

## American Genocide

White Americans often feared and resented the Indigenous Peoples they encountered. To them, American Indians seemed to be an unfamiliar, alien people who occupied land that White settlers wanted (and believed they deserved). Some officials in the early years of the American republic, such as President George Washington, believed that the best way to solve this “Indian problem” was simply to “civilize” the Indigenous Peoples. The goal of this civilization campaign was to make Indigenous Peoples as much like White Americans as possible by encouraging them convert to Christianity, learn to speak and read English and adopt European-style economic practices such as the individual ownership of land and other property (including, in some instances in the South, African slaves).

By the close of the Indian Wars in the late 19th century, fewer than 238,000 indigenous people remained, a sharp decline from the estimated 5 million to 15 million living in North America when Columbus arrived in 1492. The reasons for this racial genocide were multi-layered. Settlers, most of whom had been barred from inheriting property in Europe, arrived on American shores hungry for Indian land—and the abundant natural resources that came with it. Indians’ collusion with the British during the American Revolution and the War of 1812 exacerbated American hostility and suspicion toward them. Disease and murder also led to significant decreases in the population of Indigenous Peoples.

At the beginning of the 1830s, nearly 125,000 Indigenous Peoples lived on millions of acres of land in Georgia, Tennessee, Alabama, North Carolina and Florida—land their ancestors had occupied and cultivated for generations. By the end of the decade, very few Peoples remained anywhere in the southeastern United States. Working on behalf of White settlers who wanted to grow cotton on the Native People’s land, the federal government forced them to leave their homelands and walk thousands of miles to a specially designated “Indian territory” across the Mississippi River. This difficult and sometimes deadly journey is known as the Trail of Tears.



## Indigenous Peoples in Cabarrus County

Catawba Indians were the primary inhabitants of the area until beginning about 1750. The Catawba Indian Nation is one of the indigenous Indian tribes that settled the Carolina Piedmont over 10,000 years ago. They hunted and farmed their ancestral lands in the Piedmont area of North Carolina and South Carolina. The Catawba were once one of the most powerful tribes in the Carolinas. Along with the Cherokee and Iroquois, the Catawba controlled important trading paths throughout North Carolina. Control of the trade routes was advantageous and put the tribes in a powerful position. However, it was not long before European settlers took over those trade routes and the Catawba power was slowly taken.

Though the Catawba stayed neutral during trading wars, colonial conflicts, along with European disease, had very dramatic effects on the Catawba people. The Tuscarora War (1711-1713) and the Yamasee War (1715), both fought over control of trade routes, proved that European fur traders and Indian slave traders were a constant threat to the Catawba people. Wars combined with disease were too much for the Catawba to survive. By 1728, their population was down to around 1400. Small pox epidemics in 1738 and in 1759 brought that number down to approximately 500.

Much of the nineteenth century was difficult for the Catawba. With little help from the newly formed American government or the state of South Carolina, the Catawba struggled to find a permanent settlement. At a meeting at Nation Ford in 1840 the Catawba agreed to relinquish their land to South Carolina if the government agreed to spend \$5,000 on new land for a reservation. They finally settled on a 630-acre tract of land along the bank of the Catawba River.

After a long history of struggling with the American government, the Catawba received recognition from South Carolina in 1973. It took another 20 years of court battles to receive official federal recognition, money to support education programs and to purchase land. Today, the Catawba are known for their pottery, social service programs and continuing the fight to preserve their culture.



## 1619: The Beginning of Slavery

Along the banks of the James River, Virginia, during an oppressively hot spell in the middle of summer 1619, two events occurred within a few weeks of each other that would profoundly shape the course of history. Convened with little fanfare or formality, the first gathering of a representative governing body anywhere in the Americas, the General Assembly, met from July 30 to August 4 in the choir of the newly built church at Jamestown. Following instructions from the Virginia Company of London, the colony's financial backers, the meeting's principal purpose was to introduce "just Laws for the happy guiding and governing of the people." The assembly sat as a single body and was made up of the governor, Sir George Yeardley, his four councilors, and twenty-two burgesses chosen by the free, white, male inhabitants of every town, corporation, and large plantation throughout the colony.

A few weeks later, a battered English privateer, the *White Lion*, entered the Chesapeake Bay and anchored off Point Comfort, a small but thriving maritime community at the mouth of the James River that was often a first port of call for oceangoing ships. While roving in the Caribbean, the ship, together with its companion, the *Treasurer*, had been involved in a fierce battle with a Portuguese slaver bound for Veracruz. Victorious, the two privateers pillaged the Portuguese vessel and sailed away northward carrying dozens of enslaved Africans.



# Slave Auctions

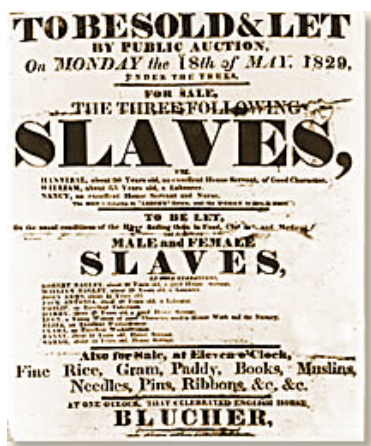
In early March 1859 an enormous slave auction took place at the Race Course three miles outside Savannah, Georgia. Four hundred thirty-six slaves were to be put on the auction block including men, women, children and infants. Word of the sale had spread through the South for weeks, drawing potential buyers from North and South Carolina, Virginia, Georgia, Alabama and Louisiana.

According to a reporter at the time, "The slaves remained at the race course, some of them for more than a week and all of them for four days before the sale. They were brought in thus early that buyers who desired to inspect them might enjoy that privilege...The negroes were examined with as little consideration as if they had been brutes indeed; the buyers pulling their mouths open to see their teeth, pinching their limbs to find how muscular they were, walking them up and down to detect any signs of lameness, making them stoop and bend in different ways that they might be certain there was no concealed rupture or wound; and in addition to all this treatment, asking them scores of questions relative to their qualifications and accomplishments.

All these humiliations were submitted to without a murmur and in some instances with good-natured cheerfulness - where the slave liked the appearance of the proposed buyer, and fancied that he might prove a kind 'mas'r.'”

"The buyers, who were present to the number of about two hundred, clustered around the platform; while the Negroes, who were not likely to be immediately wanted, gathered into sad groups in the background to watch the progress of the selling in which they were so sorrowfully interested. The wind howled outside, and through the open side of the building the driving rain came pouring in; the bar down stairs ceased for a short time its brisk trade; the buyers lit fresh cigars, got ready their catalogues and pencils, and the first lot of human chattels are led upon the stand, not by a white man, but by a sleek mulatto, himself a slave, and who seems to regard the selling of his brethren, in which he so glibly assists, as a capital joke."

The Great Sale went on for two long days, during which time there were sold 429 men, women and children.



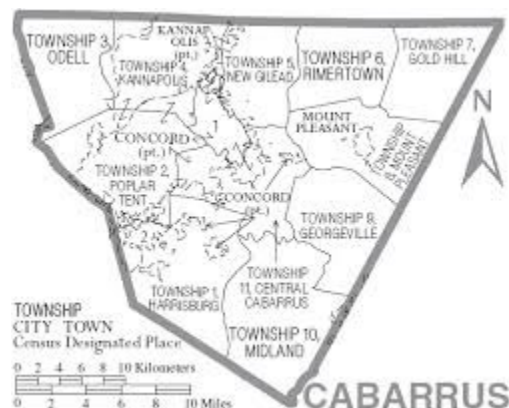


## Formation of Cabarrus County (1792)

The county was formed on December 29, 1792 from Mecklenburg County. Located in the Piedmont, it was named after Stephen Cabarrus of Chowan County, speaker of the North Carolina House of Commons. The county was settled mainly by immigrants: Germans on the eastern side and Scotch-Irish in the western area of the county. When it came time to choose a location for the county seat and county government, each ethnic group wanted the county seat located close to their populations and could not reach agreement on a site. Stephen Cabarrus wrote to the citizens pleading with them to come together in peace to choose a location for their county seat. A central area of the county was chosen in 1796 and aptly named Concord, a derivative of two French words "with" and "peace." Representative Paul Barringer introduced a bill into the state legislature to incorporate Concord; it passed on December 17, 1806. The town of Concord was begun on land owned by Samuel Huie and wife Jane Morrison Huie.

While some cotton plantations were established, most of the land was developed for subsistence farming. By 1860 the population consisted of about one-third enslaved African Americans, with few free people of color. Industrialization had started before the war with the introduction of textile mills to process the cotton. More mill development took place, especially after the railroad was constructed to the town. Coleman Manufacturing Company, started in 1897, is believed to be the first cotton mill in the nation to be built, owned and operated by African Americans. It was owned by Warren Clay Coleman from Concord, John C. Dancy (federal collector of customs), and seven partners primarily from Wilmington, North Carolina. Warren Clay Coleman, a Concord African-American businessman, joined them in organizing Coleman Manufacturing Company in 1897, on a site about two miles from Concord.

The Wilmington Insurrection of 1898, with White attacks on Blacks, their homes and businesses, destroyed much of what the people had built there since the war. In 1900, Dancy was among more than 2000 Blacks who left the city permanently after the riot, resulting in its becoming majority White. He moved to Washington, DC, where he was appointed as the federal Recorder of Deeds.



## Reed Gold Mine

The first substantiated gold find in America was in 1799 by young Conrad Reed while playing in Little Meadow Creek, located on the Reed farm in southeastern Cabarrus County. Reed first developed placer mining on his property, then underground mining, and became wealthy from the gold. His facility became known as Reed's Gold Mine.

The following year John Reed began the Reed mining operation by forming a partnership with three local men. Much of the work done in the mines was carried out by slaves. The partners supplied equipment and workers to dig for gold in the creek bed, while Reed provided the land. The returns were to be divided equally. The men mined mainly in the off-season from farming, giving first priority to raising their crops. Before the end of the first year, a slave named Peter had unearthed a 28-pound nugget. Using only pans and rockers to wash the creek gravel, the part-time miners recovered an estimated yield of one hundred thousand dollars by 1824.



## Post-Civil War and Reconstruction

Formal nationwide codification of emancipation came in December 1865 with ratification of the Thirteenth Amendment, which prohibited slavery throughout the United States. Several states continued to symbolically resist into the twentieth century: Delaware did not ratify the Thirteenth Amendment until 1901; Kentucky ratified in 1976; and Mississippi ratified in 1995.

Instead of facilitating Black land ownership, President Andrew Johnson advocated a new practice that soon replaced slavery as a primary source of Southern agricultural labor: sharecropping. Under this system, Black laborers worked White-owned land in exchange for a share of the crop at harvest minus costs for food and lodging, often in the same slave quarters they had previously inhabited. Because Johnson's administration required that landowners pay off their debts to banks first, sharecroppers frequently received no pay and had no recourse.

### *Black Codes (Vagrancy Laws)*

Black codes were restrictive laws designed to limit the freedom of African Americans and ensure their availability as a cheap labor force after slavery was abolished during the Civil War. Though the Union victory had given some 4 million slaves their freedom, the question of freed blacks' status in the postwar South was still very much unresolved. Under black codes, many states required blacks to sign yearly labor contracts; if they refused, they risked being arrested, fined and forced into unpaid labor.



### *Reconstruction Acts of 1867*

In elections for new state governments, Black voter turnout neared 90 percent in many jurisdictions, and Black voters—who comprised a majority in many districts and a statewide majority in Louisiana—elected both White and Black leaders to represent them. More than six hundred African Americans, most of them formerly enslaved, were elected as state legislators during this period. Another eighteen African Americans rose to serve in state executive positions, including lieutenant governor, secretary of state, superintendent of education, and treasurer.

## Plessy v. Ferguson

*Plessy v. Ferguson* was a landmark 1896 U.S. Supreme Court decision that upheld the constitutionality of racial segregation under the “separate but equal” doctrine. The case stemmed from an 1892 incident in which Black train passenger Homer Plessy refused to sit in a car for Blacks. Rejecting Plessy’s argument that his constitutional rights were violated, the Supreme Court ruled that a law that “implies merely a legal distinction” between Whites and Blacks was not unconstitutional. As a result, restrictive Jim Crow legislation and separate public accommodations based on race became commonplace.

The *Plessy v. Ferguson* verdict enshrined the doctrine of “separate but equal” as a constitutional justification for segregation, ensuring the survival of the Jim Crow South for the next half-century. Intrastate railroads were among many segregated public facilities the verdict sanctioned; others included buses, hotels, theaters, swimming pools and schools.





## **Confederate Monuments and the Ku Klux Klan in Cabarrus County**

Confederate monument-building was often a part of widespread campaigns to promote and justify Jim Crow laws in the South and assert white supremacy. Confederate monument dedications drew massive White crowds; for example, 15,000 to 20,000 people attended a 1907 dedication in Newton, North Carolina. In 1926, the United Daughters of the Confederacy erected a monument to the Ku Klux Klan in Concord, North Carolina. The monument's inscription reads:

“ ‘In commemoration of the “Ku Klux Klan” during the Reconstruction period following the “War Between the States,” this marker is placed on their assembly ground. Erected by the Dodson-Ramseur chapter of the United Daughters of the Confederacy. 1926.’ ”



The peak in construction of Confederate monuments occurred between the late 1890s up to 1920, with a second, smaller peak in the late 1950s to mid-1960s.

## Lynchings (1882-1968)

From 1882-1968, 4,743 lynchings occurred in the United States. Lynchings were violent and public acts of torture that traumatized Black people throughout the country and were largely tolerated by state and federal officials. These lynchings were terrorism. “Terror lynchings” peaked between 1880 and 1940 and claimed the lives of Black men, women, and children who were forced to endure the fear, humiliation, and barbarity of this widespread phenomenon unaided.

Lynching profoundly impacted race relations in this country and shaped the geographic, political, social, and economic conditions of African Americans in ways that are still evident today. Terror lynchings fueled the mass migration of millions of Black people from the South into urban ghettos in the North and West throughout the first half of the twentieth century. Lynching created a fearful environment where racial subordination and segregation was maintained with limited resistance for decades. Most critically, lynching reinforced a legacy of racial inequality that has never been adequately addressed in America. The administration of criminal justice in particular is tangled with the history of lynching in profound and important ways that continue to contaminate the integrity and fairness of the justice system.

Racial terror lynching was a tool used to enforce laws and racial segregation—a tactic for maintaining racial control by victimizing the entire Black community, not merely punishment of an alleged perpetrator for a crime. Many victims of terror lynchings were murdered without being accused of any crime; they were killed for minor social transgressions or for demanding basic rights and fair treatment.



## Lynchings in Cabarrus County

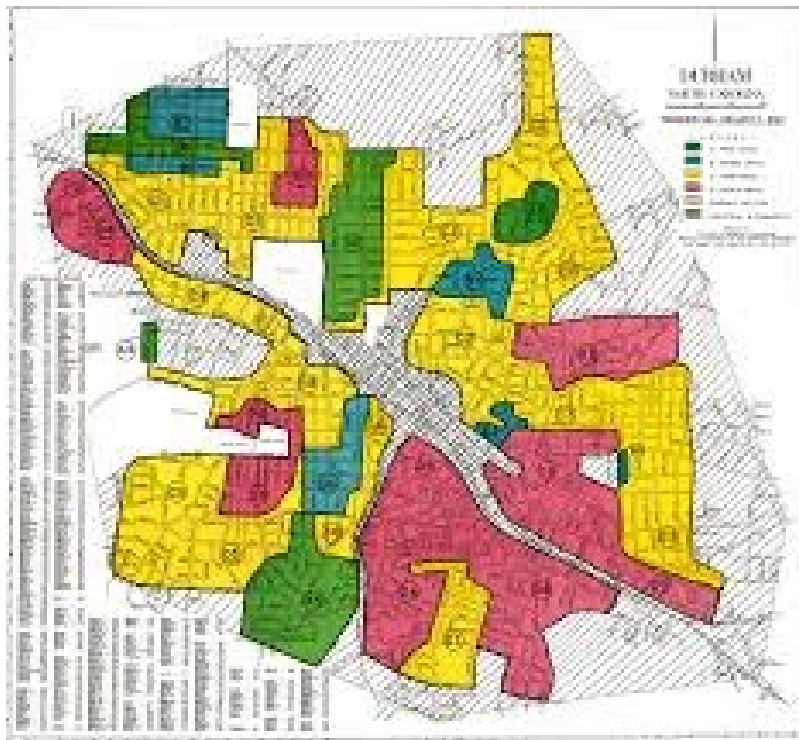
"In eighteen-hundred and ninety-eight," as the song tells us, "Sweet Emma met with an awful fate." Sweet Emma was Emma Hartsell, the twelve-year-old daughter of a farmer in Cabarrus County, North Carolina who was murdered while her parents were at church. Emma stayed home to look after a younger sister who was ill. Her parents returned to find her dead on the kitchen floor. A search was made, and Johnson and Kizer were carried to the jail in Concord. Johnson and Kizer were Black, Hartsell was White. Later that evening, a mob broke into jail, carried the men to Big Cold Water Hill outside of town, and dragged them up. No one was punished for the lynching.



## Redlining Practices

Although informal discrimination and segregation had existed in the United States, the specific practice called "redlining" began with the National Housing Act of 1934, which established the Federal Housing Administration (FHA). Racial segregation and discrimination against minorities and minority communities pre-existed this policy. The implementation of this federal policy aggravated the decay of minority inner-city neighborhoods caused by the withholding of mortgage capital, and made it even more difficult for neighborhoods to attract and retain families able to purchase homes. The assumptions in redlining resulted in a large increase in residential racial segregation and urban decay in the United States.

In 1935, the Federal Home Loan Bank Board (FHLBB) asked Home Owners' Loan Corporation (HOLC) to look at 239 cities and create "residential security maps" to indicate the level of security for real-estate investments in each surveyed city. On the maps, the newest areas—those considered desirable for lending purposes—were outlined in green and known as "Type A". These were typically affluent suburbs on the outskirts of cities. "Type B" neighborhoods, outlined in blue, were considered "Still Desirable", whereas older "Type C" were labeled "Declining" and outlined in yellow. "Type D" neighborhoods were outlined in red and were considered the most risky for mortgage support. These neighborhoods tended to be the older districts in the center of cities; often they were also black neighborhoods. Urban planning historians theorize that the maps were used by private and public entities for years afterward to deny loans to people in black communities. But, recent research has indicated that the HOLC did not redline in its own lending activities and that the racist language reflected the bias of the private sector and experts hired to conduct the appraisals.





## Brown v. Board of Education

*Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* was a landmark 1954 Supreme Court case in which the justices ruled unanimously that racial segregation of children in public schools was unconstitutional. *Brown v. Board of Education* was one of the cornerstones of the Civil Rights Movement, and helped establish the precedent that “separate-but-equal” education and other services were not, in fact, equal at all.

Though the Supreme Court’s decision in *Brown v. Board* did not achieve school desegregation on its own, the ruling (and the steadfast resistance to it across the South) fueled the nascent civil rights movement in the United States.



# The Civil Rights Movement

The Civil Rights Movement was a struggle for social justice that took place mainly during the 1950s and 1960s for Blacks to gain equal rights under the law in the United States. By the mid-20th century, African Americans, along with many whites, mobilized and began an unprecedented fight for equality that spanned two decades.

President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964—legislation initiated by President John F. Kennedy before his assassination—into law on July 2 of that year.

King and other civil rights activists witnessed the signing. The law guaranteed equal employment for all, limited the use of voter literacy tests and allowed federal authorities to ensure public facilities were integrated.

On March 7, 1965, the Civil Rights Movement in Alabama took an especially violent turn as 600 peaceful demonstrators participated in the Selma to Montgomery march to protest the killing of Black civil rights activist Jimmie Lee Jackson by a white police officer and to encourage legislation to enforce the 15th amendment.

As the protestors neared the Edmund Pettus Bridge, they were blocked by Alabama state and local police sent by Alabama governor George C. Wallace, a vocal opponent of desegregation. Refusing to stand down, protestors moved forward and were viciously beaten and teargassed by police and dozens of protestors were hospitalized. The entire incident was televised and became known as “Bloody Sunday.”



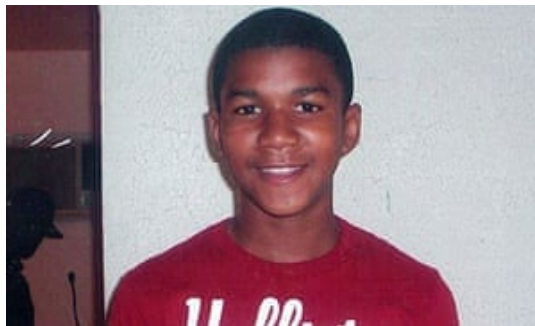
## **Michael Brown, Tamir Rice, Trayvon Martin, Atatiana Jefferson, Philando Castille.....**

About 1 in 1,000 Black men and boys in America can expect to die at the hands of police, according to a new analysis of deaths involving law enforcement officers. That makes them 2.5 times more likely than White men and boys to die during an encounter with cops. The analysis also showed that Latino men and boys, Black women and girls and Native American men, women and children are also killed by police at higher rates than their White peers.

A study published in the Lancet last year found that police killings of unarmed Black men were associated with an increase in mental health problems such as depression and emotional issues for Black people living in the state where the killing took place.

Living in a state of constant fear can lead to chronic stress. Many Black parents have “the talk” within their children, a conversation that many Black parents have with their children — especially boys — about how to interact with police to avoid being harmed.

The early 20s are a particularly dangerous time for young men, the researchers found. During the study period, police use of force accounted for 1.6% of all deaths of black men between the ages of 20 and 24. It was also responsible for 1.2% of deaths of Latino and Native American men. However, police violence accounted for just 0.5% of deaths of White and Asian American men in that age range.



## Adultification of Black Boys and Girls

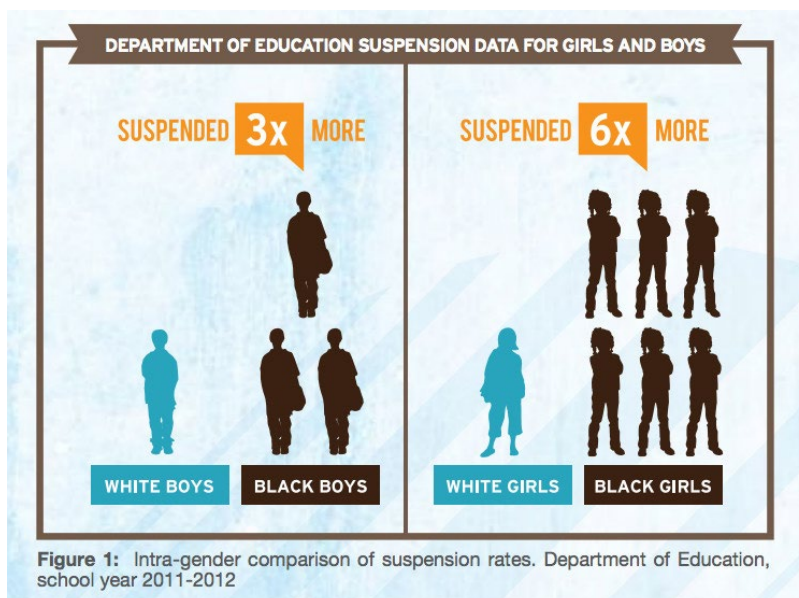
Adultification is a form of dehumanization, robbing Black children of the very essence of what makes childhood distinct from all other developmental periods: innocence. Adultification contributes to a false narrative that Black youths' transgressions are intentional and malicious, instead of the result of immature decision making — a key characteristic of childhood.

An Annie E. Casey-funded report, *Girlhood Interrupted: The Erasure of Black Girls' Childhood*, found that adults viewed Black girls “as less innocent and more adult-like than White girls of the same age, especially between 5–14 years old.” When compared with White girls, Black girls were perceived as:

- needing less nurturing, protection, support and comfort;
- being more independent; and
- knowing more about adult topics, including sex.

The implications of the report's finding are far reaching, according to Rebecca Epstein, executive director of the center. “Simply put, if authorities in public systems view Black girls as less innocent, less needing of protection and generally more like adults, it appears likely that they would also view Black girls as more culpable for their actions and, on that basis, punish them more harshly despite their status as children.

The study builds on previous research, including studies that found Black boys are seen as older and more culpable than their White peers.





## Gentrification

Gentrification is a process of changing the character of a neighborhood through the influx of more affluent residents and businesses. During gentrification, poorer communities are commonly converted to high-end neighborhoods with expensive housing options such as high-rises and condominiums. As property prices increase, the original residents of the neighborhood are forced out

Gentrification usually leads to negative impacts such as forced displacement, a fostering of discriminatory behavior by people in power, and a focus on spaces that exclude low-income individuals and people of color. Displacement can lead to stress and depression. The year following an eviction, mothers are 20 percent more likely to report depression than their peers. At least two years after their eviction, mothers were still experiencing significantly higher rates of depression.

Displacement can have myriad negative health impacts on children as well. Outcomes identified in association with frequent moves included: higher levels of behavioral and emotional problems; increased teenage pregnancy rates; accelerated initiation of illicit drug use; adolescent depression; and reduced continuity of healthcare.



## Mass Incarceration

Despite making up close to 5% of the global population, the U.S. has nearly 25% of the world's prison population. Since 1970, our incarcerated population has increased by 700% – 2.3 million people in jail and prison today, far outpacing population growth and crime.

One out of every three Black boys born today can expect to go to prison in his lifetime, as can one of every six Latino boys—compared to one of every 17 white boys. At the same time, women are the fastest growing incarcerated population in the United States.

There are twice as many people sitting in local jails awaiting trial and presumed innocent than in the entire federal prison system. And each year, 650,000 men and women nationwide return from prison to their communities. They face nearly 50,000 federal, state, and local legal restrictions that make it difficult to reintegrate back into society.

In the American criminal justice system, wealth—not culpability—shapes outcomes. Many people charged with crimes lack the resources to investigate cases or obtain the help they need, leading to wrongful convictions and excessive sentences, even in capital cases.

Racial disparities persist at every level from misdemeanor arrests to executions. The “tough on crime” policies that led to mass incarceration are rooted in the belief that black and brown people are inherently guilty and dangerous—and that belief still drives excessive sentencing policies today.

More incarceration doesn't reduce violent crime. Using prisons to deal with poverty and mental illness makes these problems worse. People leave overcrowded and violent jails and prisons more traumatized, mentally ill, and physically battered than they went in.

Today, nearly 10 million Americans—including millions of children—have an immediate family member in jail or prison. More than 4.5 million Americans can't vote because of a past conviction. And each year, we lose \$87 billion in GDP due to mass incarceration.

