events linked to Minutemen have included an attempted bank robbery near Seattle (complete with plans for dynamiting of police and power stations), an assault on a peace group in Connecticut which involved a close-range gun battle with police and four wounded, and an attempted assault on three camps in the New York area which allegedly had been used at various times by left-wing and pacifist groups.

In the last incident, some 20 Minutemen were

arrested and the following weapons and equipment were

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confiscated:

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125 rifles, single or automatic; ten pipe bombs; five mortars; 12 .30 caliber machine guns; 25 handguns; 20 sets of brass knuckles with knives attached; 220 knives of various sorts; 1 bazooka; 3 grenade launchers; 6 hand grenades; 50 80-mm. mortar shells; 1 million rounds of ammunition of all kinds; chemicals for preparing bomb detonators; 30 walkie talkies and other communication devices, including short-wave equipment capable of intercepting police radio messages; 50 camouflage suits with boots and steel helmets; and, of all things, a crossbow.

Minutemen arrested in connection with these assaults included a milkman, two mechanics, a grocery clerk, a cab driver, a gardner, a bus driver, a fireman, a plasterer, a landscape artist, a draftsman, an airport steward, a church maintenance man, a horse groom, a heavy equipment operator, a longshoreman, a civilian driver for a U. S. Army base, and a ship's oiler. Those arrested and the equipment confiscated make the spy-movie rhetoric of Minutemen messages seem a little less absurd.

A considerable amount of effort is spent by Minutemen gathering intelligence on potential targets (power and communications centers, arms supplies, etc.) and on infiltration of legitimate agencies. Minutemen have attempted, with some success, to infiltrate police forces, National Guard units, even the reserve unit of the U. S. Army's 11th Special Forces--the "Green Berets." Our study of assassination and political violence in America indicates that the United States has been virtually free of political or conspiratorial assassination used as a tactic to overthrow the government or seize power. We did find, however, that conditions may be present now or in the near future which give rise to this invidious type of assassination. The Minutemen illustrate the danger.

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In April, 1966, a former top lieutenant in the Minutemen testified under subpoena before a Federal Grand Jury that at one meeting of the Minutemen there was talk of assassinating Senator J. William Fulbright, but that the plan was called off by leader DePugh just before the attempt was to be made for fear that subsequent investigations might endanger the organization. Both DePugh and his former Lieutenant told a Kansas City <u>Star</u> reporter in an interview that talk of assassinating Senator Fulbright grew out of a scheme for "gaining control of the government." The plan, according to the <u>Star</u> was "to threaten certain members of Congress, telling them to start voting American or they would be killed."

Prior to the Federal investigation of the Minutemen, the ex-Lieutenant had told Kansas City's Jackson County Prosecutor of Minutemen plans to tour the country poisoning politicans and Communists with strychnine, and of a suggestion to place poison either in the air conditioning or water system of the United Nations headquarters in New York.

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The County Prosecutor told newsmen that shotgun blasts had shattered the home of his aide who had conducted a weapons raid against Minutemen.

New York State Attorney General Louis J. Lefkowitz in a report to Governor Nelson Rockefeller in October 1967, told of plots by the Minutemen to assassinate such prominent political figures as Vice-President Humphrey, Chief Justice Earl Warren and Governor Rockefeller himself.

The Minuteman have been unable to organize themselves for political action in an effective sense. They remain a loose collection of armed guerrilla bands. Their attempts at alliance with other groups have met with little success. The Minutemen were allied with the John Birch Society until DePugh was expelled from that organization in 1964. Informal affiliation remains, and some of the Minutemen arrested in the New York assault attempt were also Birch members. Individual Minutemen have had connections with the Nazi Party and the Klan. The National States Rights Party cut off its support of the Minutemen in 1964 on the grounds that the Minutemen had "gone too far." While the highly individualistic ideology and loose control over membership hamper effective organizational activities, they may increase the potential for localized violence by individual members and units.

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There are other paramilitary, extremist white organizations. The American Nazi Party has exhorted its members to arm, kill Jews, and do battle with the Black Panthers. Its founder, George Lincoln Rockwell was shot to death in a Virginia laundromat in 196_ by a former Party member. (Check details.) The Fighting American Nationalists, the Soldiers of the Cross, and the Christian Youth Corps all stockpile arms and ammunition, plan for guerrilla warfare against "traitors," and fill the air with anti-Semitic, anti-Negro hate rhetoric.

Such paramilitary extremist groups are not new in this country's history, but neither are they unimportant. Because they are often illegal and usually conspiratorial, we know too little about them and the potential danger they represent. Paramilitary groups have been characterized by instability of organization; they are constantly fragmenting, dissolving, forming and reforming alliances, and undergoing rapid turnover of membership. As one observer has noted, they represent a frame of mind more than an organization, or an attitude in search of an organization. It is not inconceivable that under certain circumstances such paramilitary movements may cohere and become more effective. Their potential for mischief and violence, already great, could become even more of

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a threat to the civil peace.

(ducod who hite militants and extremists, like their black counterparts, are alienated from the larger society. Socially and economically disadvantaged, disillusioned with the social and political system, angry over the circumstances of their lives, they resort to intolerant and often violent behavior.

Who are the white militants and extremists? What are the causes of their discontent and why is their anger expressed so frequently in racial, ethnic, or religious intolerance? What is the relationship between the larger society and the minority of militants and extremists?

We know too little about the psychological and sociological causes of prejudice and extremism to answer these questions precisely. Historical, cultural, economic, and situational factors are all obviously involved. At best, we can describe the characteristics of white militants and extremists, listen to their words, observe their behavior, evaluate the environment in which they thrive, and offer some speculative conclusions.

The plight of blacks is now well documented and well known by contemporary America. The deprivations and injustices they have suffered are now a matter of record. Millions of <u>white</u> Americans have suffered a similar fate, and this is not so well known. There are more than 3⁴ million Americans--more than 9 million families--who do not have enough money to provide even basic necessities of life--who lack adequate housing, adequate food, and adequate clothing. To count these people in terms of percentages of some larger population is not only not helpful, but misleading and injurious, for poverty is an individual calamity, not a statistic. Poverty of this type is not measured against some standard fixed by a government agency, but against the ability to survive.

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Such poverty stalks both rural and urban America. In rural America there are 14 million people subsisting on incomes of less than \$3,000 annually. Eleven million of these are white. More than 70 per cent of America's rural poor families struggle along on less than \$2,000 a year, and one in four exists on less than \$1,000 a year.

The remaining 20 million poor Americans live in cities, and again poor whites far outnumber poor nonwhites. The problem of rural poor and urban poor is in some measure a single problem, for many of those families which cannot eke out a living in the countryside finally gather together the little hope and energy left to them and move to urban centers. Generally, they end up in white ghettos.

The South--scene of so much of the violence in our history--is also the location of many of America's poor. One out of every two poor families in America lives in the South, and one-sixth of all white families in the South are poor as compared to one-tenth of families outside the South. In 1964, the median family income in the United States was \$3,840, but in the South it was only \$2,900.

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Between the destitute poor and the relatively affluent middle class, are many millions of Americans whose desires and expectations exceed what they actually receive from life. At the lower end of this group are the near poor, who subsist only slightly better than the destitute, whose lives are rather dismal and difficult struggles to hold their place on the economic ladder. Also in this group of Americans are the working class and lower-middle-class. In the South these tend to be White anglo-saxon protestants; in the urban centers of the North they are more likely to be from ethnic groups (especially Southern and Eastern European). Robert Wood, former head of the Department of Housing and Urban Development said in a speech last June:

Let us consider the working American--the average white ethnic male:

He is the ordinary employee in factory and in office. Twenty million strong, he forms the bulk

of the nation's working force. He makes five to ten thousand dollars a year; has a wife and two children; owns a house in town--between the (black) ghetto and the suburbs, or perhaps in a low-cost subdivision on the urban fringe; and he owes plenty in installment debts on his car and appliances.

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The average white working man has no capital, no stocks, no real estate holdings, except for his home, to leave to his children. Despite the gains hammered out by his union, his job security is far from complete. Layoffs, reductions, automation, and plant relocation remain the invisible witches at every christening. He finds his tax burden is heavy; his neighborhood services, poor; his national image, tarnished; and his political clout diminishing...

All such Americans are obviously not white militants and white extremists. But those Americans who are generally come from these ranks. Leadership positions in such organizations as the Ku Klux Klan and the Minutemen are often held by middle-class, professional, or even well-to-do, but the rank-and-file membership has generally come from the working classes and the poor.

The South and the Ku Klux Klan provide a clear illustration. The flourishing white violence in the South must be seen against the background of major social and economic changes which have produced in many areas of the region this dispossessed and amorphous class of marginal whites. Increasing industrialization has shifted the center of influence to a rising middle class, frequently Republican and increasingly affluent.

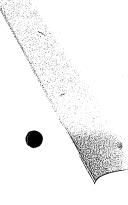
Simultaneously, industrialization has effectively begun to undermine the caste order in the economic realm. Jobs formerly "white" have been entered by Negroes, especially in the burgeoning area of the southern economy composed of industries working in part on government contracts. At the same time that caste controls over black economic competition are crumbling under the impact of economic rationalization, a pervasive economic insecurity exists throughout much of a region that is still essentially underdeveloped. Whites who have owned little more than their own white skin and controlled little more than local behavior of the blacks find themselves being left with only their white skin. Ironically, the powerlessness and impotence they experience is akin to that long experienced by black Americans who have been victimized by the same profound forces.

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The Klan, these white Americans believe, has something to offer them. The Klan rhetoric reflects the strong sense of distributive injustice which these whites feel. Klansmen have criticized the extent of Federal anti-poverty funds given to blacks in the face of white poverty, and complain that riots have brought blacks federal largesse while the law-abiding, poor white must work and receives no federal help. "Health, Education, and Welfare is nigger health, nigger education, and nigger welfare; they have done nothing about yours," a Klan leader tells his members. He goes on to point out that those who advocate integration are those who can afford to live in exclusive white neighborhoods or send their children to private schools.

The racist thrust of southern white protest has largely obscured the fact that the grievances expressed by the poor whites are valid and genuine and that they have been largely ignored. In an important sense, racism has successfully channeled the strident political protest of these whites into expressions which support the existing political and social arrangements in the South without doing anything to correct the sources of the grievances. Klan violence represents the thwarted displaced political protest of whites acting from a context of economic insecurity, threatened manhood, and inability to influence local and national political structures. Again, the conditions parallel those of poor blacks and lends credence to the charge that "The establishment fears war between the races less than an alliance between them."

The situation of the militant white in the urban north is similar. Robert Wood's description of the average white ethnic male working man continues with this comment:



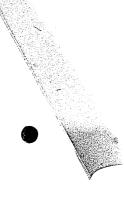
((6

One comes to understand his tension in the face of the aspiring black minority. He notes his place on the lower runs of the economic ladder. He sees the movement of black families as a threat to his home values. He reads about rising crime rates in city streets and feels this is a direct challenge to his family. He thinks the busing of his children to unfamiliar and perhaps inferior schools will blight their chance for a sound education. He sees only one destination for the minority movement--his job.

42

As has been the case historically, our social and political institutions have not yet found ways of accommodating both the legitimate grievances of aspiring minorities and the grievances of those who feel the threat of displacement. Nor have those institutions significantly lessened the danger of physical violence or criminal victimization which accompany life on the fringes of the slums. Consequently, the white urban dweller is insecure; while his fear may be exaggerated, it has a basis in the grim realities of contemporary urban life. Under present conditions, his property may indeed decline in value when blacks move into his neighborhood. He does have to cope directly with the problem of "crime in the streets."

Anthony Imperiale's North Ward Citizens Committee was formed to deal with just such a situation. His members--largely of Italian origin--see the neighborhood they have worked so hard to build deteriorating. They strongly resent the concentration of state and federal money being poured into the black community.



- 43 -

Imperiale says:

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Are there no poor whites? But the Negroes get all the antipoverty money. When pools are being built in the Central Ward, don't they think the white kids have got frustration? The whites are the majority. You know how many of them come to me, night after night, because they can't get a job? They've been told, "we have to hire Negroes first."

In August, Imperiale's headquarters was bombed, and he has been highly critical of the lack of response by police and city officials. "What makes me mad," he declares, "is that if the bombing had happened in the Central Ward, there would have been all kinds of FBI agents and authorities. When we get bombed, neither the mayor, the governor nor anyone else said it was a bad thing to have happened. No statement whatsoever was made in the papers."

The paramilitary organizations, like the Minutemen, are similarly alienated. Minutemen membership is predominantly male, of Western European ancestry and at least nominal Christianity; at least one half are blue collar workers. There are few professional or salaried white collar workers in the Minutemen, but an over-representation of small proprietors. In an important sense, the worker, the urban clerk, the small-town businessman have been overwhelmed by social developments beyond his capacity to understand or control. It can be argued that the source

of his complaint is not "communism" at all, but rather it is a form of capitalism which has been imposed from the outside. The new capitalism is not the classic capitalism of America so cherished by entrepreneurial / most Americans; it is the newer, bigger, corporate capitalism of contemporary America. The new capitalism while creating new opportunities and new security for large business and for much of organized labor and making possible the rudimentary welfare state aid to the poor, has largely passed by those in the various occupational backwaters which the Minutemen membership represents. The benefits -- tax loopholes, government contracts, controlled markets, and the like--accruing to large-scale corporate capitalism are not available to them; nor, for many are the benefits of organized labor. Increasingly left behind in the thrust of these developments, the marginal white feels all of the strains of modern life without most of its benefits.

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A Partial Chronology

APPENDIX 1

(The following chronology does not purport to be a complete record of the acts of violence, arson and intimidation which have taken place in the South in the period be tween September, 1962, and April, 1965. Nor is each episode necessarily attributable directly to the activity of the Ku Klux Klans. But knowledgeable observers believe that most acts of violence in the South in recent years are the work of the Klans, individuals working closely with the Klans, or Klan-type elements.)

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| . • | | 1962 | May 12 | Anniston Ala. | Shots were fired at the homes of two Negroes. On May 20, a one-time |
|----------|-----------------------|---|-----------|--------------------|---|
| Sept. 1 | Louisiana | Crosses were burned by the Klan in front of the state capitol in Baton Rouge; three Negro schools in Hodge and near Bosco; at a Negro Minister's home in Bastrop; and in eleven other north Louisiana towns. | | | Klan leader, Kenneth Adams, was arrested and on May 25 was con- victed for these assaults. He was sentenced to 180 days in jail and fined \$100 on each of the shooting counts. Freed on bond pending an appeal. (Adams was also accused of |
| Sept. 3 | Albany Ga. | A cross was burned at a Klan meet- ing. | | | firing a shot into a Negro church on May 12. On April 8, 1964, a jury found him innocent.) |
| Sept. 5 | Dallas Ga. | A group of masked riders attempted to force their way into the home of a Negro, but were forced to flee when they were fired on. | May 17 | Alexandria La. | A cross was burned in front of the home of relatives of a Negro youth who was in jail, charged with rape of a white woman. |
| Oct. 4 | Greenville Miss. | A cross was burned near the home of Hodding Carter, editor-publisher of the Delta Democrat-Times. | June 8 | Tuscaloosa Ala. | A cross was burned at a Klan meet- ing. |
| Oct. 13 | Birmingham Ala. | A man was beaten at a Klan rally after he declared: "Mob violence is no answer to anything." | June 18 | Gillett Ark. | A dynamite blast blew out the front door of a Negro church. |
| Dec. 14 | Birmingham ,- Ala. | The New Bethel Baptist Church, a Negro church, was damaged by a bomb. | June 26 | Gulfport Miss. | An explosion damaged the offices of a Negro doctor, who was president of the local NAACP chapter. |
| | | 1963 | June 30 | Jackson Miss. | An explosion collapsed a two-family frame house; four Negro men es- caped injury. |
| | ` | 1902 | | | , |
| Feb. 4 | Mobile Ala. | A cross was burned in front of the home of a Negro minister, who had | July 14 | Atlanta Ga. | A cross was burned at a Klan meet- ing. |
| Feb. 7 | Bossier City | urged desegregation of a high school. Four men were arrested following | July 27 | Anderson S. C. | Klan meeting featured a cross burn- ing. |
| | La. | the painting of some 30 KKK signs • on sidewalks, stores, buildings, traf- fic signs and driveways. | August 15 | Birmingham Ala. | Tear gas bombs were detonated at a department store which had recent- ly been desegregated. |
| March 24 | Birmingham Ala. | A bomb exploded at the home of a Negro, injuring two of the five occupants. | August 21 | Birmingham Ala. | The home of Negro attorney Arthur D. Shores was bombed. |
| May 11 | Birmingham Ala. | Blasts ripped the home of Rev. A. D. King and the A. C. Gaston Motel. | August 26 | Columbia S. C. | A packet of dynamite blew a crater near the home of a Negro girl, |
| | | | | | |

Violence and Intimidation in the South-A Partial Chronology

APPENDIX 1

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| Dec. 14 | Birmingham 7 Ala. | no answer to anything." The New Bethel Baptist Church, a Negro church, was damaged by a bomb. | June 26 | Gulfport Miss. | An explosion damaged the offices of a Negro doctor, who was president of the local NAACP chapter. |
| | | 1963 | June 30 | Jackson Miss. | An explosion collapsed a two-family frame house; four Negro men es- caped injury. |
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| | | | | | |

| ۰. | | scheduled to enter the University of S.C. | Nov. 19 | Tuscaloosa Ala. | A dynamite bomb exploded near the dormitory of a Negro co-ed at the University of Alabama. |
|------------------|-----------------------|--|---------|----------------------|--|
| August 26 | Buras La. | An explosion wrecked a classroom and started a fire in an integrated Catholic school. | Dec. 8 | Dawson Ga. | Gunfire and an explosion damaged the home of a Negro voter-registra- tion worker. |
| Sept. 1 | Winnsboro La. | Crosses were burned in front of several schools, one night after a Klan rally. | | • • | • • • |
| Sept. 4 | Birmingham Ala. | The home of Arthur D. Shores was blasted again. | | • | 1964 |
| Sept. 7 | Ocala Fla. | A 35-foot cross was burned at a Klan rally. | January | McComb Miss. | A cross was burned in front of a Negro minister's home. |
| Sept. 8 | Birmingham Ala. | The home of A. C. Gaston, an in- fluential Negro, was bombed. | Jan. 18 | Louisiana | More than 150 crosses were burned near Negro homes, churches and schools in five parishes. |
| S ept. 15 | Birmingham Ala. | The bombing of the 16th Street Baptist Church resulted in the death of four Negro girls. | Jan. 25 | Atlanta Ga. | During civil rights demonstrations, Klansmen clashed with Negro stu- dents. |
| Sept. 18 | St. Augustine Fla. | Four Negroes were beaten when they drove their car near a Klan rally. Four Klansmen were arrested | Jan. 31 | Vicksburg Miss. | Crosses were burned in seven dif- ferent places. |
| | | on Sept. 19 and released on bond. On Oct. 16, one of the beaten Ne- groes was convicted of assaulting two of the Klansmen. On Nov. 5, a | Feb. 15 | Black Lake La. | Klan burned a cross at a meeting. |
| | | jury found one of the Klansmen innocent, and charges against the other three were dismissed. | Feb. 16 | Jacksonville Fla. | A bomb caused extensive damage to the home of a 6-year-old Negro boy who attended a previously all-white school. On March 3, William Ster- ling Rosecrans, a "close associate" |
| Sept. 25 | Birmingham Ala. | Two bombs were exploded in a Ne- gro neighborhood. | • | | of North Florida KKK leaders, was arrested and charged with the bomb- ing. On March 12, the FBI arrested five Klansmen, Barton H. Griffin, |
| Sept. 30 | Birmingham Ala. | State Police arrested two men in connection with racial bombings. The suspects, Robert E. Chambliss | | | Jacky Don Harden, Willie Eugene Wilson, Donald Eugene Spegal and Robert Pittman Gentry, in connec- |
| | | and Charles Cagle, had Klan records. A third man, John W. Hall, was subsequently arrested. On Oct. 9 the City Recorder found the men guilty | | | tion with the bombing. On March 13, Rosecrans, who is from Indiana, pleaded guilty and a month later (April 17) was sentenced to seven the restrict on D lune 30 |
| i . | • • | of possessing dynamite and sen- tenced them to 180-day jail sen- tences and \$100 fines. The three were released on bond. On June 16 | | | years in Federal prison. On June 30, the five Klansmen went on trial and a week later Jacky Don Harden and Robert Pittman Gentry were ac- |
| | | and 18, 1964, they were found not guilty by a jury. | | • | quitted. A mistrial was declared in the cases of the other three Klans- men. Retrial began on November 16 and nine days later a jury ac- |
| Nov. 16 | Tuscaloosa Ala. | Two explosions, 18 hours apart, shattered windows in a Negro neigh- borhood and jolted the University of Alabama campus. | | | quitted the Klansmen of charges they conspired to violate the civil rights of the 6-year-old Negro boy. |
| Nov. 16 | Rayville La. | Over 1,000 Klansmen assembled amid the glow of burning crosses. | Apr. 18 | Notasulga Ala. | The Macon County High School was destroyed by a fire. The school had recently been ordered to deseg- |
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|---------|-----------------------|---|------------|--------------------|---|---|
| • | | regate, and white students were boy- cotting it. | . . | بعمر) | six Negro civil rights workers. Pas- sengers were spat upon, cursed and | • |
| , · . | • | | | E. | threatened. | |
| April | Bogalusa La. | Three men in black hoods abducted a millworker, accused him of failing | June 21 | Philadelphia | Three civil rights workers, two of | |
| . * | • | to support his child, beat him with a pistol and whipped him. | | Miss. | them white, were murdered. On Dec. 4, the FBI arrested twenty-one men, charging them with conspiring to violate the constitutional rights | С |
| April | Jackson La. | Bob Wagner, a newsman, was seized by Klansmen near one of their meet- ings, and was beaten. | | | of the three young men. Several of the defendants were members of the Klan. The men were released on | |
| | | ······································ | | | bond. On Dec. 10, a U.S. Commis- sioner dismissed the charges against | |
| May 2 | Jackson Miss. | Two young Negroes disappeared and their bodies were accidently found in the Mississippi River in July by a large group of men who were looking for three missing civil rights workers. On Nov. 6 two men, one an acknowledged member of | | | 19 of them. On Jan. 11, 1965, the Government presented to a Federal Grand Jury the confessions of two of the men, one of whom is an ac- knowledged member of a Klan. The Grand Jury handed down in- dictments on Jan. 15 against most | |
| | | the Klan, were arrested on charges of killing the Negroes. They were freed on bond pending a trial. | | | of the original defendants. On Feb. 25, a U. S. District Court judge dis- missed felony indictments against seventeen men, but ruled they must stand trial under a misdemeanor | |
| Мау | Mississippi | Crosses were burned in 64 counties on the same night. | | | charge. An eighteenth defendant was to be tried separately in Atlanta. | |
| May 29 | St. Augustine Fla. | Night-riders shot up an unoccupied beach cottage and fired into an auto- mobile, narrowly missing an aide to Dr. Martin L. King. | June 22 | McComb Miss. | The homes of two Negroes active in the civil rights movement were bombed. | |
| June 16 | Philadelphia Miss. | • | June 25 | Ruleville Miss. | A Negro church was bombed. | |
| • | 11155. | rounded the Mt. Zion Methodist Church, beat Negroes and burned the church to the ground. | June | Longdale Miss. | Another Negro church was hit by a fire bomb. | |
| june 17 | Jackson Miss. | A Negro was abducted by a group of hooded men and was flogged. | June 27 | McComb Miss. | A Molotov cocktail mixture of oil and kerosene was hurled against the front door of the McComb Enter- prise Journal. A note around the | |
| June 20 | Fayett, Miss. | A Negro civil rights worker was chased from his car by a group of white men. | | | bottle was signed "K.K.K." | |
| | | | July 4 | Enfield N. C. | Cross-burning. | |
| June | McComb Miss. | Explosions on one night occurred at the homes of two Negroes suspected | X1 | | <u></u> | |
| • | | of civil rights activities; at the bar- bershop owned by another; and at the homes of two white men who had made remarks opposing KKK | July 7 | McComb Miss. | Three explosions destroyed a sec- tion of the civil rights "Freedom House." | |
| | | violence. | ′July 11 | Ga. | Lemuel Penn, a Negro educator, along with a companion, had com- | |
| June 21 | Branson Miss. | The Sweet Rest Church of Christ Holiness was rocked by an explo- sion. | | | pleted summer training at Fort Ben- ning, Georgia. They were driving home when they were fired on and Penn was killed. On Aug. 6, four men identified as Klansmen, were | |
| June 21 | Maben Miss. | A crowd of whites, many of whom were armed, circled a car containing | | i | arrested in connection with the kill- ing. On August \$1 two white men went on trial. A third man's con- | C |
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|-----------------|------------------|--|-----------|--------------|--|
| | | ferrion | | | |
| | • | fession, repudiated, was read. | · 1 | E | tele, located across the street from a |
| • | • | On Sept. 1, a jury found the two | | C. | building housing the local Freedom |
| | • | Klansmen not guilty. On Oct. 16, | | | School. |
| · · | * | the four Klansmen, along with two | | | Calobi. |
| <i>u</i> . | | others, were indicted by a Federal | August | 15 Greensbu | rg Several crosses were burned. |
| | • | grand jury, charged with acts of in- | | La. | |
| | | timidation and violence against Ne. | | | · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · |
| | | groes. On Dec. 29, the Federal in- | Anones | 15 Greenwoo | |
| | | uctments against the six men were | l v | Miss. | |
| | | thrown out by a U.S. District Court | | | car. (He had been severely beaten |
| | | Judge. A state charge of murder is | | | the previous month.) |
| | | sum faced by the Klansman who | | 15 Jackson | A Norma and La La La La |
| | · | originally confessed a role in the | | Miss. | A Negro was shot, a white civil |
| | | slaying. Another man was charged | | | rights worker was clubbed and at |
| | | with being an accessory after the | | | least six crosses were burned. |
| | • | fact. | August 1 | 5 Mississipp | i Scores of many in the |
| July 12 | Natchez | T N | 0 | and Louis | i Scores of crosses were burned, many |
| Jul) 12 | | Two Negro churches were leveled | | and Louis. | iana of them fired at 10 p.m. by obvious |
| | Miss, . | by arsonists. | | | pre-arrangement. |
| July 18 | El. C' | | August 2 | 7 Jackson | |
| July 13 | Elm City | An attempt to burn a Negro church | | Miss. | A bomb shattered the windows and |
| | N. C. | that an integrated group planned to | · · | 141155. | doors in the office of a small weekly |
| | | paint led to the arrest of two men | | | newspaper, whose anti-Klan editor |
| | | The KKK had warned that it would | 1 | | had won a Pultizer Prize for her |
| | • | prevent efforts to conduct integrated | 1 | | crusading editorials. |
| | | projects at a church. | A | | |
| July 14 | ¥17 | | August 2: |) Natchez | A cross was burned at a Klan rally. |
| July 14 | Wesson | The owner of a gas station was beat- | 1 | Miss. | |
| | Miss. | en by three masked and hooded | | | |
| | | men. He had refused to join the | Sept. 2 | Enfield | Cross-burning. |
| | | Kian, had hired Negro help and | | N. C. | - |
| | | allowed them to use the cash regis- | | | 1 |
| | | ter. | Sept. 3 | Enfield | Several crosses were burned. |
| July 17 | Nr.0. 1 | | 1 | N. C. | and a serie burned. |
| July II | McComb | The Zion Hill Freewill Baptist | 1 | | |
| • | Miss. | Church was burned, and two men | Sept. 6 | Canton | A dynamite black size at at |
| | | were roughed up by three white men. | | Miss. | A dynamite blast ripped through a white-owned grocery in a blast |
| July 18 | Atlanta | | | | white-owned grocery in a Negro neighborhood. |
| July 10 | Atlanta Ga. | Cross-burning at a Klan meeting. | | | menghioormood. |
| | Od. | | Sept. 7 | Summit | Three made is the tax |
| July 19 | Madison Co. | | | Miss. | Three predawn bomb blasts dam- |
| ·j, | Miss. | | | | aged a home, a store and a shed, all |
| | 141 155. | was destroyed by a fire. | | | owned by Negroes. |
| July 19 | St Augustin | A 90 C | Sept. 9 | McComb | Duration |
| J =-) 10 | Fla. | A 20-foot cross was burned at a | ocpt. 5 | Miss. | Dynamite damaged the home of a |
| | 1 1d. | Klan rally. | | 141155. | Negro minister. |
| July 24 | St Augustine | | See. 17 | ^ | |
| J) | Fla. | A fire bomb was tossed into a re- | Sept. 17 | Canton | Two Negro churches used for voter |
| • | 1 Ia. | cently-integrated restaurant. Later | | Miss. | registration activity were burned. |
| | | that day, warrants were sworn out | | | |
| | | against five Klansmen charging | Sept. 19 | Philadelphia | Two small churches were hit by fire. |
| | | them with burning a cross on pri- | | Miss. | |
| | | vate property without permission. | | | |
| July 30 | Meridian | The Mar and the second | Sept. 20 | McComb | The home of a Negro woman active |
| J , | Miss. | The Mount Moriah Baptist Church | | Miss. | in civil rights work was blasted. On |
| • | | was destroyed by fire. | | | Oct. 1, three white men, who had |
| July 31 | Bronday | | | • | membership cards in the KKK, were |
| 3417 01 | Brandon Miss. | The Pleasant Grove Baptist Church | • | | arrested; and one of them was also |
| | | burned to its foundation. | | | charged in connection with the Sent |
| A 11001104 1 | P | | | | 9 Dombing, On Oct. 12, the three |
| August I | Farmerville | A 50-foot cross was burned at a | | | men, along with another individual |
| | La. | Klan meeting. | | | were indicted in connection with |
| A | · · · | | | | the bombing. On Oct. 24, the four |
| August 13 | | Cross burned on lawn of Governor's | • | • | men, plus five others who had been |
| | N. C. | Mansion. | | | seized in connection with the bomb |
| | | | | | ing, entered pleas of guilty and |
| August 15 | Natchez | Dynamite demolished a nightclub | | | noto contendere. After designation |
| | Miss. | and bar, serving an all-Negro clien- | | | various sentences for the nine men |
| , | | and the state of t | | | the judge suspended the sentences. |
| | | | | | - |

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|-----------|--------------------|---|-----------|----------------------|--|
| Sepa 21 | McComb Miss. | Dynamite combs hurled from pass ing cars damaged a church and Ne gro home. | Jan. 17 | Jonesuaro La. | Fires destroyed two rural Negro churches. |
| | | | 1 | | \sim |
| Sept. 21 | Enfield N. C. | Cross-burning. | · Jan. 23 | New Bern N. C. | Three explosions wrecked a Negro funeral home and two cars during a civil rights meeting. Six due how |
| Sept. 23 | McComb Miss. | A bomb was hurled at the home of a former Negro policeman. | | | civil rights meeting. Six days later, the FBI arrested three men, one of them an Exalted Cyclops of a Klan. |
| Sept. 23 | Columbia S. C. | A cross was burned in front of the Governor's mansion. | Feb. 16 | Mobile Ala. | Two Negro youths were wounded by shotgun blasts. |
| Sept. 25 | Natchez Miss. | An explosion ripped a hole in the lawn at the home of the mayor. An- other blast occured at the home of a Negro. | Fcb. 28 | Lowndes Co Ala. | Armed white men disrupted church services and warned a minister to leave the county by sundown or he would never be found. |
| Sept. 26 | Farmville N. C. | A minister was threatened, harrassed and searched while attending a Klan rally. | March ! | 5 Indianola Miss. | A Freedom School and library burned to the ground. |
| Oct. 4 | Vicksburg Miss. | A dynamite explosion heavily dam- aged a Negro church building that had been used as a voter registra- tion headquarters. | March 9 | Selma Ala | Rev. James Reeb from Boston was fatally clubbed. Two days later four |
| Oct. 31 | Ripley Miss. | Fire destroyed the Antioch Baptist Church, which had been used as a Freedom School. | March 21 | Vicksburg | men were arrested. A Molotov cocktail was thrown into |
| Nov. 17 | Laurel Miss. | A union official was kidnapped at gunpoint and whipped by masked | | Miss. | a desegregated cafe. |
| Nov. 29 | Montgomery | men. | March 21 | Birmingham Ala. | Four time bombs were discovered in Negro neighborhoods. |
| | Ala. | A dynamite bomb wrecked the car- port of the home of a Negro family. | March 22 | Birmingham | |
| Dec. 10 | Ferriday La. | Several white men poured gasoline on a shoeshop and after setting fire | N | Ala. | Two more bombs were discovered in the Negro community. |
| | x | to it, prevented a Negro from leaving. He subsequently died in a hospital. | March 25 | Lowndesboro Ala. | Mrs. Viola Gregg Liuzzo, a white civil rights worker, was shot and |
| Dec. 13 | Montgomery Ala. | An explosion was set off outside a Negro church. Three men were accused of the crime and received 6- month sentences, but were released | • • | • | killed while driving on the Selma- Montgomery highway. Four Klans- men were charged with violating the civil rights of Mrs. Liuzzo. |
| | · · | on probation after ten days in jail. One of the men had been indicted in 1957 in connection with bomb- ings of Negro churches and homes. | March 29 | Meridian Miss. | Fire bombs were tossed at two Negro churches. |
| 1990 - A. | | | 4 ** • | | |
| Innu- | C | 1965 | April 1 | Ala. | A dynamite bomb wrecked the home of a Negro accountant, and two |
| January | Center Tex. | A number of crosses were burned, including six in one night. | | | other bombs were found at the home of the Mayor and a City Council- woman. |

Remember the second Reconstruction act came Alt w/in 1866-1871 & all whites in the South mere disenfranchised, see e.g. Beorgia & Stanton, & during same period whites begant did resour their right to UTTO

Jue The various Casterne Rites Catholics in the united States object to the designation 2 Roman Catholics. So do D. Can we just be called Catholics? The designation here in the 4.5. 5 Cattistics as honen Catholics goes back to the day when we were considered anti-American impig relats who were subjects of the 15pe, a Joskign rules.