

BLACK CABINET

Under Secretary General
Nehir DOĞU



KCMUN



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1) Letter from the Secretary General

Firstly, it is with immense pride and enthusiasm that I extend my warmest welcomes to all participants of the Kırmızı Çizgi High Schools Model United Nations Conference 2026, taking place on July 20th-21st-22nd in Antalya.

I am Güney Deniz Ala, Secretary-General of this distinguished conference. It is both an honor and a privilege to lead this organization in this position. Model United Nations has always been far more than a simulation, it is a journey. Whether you're a more experienced delegate or a first-timer, with KCMUN'26 I promise unparalleled growth and inspiration.

Our Academic Team: Under-Secretary Generals, Academic Assistants, and Board Members, represent the finest minds in Antalya, each meticulously selected to deliver your committees of exceptional caliber. From beginner to advanced committees, every session has been crafted for the maximum impact. My deepest gratitude goes to my fellow executive team Can Kurnaz, Berkcan Şahin, Mert Sürücü, Erdem Demirci and Çağın Orkan Benzeş, whose unwavering support made this vision reality.

I extend special thanks to the KCMUN'26 participants, whose passion set the standard we strive to exceed.

As we gather, let us draw inspiration from the eternal words of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, founder of modern Turkey: “Ey Türk gençliği! Birinci vazifen, Türk istiklâlini, Türk Cumhuriyeti’ni, ilelebet muhafaza ve müdafaa etmektir. Mevcudiyetinin ve istikbalinin yegâne temeli budur. Bu temel, senin en kıymetli hazinendir.”

To delegates: embrace the challenge, defend your interests, and leave KCMUN'26 having elevated your voice on the world stage. I am eager to witness your brilliance. Sincerely,

**Güney Deniz Ala
Secretary-General, KCMUN'26**

2) Letter from the Under Secretary General

Dear Delegates,

It is with great delight that I, the Under Secretary General of the Black Cabinet Committee, welcome you all to KCMUN'26. Finally writing this letter after working on this guide for quite a while is very gratifying.

We have an open agenda, but with the contents of this guide, I believe every single one of you knows we have a lot to talk about, so it was very hard for me to choose an agenda rather than having multiple ones. Reading the guide is a must to have a better understanding of our committee and to improve your knowledge on Black history.

I would like to thank the Executive Team for their efforts and for allowing me to bring this amazing committee to life. Even though I don't have any other Academic Member for this committee, I am certain that my Board Members and delegates will not disappoint me, and I would like to thank you all beforehand.

If you do have any questions regarding the agenda, procedure, or MUN in general, feel free to contact me through the Email address or my phone number, which I have placed below.

Sincerely,

Nehir Doğu

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3) Introduction to the Committee

The Black Cabinet Committee is a special committee based on real historical events that will emphasize the challenges faced by African Americans.

The Black Cabinet was an informal advisory group of African American civil servants who lobbied for African Americans to receive equal access to federal benefits and employment and job training programs associated with President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal. Often promoting programs closely aligned with the demands of working-class Blacks, they encouraged First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt and white liberals to press FDR on institutionalizing support for racial justice within his New Deal administration.

Their impact on Black people's lives to this day cannot be overlooked.

4) Historical Background

4.1.) Great Depression

The value of the US stock market nearly doubled in a frenzy of speculative buying in the eighteen months before the crash began on "Black Thursday," October 24, 1929. On that day, and on "Black Tuesday," October 29, panic set in as millions of shares of stock traded at ever-falling prices.

The October 1929 downturn was only the beginning of the market collapse. By mid-November, the stock market had lost a third of its September value, and by 1932 -when the market hit bottom- stocks had lost ninety percent of their value. A share of US Steel, which had sold for \$262 before the crash, sold in 1932 for \$22.

The stock market crash signaled the beginning of the Great Depression, but it was only one factor among many root causes of the Depression. Impacts from World War I, a weak banking system, further collapse in already-low farm prices, and industrial overproduction each contributed to the economic downturn. The disastrous 1930 Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act (which raised average tariff rates to nearly 60 percent) caused America's international trading partners to retaliate by raising rates on US-made goods. The result was shrinking international trade and a further decline in global economies.

As the effects of the Depression cascaded across the US economy, millions of people lost their jobs. By 1930 there were 4.3 million unemployed; by 1931, 8 million; and in 1932 the number had risen to 12 million. By early 1933, almost 13 million were out of work, and the unemployment rate stood at an astonishing 25 percent. Those who managed to retain their jobs often took pay cuts of a third or more.

Out-of-work Americans filled long breadlines, begged for food, or sold apples on street corners.



More than a third of the nation's banks failed in the three years following 1929. Long lines of desperate and despairing people outside banks hoping to retrieve their savings were common. Many ordinary citizens lost their life savings when banks failed.

Farmers were hit particularly hard by the crisis. On top of falling prices for crops, a devastating drought in Oklahoma, Texas, and Kansas brought on a series of dust storms known as the Dust Bowl. In the South, sharecroppers -both white and black- endured crushing poverty and almost unimaginable degradation. African Americans suffered significantly higher levels of unemployment than whites due to pervasive racism.

The financial crisis was not limited to the United States. Countries in Europe and around the world experienced the depression. Hitler's rise to power in Germany was fueled in part by the economic slowdown, and throughout the 1930s international tensions increased as the global economy declined.

President Herbert Clark Hoover initially met the economic downturn from the perspective of his long-held voluntarist principles, that is, his belief in minimal government interference in the economy, as well as a conviction that direct public relief to individuals would weaken individual character, turn people away from the work ethic, and lead them to develop a dependency on government handouts. By 1931, Hoover reversed his earlier approach and embraced government intervention in the economy. The 1932 Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) authorized the lending of 2\$ billion to banks, railroads, and other privately held companies, and in July 1932 the federal government appropriated \$300 million for the nation's first relief and public works projects.

For many, however, these actions were too little, too late. Shantytowns of makeshift hovels—disparagingly labeled “Hoovervilles” in disgust with the president’s inaction in the face of crisis—grew up across the country in public parks and in vacant lots, as the out-of-work, unable to pay the mortgages or rent, were evicted from their homes. Trouser pockets pulled out to signal the lack of money within them were “Hoover flags.” Newspapers used for warmth by the homeless were “Hoover blankets.”



4.2) New Deal

The causes of the Great Depression were many and varied, but the impact was visible across the country. By the time that FDR was inaugurated president on March 4, 1933, the banking system had collapsed, nearly 25% of the labor force was unemployed, and prices and productivity had fallen to 1/3 of their 1929 levels. Reduced prices and reduced output resulted in lower incomes in wages, rents, dividends, and profits throughout the economy. Factories were shut down, farms and homes were lost to foreclosure, mills and mines were abandoned, and people went hungry. The resulting lower incomes meant the further inability of the people to spend or to save their way out of the crisis, thus perpetuating the economic slowdown in a seemingly never-ending cycle.

With the country sinking deeper into the Depression, the American public looked for active assistance from the federal government and grew increasingly dissatisfied with the economic policies of President Herbert Hoover.

In his speech accepting the Democratic Party nomination in 1932, Franklin Delano Roosevelt pledged "a New Deal for the American people" if elected. Following his inauguration as President of the United States on March 4, 1933, FDR put his New Deal into action: an active, diverse, and innovative program of economic recovery. In the First Hundred Days of his new administration, FDR pushed through Congress a package of legislation designed to

lift the nation out of the Depression. FDR declared a "banking holiday" to end the runs on the banks and created new federal programs administered by so-called "alphabet agencies". The New Deal generally embraced the concept of a government-regulated economy aimed at achieving a balance between conflicting economic interests. The new administration's first objective was to alleviate the suffering of the nation's huge number of unemployed workers. Agencies such as the Works Progress Administration (WPA) and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) were established to provide emergency and short-term government aid and to provide temporary jobs, including construction projects and youth work in the national forests. The WPA gave some 8.5 million people jobs. Its construction projects produced more than 650,000 miles of roads, 125,000 public buildings, 75,000 bridges, and 8,000 parks. Also under its aegis were the Federal Art Project, Federal Writers' Project, and Federal Theatre Project. The CCC provided national conservation work primarily for young unmarried men. Projects included planting trees, building flood barriers, fighting forest fires, and maintaining forest roads and trails.

Roosevelt's New Deal recovery programs were based on various, not always consistent, theories on the causes of the Depression. They targeted certain sectors of the economy: agriculture, relief, manufacturing, and financial reforms. Many of these programs contributed to recovery, but since there was no sustained macroeconomic theory (John Maynard Keynes's General Theory was not even published until 1936), total recovery did not result during the 1930s.

Following the 1937 recession, Roosevelt adopted Keynes' notion of expanded deficit spending to stimulate aggregate demand. In 1938, the Treasury Department designed programs for public housing, slum clearance, railroad construction, and other massive public works. But these were pushed off the board by the massive public spending stimulated by World War II. Even after 1938, private investment spending (housing, non-residential construction, plant and equipment) still lagged. It was war-related export demands and expanded government spending that led the economy back to full employment capacity production by 1941.

From 1933 to 1944, Roosevelt provided a source of hope and security through his "Fireside Chats," a series of radio broadcasts that were initially meant to gain support for his New Deal policies. In those "chats," Roosevelt, who understood the importance of radio as a medium, used common language to construct the radio addresses as an informal conversation between himself and an American public greatly in need of reassurance. In his efforts to implement the New Deal, Roosevelt was ably assisted by the popular first lady, Eleanor Roosevelt, who served as her husband's eyes and ears throughout the nation, embarking on extensive tours and reporting to him on conditions, programs, and public opinion. FDR also had the support of a cabinet full of skillful committed New Dealers, including Harry L. Hopkins, who initially served as the administrator of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and later as the secretary of commerce. Hopkins personified the ideology of vast federal work programs to relieve unemployment, and by 1938 he had directed the spending of more than \$8.5 billion for unemployment relief, aiding some 15 million people.

Certain New Deal laws were declared unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court on the grounds that neither the commerce nor the taxing provisions of the Constitution granted the federal government authority to regulate industry or to undertake social and economic reform. Roosevelt, confident of the legality of all the measures, proposed early in 1937 a reorganization of the Court. This proposal met with vehement opposition and ultimate defeat, but the Court meanwhile ruled in favour of the remaining contested legislation.

Although the programs initiated by the New Deal had little direct expansionary effect on the economy, it remains an open question whether they may nevertheless have had positive effects on consumer and business sentiment.

By 1941, real GDP in the United States had recovered to within about 10 percent of its long-run trend path. Therefore, the United States had largely recovered from the Great Depression even before World War II-related military spending accelerated. Despite resistance from business and other segments of the community to “socialistic” tendencies of the New Deal, many of its reforms gradually achieved national acceptance. Roosevelt’s domestic programs were largely followed in the Fair Deal of Pres. Harry S. Truman (1945–53), and both major U.S. parties came to accept most New Deal reforms as a permanent part of the national life.

4.3.) Mary McLeod Bethune



Mary McLeod Bethune was born in Mayesville, South Carolina, on July 10, 1875. She was the fifteenth of seventeen children born to parents who, along with eight of her older siblings, had been enslaved. Despite their financial struggles, the family purchased five acres of land from their former master, and their fortunes improved. Mary would be the only McLeod child to get an education. She was particularly inspired by the African American teachers who “gave me my very first vision of the culture and ability of Negro women,” and ultimately inspired her to one day open a school of her own, one with a particular emphasis on the empowerment of Black women.

In 1898, she married Albertus Bethune. They separated after nine years but never officially divorced, and Mary McLeod Bethune kept the surname for the rest of her life.

In 1904, she founded the Educational and Industrial Training School for Negro Girls in Daytona Beach, Florida. The boarding school grew and evolved quickly, as did Bethune's role in the Daytona Beach community. She opened McLeod Hospital there in 1911, which played a critical role in containing the influenza pandemic of 1918. Four years later she led the charge to convince the city to build a high school for African Americans. The local Ku Klux Klan confronted Bethune at her school. She and her students stood firm, singing hymns until the terrorists left.

In 1923, Bethune's school took a major step, merging with the oldest of Florida's Black colleges, Cookman Institute, to form Bethune-Cookman College. The next year she became president of the National Association of Colored Women (NACW), an organization formed because white women's clubs would not allow Black members. Bethune endorsed Republican Herbert Hoover for reelection against Franklin Roosevelt in 1932 but, when Roosevelt won, Bethune took part in one of the more dramatic political realignments in U.S. history, as African Americans fled to the Democratic Party.

In 1934, First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt addressed the Commerce Department about the inequities of Black education: "We must wipe out the feeling of intolerance whenever we find it. . . . We must go ahead together, or we go down together." She then shook hands with Bethune and the other Black speakers in attendance, breaking strict racist codes that forbade even formal physical contact between whites and blacks, demonstrating that a friendship had developed between the First Lady and Bethune—America's most celebrated Black female leader.

In 1935, the NAACP awarded Bethune its highest honor, the Spingarn Medal. This distinguished recognition, the rising prominence of Bethune-Cookman College, and her relationship with the Roosevelt family paved the way for Bethune to find a political home in the New Deal as one of FDR's Black advisers known informally as the Black Cabinet. At the urging of ER, she was one of two African Americans appointed to the advisory board of the National Youth Administration (NYA), which sought "to provide relief, work relief, and employment" for young people out of school or unemployed. Bethune, like the other members of Roosevelt's Black Cabinet, had no direct role in policymaking, a shortcoming she fully recognized. Still, Bethune took justifiable pride in her symbolic importance in Washington, saying, "When they see me, they know that the Negro is present."

Bethune emerged as the de facto leader of the Black Cabinet, bringing its members into a new group, the Federal Council on Negro Affairs. She took on an equally ambitious task when she organized a new umbrella group for African American women activists, the National Council of Negro Women (NCNW), which held its first meeting at the 137th Street YMCA in New York City in 1935. At the 1940 conference of the NCNW, 450 women met in

Washington to discuss topics including “The Negro Woman in Public Affairs” and “The Problem of Citizenship.” ER attended, and Bethune introduced her on stage.

Bethune met with FDR at the White House in 1939, twice in 1940, and again in 1944. She had hoped to have more influence in making sure that African Americans themselves played key roles in any discussions that involved Black people. In November 1941, ER relayed to her husband Bethune’s request to have “a Negro in a position who can actually confer with the President occasionally on problems that are pertinent to Negroes.” The president wrote on the memo, “No—any more than I can put in a Jew as such or a Spiritualist as such.”

Perhaps Bethune’s most notable wartime work was the NCNW’s drive to integrate Black women into the Women’s Army Corps (WAC). When the war began, Black women could not become WACs, even in segregated units, but Bethune convinced ER to force the military to make the change. Of the first group of 440 trainees to attend officer training school in Des Moines, Iowa, in 1942, forty were Black, and they trained in an integrated setting. Bethune and other NCNW members attended the first camp, which she called “democracy in action.” What Bethune did not know is that only classes and drills would be integrated. Barracks, social events, meals, recreation, and marches would continue to be segregated.

When FDR died, Bethune joined the nation in mourning, sharing a poignant story that emphasized what she viewed as his empathy for African Americans.

Bethune died of a heart attack at home on May 20, 1955. Black Americans grieved, as did Eleanor Roosevelt, who wrote in “My Day” that she “will miss her very much, for I valued her wisdom and her goodness.” Noting that her “death was not far off,” Bethune had written an essay, “My Last Will and Testament,” published posthumously by Ebony magazine in August, where she provided a list of things that she wanted to leave to all African Americans, “in the hope that an old woman’s philosophy may give them inspiration.” She wrote about love, hope, the challenge of developing confidence in one another, a thirst for education, and respect for the uses of power. She encouraged her readers to remember that “the problem of color is world-wide.” Bethune’s relationship with the Roosevelts was personal and political. From their first meeting, she had the support of Sara Delano Roosevelt, who made raising money for Bethune-Cookman College one of her most important projects. Bethune also had a tangible impact on FDR’s New Deal, ushering African Americans into federal positions and convening the Federal Council on Negro Affairs. But her closest relationship was with the first lady. Perhaps the most potent weapon that Bethune and ER deployed was the simple act of appearing together, in what historian Martha Jones has called “a conspicuous rejoinder to Jim Crow.”

4.4) Formation of the Black Cabinet

Beginning in 1933, Secretary of the Interior (and former Chicago NAACP president) Harold Ickes led an effort to open high-level civil servant positions to Black professionals. The first group of these professionals, 27 men and three women who were formerly

architects, demographers, economists, engineers, lawyers, sociologists, and social workers, formed the core of this Black Cabinet. African American federal employees in the executive branch formed an unofficial Federal Council on Negro Affairs to influence federal policy on race issues.

With Eleanor Roosevelt's support, the Black Cabinet ensured that Blacks received 10 percent of welfare funds. The Cabinet debated that Black citizens were underrepresented among recipients of aid under the New Deal, in large part because Southern Democrats had influenced the structure and implementation of programs to aid their white constituents. Programs such as the Works Projects Administration (WPA) and the National Youth Administration attempted to direct 10 percent of funds to African Americans (as their proportion of the U.S. population).

These agencies established separate all-Black units with pay and conditions equal to those in white units, a move favored by Black voters. Most members were not politicians but community leaders, scholars, and activists. Mary McLeod Bethune served as an informal organizer of the Cabinet; Rayford Logan drafted Roosevelt's executive order prohibiting the exclusion of Blacks from the military in World War II. Other leaders included William H. Hastie and Robert C. Weaver. The leaders associated with the Black Cabinet laid part of the foundation of the 20th-century American Civil Rights Movement that strengthened in the postwar years.

The Cabinet tried to create jobs and other opportunities for unemployed Blacks; concentrated in rural areas of the South, African Americans made up about twenty percent of the poor in the Depression Era. They were often the first let go from industrial jobs. Most Blacks did not benefit from some of the New Deal Acts. The WPA created agencies that employed writers, artists, and photographers. Murals were painted, and they commissioned sculptures for numerous federal buildings constructed during this period. The Federal Writers' Project paid its workers \$20 a week, and they wrote histories of every state in the Union, covering major cities in addition. Under Roscoe E. Lewis, the Virginia Writers' Project sent out an all-Black unit of writers to interview formerly enslaved African Americans. Such accounts were also solicited in interviews in other states.

The Slave Narrative Collection of the Federal Writers' Project is one of the WPA's most enduring and noteworthy achievements. Members of the Black Cabinet worked officially and unofficially to provide insight into the needs of African Americans. In the past, there had never been so many Blacks chosen at one time to work in the federal government together for the express benefit of African Americans. Another prominent member of Roosevelt's Black Cabinet was Eugene K. Jones, the Executive Secretary of the National Urban League. Although the Cabinet was concerned with civil rights, Franklin D. Roosevelt believed there were larger problems than racial inequality during wartime; he was also struggling to maintain the support of the Southern white Congressional Democrats.

The 45 primarily comprised an advisory group to the administration. Roosevelt declined to support legislation banning the use of the poll tax in the South and did not support legislation to make lynching a federal offense. In his twelve years as president, Roosevelt did not appoint or nominate a single African American as a secretary or undersecretary in his presidential Cabinet. However, by mid-1935, 45 African Americans were working in federal executive departments and New Deal agencies. Roosevelt gave no formal recognition to the group.

5) Political Context

The Great Depression of the 1930s worsened the already bleak economic situation of African Americans. They were the first to be laid off from their jobs, and they suffered from an unemployment rate two to three times that of whites. In early public assistance programs, African Americans often received substantially less aid than whites, and some charitable organizations even excluded Black people from their soup kitchens.

This intensified economic plight sparked major political developments among African Americans. Beginning in 1929, the St. Louis Urban League launched a national “jobs for Negroes” movement by boycotting chain stores that had mostly Black customers but hired only white employees. Efforts to unify African American organizations and youth groups later led to the founding of the National Negro Congress in 1936 and the Southern Negro Youth Congress in 1937.

Virtually ignored by the Republican administrations of the 1920s, Black voters drifted to the Democratic Party, especially in the Northern cities. In the 1928 presidential election, African Americans voted in large numbers for the Democrats for the first time. In 1930, Republican Pres. Herbert Hoover nominated John J. Parker, a man of pronounced anti-Black views, to the U.S. Supreme Court. The NAACP successfully opposed the nomination. In the 1932 presidential race, African Americans overwhelmingly supported the successful Democratic candidate, Franklin D. Roosevelt.

The Roosevelt administration’s accessibility to African American leaders and the New Deal reforms strengthened Black support for the Democratic Party. A number of African Americans known as the “Black Cabinet” were advisers to Roosevelt. Among them were the educator Mary McLeod Bethune, who served as the National Youth Administration’s director of Negro affairs; William H. Hastie, who in 1937 became the first Black federal judge; Eugene K. Jones, executive secretary of the National Urban League; Robert Vann, editor of the Pittsburgh Courier; and the economist Robert C. Weaver.

African Americans benefited from the New Deal programs mostly with the efforts of the Black Cabinet, though discrimination by local administrators was common. Low-cost public housing was made available to Black families. The National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps enabled African American youths to continue their education. The Works Progress Administration gave jobs to many African Americans, and its Federal

Writers' Project supported the work of many Black authors, among them Zora Neale Hurston, Arna Bontemps, Waters Turpin, and Melvin B. Tolson.

The Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO), established in the mid-1930s, organized large numbers of Black workers into labor unions for the first time. By 1940, there were more than 200,000 African Americans in the CIO, many of them officers of union locals.

6) Major Challenges

6.1) Jim Crow Laws

The term Jim Crow originates back to 1828 when a white New York comedian, Thomas Dartmouth "Daddy" Rice, performed in blackface his song and dance that he called Jump Jim Crow. Rice's performance was supposedly inspired by the song and dance of a physically disabled black man he had seen in Cincinnati, Ohio, named Jim Cuff or Jim Crow. The song became a huge hit in the 19th century, and Thomas Rice performed it across the country as "Daddy Jim Crow," a caricature of a shabbily dressed African American man.

Jump Jim Crow initiated a new form of popular music and theatrical performances in the United States that focused their attention on the mockery of African Americans. This new genre was called the minstrel show. Jim Crow as entertainment spread rapidly across the United States in the years prior to the Civil War and eventually around the world. An example of this influence came when the United States' special ambassador to Central America, John Lloyd Stephens, arrived in Merida on Mexico's Yucatan Peninsula in 1841. Upon his arrival, a local brass band mistakenly played Jump Jim Crow, mistaking it for the national anthem of the United States. The popularity of Jump Jim Crow and the blackface form of entertainment also prompted many whites to refer to most black males routinely as Jim Crow.

Eventually, the term Jim Crow was applied to the body of racial segregation laws and practices throughout the nation. As early as 1837, the term Jim Crow was used to describe racial segregation in Vermont. Most of these laws, however, emerged in the southern and border states of the United States between the years 1876 and 1965. They mandated the separation of the races and separate and unequal status for African Americans. The most important Jim Crow laws required that public schools, public accommodations, and public transportation, including buses and trains, have separate facilities for whites and blacks. The facilities established for African Americans were always far inferior to whites, and reinforced their poverty and political exclusion. These laws also generated a decades-long struggle for equal rights.

Prior to the Civil War, the inferior status of slaves had made it unnecessary to pass laws segregating them from white people. Both races could work side by side so long as the slave recognized his subordinate place. In the cities, where most free African

Americans lived, rudimentary forms of segregation existed prior to 1860, but no uniform pattern emerged. In the North, free Blacks also laboured under harsh restrictions and often found an even more rigid segregation than in the South. One might have expected the Southern states to have created a segregation system immediately after the war, but that did not happen. In some states the legislatures imposed rigid separation, but only in certain areas; Texas, for example, required that every train have one car in which all people of colour had to sit. The South had had no real system of public education before the Civil War, and as the postwar Reconstruction governments created public schools, those were as often as not segregated by race. Nonetheless, New Orleans had fully integrated schools until 1877, and in North Carolina, former slaves routinely sat on juries alongside whites.

In 1877, the Supreme Court ruled in *Hall v. DeCuir* that states could not prohibit segregation on common carriers such as railroads, streetcars, or riverboats. In the Civil Rights Cases of 1883, the court overturned key elements of the Civil Rights Act of 1875, thereby sanctioning the notion of “separate but equal” facilities and transportation for the races (though it did not use the term separate but equal). Seven years later, the court approved a Mississippi statute requiring segregation on intrastate carriers in *Louisville, New Orleans & Texas Railway v. Mississippi* (1890). As those cases demonstrated, the court essentially acquiesced in the South’s “solution” to the problems of race relations.

From 1887 to 1892, nine states, including Louisiana, passed laws requiring separation on public conveyances, such as streetcars and railroads. Though they differed in detail, most of those statutes required equal accommodations for Black passengers and imposed fines and even jail terms on railroad employees who did not enforce them. Five of the states also provided criminal fines or imprisonment for passengers who tried to sit in cars from which their race was excluded. The Louisiana Separate Car Act passed in July 1890. In order to “promote the comfort of passengers,” railroads had to provide “equal but separate accommodations for the white and colored races” on lines running in the state.

The segregation principle was extended to parks, cemeteries, theatres, and restaurants in an effort to prevent any contact between Blacks and whites as equals. It was codified on local and state levels and, most famously, abovementioned, with the “separate but equal” decision of the U.S. Supreme Court in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896).



In 1954, the Supreme Court reversed Plessy in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*. It declared segregation in public schools unconstitutional, and, by extension, that ruling was applied to other public facilities. In the years following, subsequent decisions struck down similar kinds of Jim Crow legislation.

6.2) Violence and Lynching

A lynching is the public killing of an individual who has not received any due process. These executions were often carried out by lawless mobs, though police officers did participate, under the pretext of justice.

Lynchings were violent public acts that white people used to terrorize and control Black people in the 19th and 20th centuries, particularly in the South. Lynchings typically evoke images of Black men and women hanging from trees, but they involved other extreme brutality, such as torture, mutilation, decapitation, and desecration. Some victims were burned alive.

A typical lynching involved a criminal accusation, an arrest, and the assembly of a mob, followed by seizure, physical torment, and murder of the victim. Lynchings

were often public spectacles attended by the white community in celebration of white supremacy. Photos of lynchings were often sold as souvenir postcards.

Black people were the primary victims of lynching: 3,446, or about 72 percent of the people lynched, were Black. But they weren't the only victims of lynching. Some white people were lynched for helping Black people or for being anti-lynching. Immigrants from Mexico, China, Australia, and other countries were also lynched.

White mobs often used dubious criminal accusations to justify lynchings. A common claim used to lynch Black men was perceived sexual transgressions against white women. Charges of rape were routinely fabricated. These allegations were used to enforce segregation and advance stereotypes of Black men as violent, hypersexual aggressors.

Hundreds of Black people were lynched based on accusations of other crimes, including murder, arson, robbery, and vagrancy.

Many victims of lynchings were murdered without being accused of any crime. They were killed for violating social customs or racial expectations, such as speaking to white people with less respect than what white people believed they were owed.

By 1954, it was almost 100 years since slavery had been abolished. However, black Americans continued to face extreme violence, such as beatings and lynching.

Frequently it was done under the claim of an alleged offence, but without holding a legal trial. In most instances, these brutal murders and beatings were not stopped or investigated by the police.

The Ku Klux Klan

(KKK) is a violent and secretive organisation that was founded after the Civil War. Its members believe in white supremacy - the idea that white people were from a superior race.

The KKK increased its activity after World War Two. KKK members hated black people and opposed any form of equality with them. Some of its actions included:

- burning crosses, marching and wearing hooded gowns to terrorise black people
- violence against black Americans, including lynching and other aggressive actions to intimidate black people
- scaring black people to prevent them from voting

One of the reasons the KKK was so powerful was because it was difficult for black people to get justice for crimes committed against them in a court of law. When a case against a white person did get to court, the members of the jury were usually white. They were often biased and ruled in favour of the accused white person.

In total, over 400 black Americans were lynched by the KKK throughout the 1920s.



One of Eleanor Roosevelt's most outspoken campaigns, and one of her greatest disappointments. Throughout American history, issues of race and civil rights have challenged the most precious core principle – that all people are created equal. During the first half of the 20th century, racial segregation and discrimination were the law in many states. The notorious Jim Crow laws in the South prevented African Americans from getting a decent education, from owning businesses, and even from voting. Mrs. Roosevelt spoke out against all of these injustices.

The Democratic Party controlled most of the South, and many Southern Democrats held powerful senior positions in the House and Senate. Their intransigence prevented President Franklin Roosevelt from instituting wide-ranging civil rights legislation. That opposition did not stop Eleanor Roosevelt, who strongly supported civil rights and was remarkably courageous in her words and actions supporting social justice for African Americans. In the 1950s, her work so angered the Ku Klux Klan that they put

a \$25,000 bounty on her. She received death threats throughout her life because of her work.

Eleanor Roosevelt believed that lynchings and indeed ALL injustices targeting African Americans must be stopped. She believed strongly that black lives did matter. And she fought hardest and spoke out loudest for those who could not defend themselves or who had no voice. Ultimately, her efforts to pass federal legislation to prevent lynchings were unsuccessful. But she continued her campaign for civil rights until she died in 1962.

7) Committee Structure

7.1) Roles

The delegates will act as the members of the Black Cabinet and the Board will take on the role of the United States Federal Government, including President Roosevelt and relevant executive authorities. All directives, proposals, deals and negotiations will be reviewed by the Board (The US Government) and they may or may not approve it based on historical facts, consistency, and the format of your directives. They will also give you updates regarding the directives and proposals.

7.2) Procedure

Since our committee is a special one, the procedure may change or vary related to the situation, but the ground and important parts of the procedure are present in this guide.

Points in Crisis Procedure

Due to the nature of the committee, directives will be the main focus of the committee's progression, and subsequently, some parts of the crisis procedure will also be implemented.

Roll Call

To state your presence during a roll call, when your allocation is called out you should say 'I' or 'Present'. The roll call is taken at the beginning of each session.

Tour de Table

Tour de Table is an introduction, similar to the opening speech in the General Assembly(GA) committees. You can talk about whatever you want; You can introduce yourself, talk about your plans, or give out your opinions about the current situation. Tour de Table gets taken in the beginning of each session, after the roll call.

Unmoderated Caucus

Unlike GA committees, Unmoderated caucuses are the main caucus you will have. Since unmoderated caucuses are the only caucus where the delegates are not chaired, they have the ability to stand up, make plans, and most importantly, write directives.

7.3) Directives

Personal Directives

Personal directives are directives that include only you and the actions you will be taking. So the actions that you take will be completed by only you and the people under your command. Now, there is a format for writing and sending directives. Firstly, you need to fill the 'From' and 'To' parts. The 'From' part will include your name, and the 'To' part will include the department you are sending the directives to, which is Related Authorities (RA) or the Related Department (RD). Then, you need to write the real time in real life and the date in the committee, which will be regularly changing with time updates and changing events. Lastly, you need to write the type of the directive as a headline. After the format, the real directive begins. In order to fulfill the directive's potential to the maximum, you need to be answering all WH questions (What, Who, Where, Why, When, and How) during the process. It is up to the writer to merge all categories, but it is encouraged that you write them separately to make things easier for the crisis team to understand your directive fully.

Here is an example:

From: Mr. Greer Date:19/09/1962

To: RA Time: 12.15

Personal Directive

What: a directive to find out who organized this operation using a spy

When: As soon as possible

Who: who they will choose; myself and they would have the skills we need in that topic

Why: to find out who organised this operation

How:

Firstly, with the power of the CIA, I will research the terrorist groups who have power in the area because if there is an event in the world, the CIA is able to get info about that operation CIA will use its own ways to research the terrorist groups. They will use spies who get an education in the USA and work for at least 15 years in the area for the CIA, have a good relationship with terrorist groups in those areas, and have a phone signal jammer, and they will look Asian. They will collect the information, and on 1 April 2024, if they have them, they will use their secret bases and secret phones that can't be detected by phone radar. They will get in contact at 12.00 am. If they don't have secret bases, the government of the USA will design a sports match, and the spy will bet on this match, and they will win that bet. Because the match will be fraudulent, after they get money, they will design a secret safe house. And sent infos for us. After they got info from the terrorist group IF they didn't do anything. We will

start to research the government of China. The same people who get an education in the USA and work at least 15 years in the area for the CIA and have a good relationship with the government of China have a phone radar jammer, and they will look Asian. In addition, they can sacrifice themselves for our government. They will have poison that can kill in a second; if they are arrested or come out, they will use it. After getting information from inside, they will use the same ways to communicate, but the date will be 3 April 2024. After the CIA gets information, they will send a report to me, and depending on the situation, I will have journalists from all over the world make news that will criticize them in the press at the same time. An attitude will be taken against them in the whole world, especially in my own country.

Joint Directives

These directives are similar to personal directives and follow the same format, but they include more than one delegate. The only difference is that you need to add the delegate's name, who is included in the "from" part, and have their signatures at the end.

Committee Directives

A committee directive is a directive that is written together and approved collectively by the entire committee; in your case, this directive type will play a very significant role since you are a cabinet who needs to be on the same page for the deals and proposals that are going to be made to the Roosevelt administration.

Intelligence Directive

An Intelligence Directive is a directive that you send to the committee academy to learn about your current stats, whereabouts, or status. This directive is in a question format you can use to learn information for your other directives.

Crucial Points in Writing an Efficient Directive

Directives let you create a space for any action imaginable in the realm of this committee. It is also important to note that directives will be the anchor in shaping the flow of the committee, so here are some crucial points in ensuring the efficiency of a directive:

- For every action that is written in the directive, it has to answer all the WH questions.
- The longer and more detailed, the better.
- Drawing a doctrine, charging plan, or strategy may significantly increase the directive's precision and effectiveness. The success rate of the directive will grow in proportion to how clear your action and directive are.
- Do not use abbreviations such as "etc."; instead, detail the directive explicitly.

- WH- questions are not necessarily broken into paragraphs (one can write the directive like a book), but if you are a beginner, doing so will dramatically improve the quality of your directive; hence, it is strongly recommended.
- Since you are in a Special Committee, you need to implement your ideas to the other delegates, but do not be hesitant to ask for help from other merchants or your chair; you are all in this together.
- If you are positive that there is no imposter in the cabinet, directives should be written separately because it will be much faster. That way, eight people will be working on eight different tasks, and it will save quite a lot of time.
- Precise information, like the availability of the resources you are going to use, the amount, and your way of getting them, is critical; do not forget to write them down.
- If needed, fake names can be used for strategic persons in the directives too.

Lastly, our committee will use a Policy Memorandum as its Final Document, and the detailed workshop is gonna be given at the conference, but I highly recommend you look up some examples.

8) References

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