NATIONAL TRAIL STUDY
APRIL 1993
United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

As the Nation's principal conservation agency, the Department of the Interior has responsibility for most of our nationally owned public lands and natural resources. This includes fostering the wisest use of our land and water resources, protecting our fish and wildlife, preserving the environmental and cultural values of our national parks and historical places, and providing for the enjoyment of life through outdoor recreation. The Department assesses our mineral resources and works to assure that their development is in the best interests of all our people. The Department also has a major responsibility for American Indian reservation communities and for people who live in Island Territories under United States administration.

The National Park Service, Department of the interior, is an equal opportunity agency and offers all persons the benefits of participating in each of its programs and competing in all areas of employment regardless of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, handicap or other nonmerit factors.
SUMMARY

This study of the Selma to Montgomery Trail examines the eligibility, feasibility and desirability of establishing, as a component of the national trail system, a trail following the route from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama, traveled by people in a march dramatizing the need for voting rights legislation, in March 1965. An evaluation of the proposed 54-mile trail, its length, and cultural resources indicates that the route meets the criteria for national historic trails.

It is recommended that a 54-mile national historic trail from Selma to Montgomery be established and administered by the National Park Service. The trail would be a cooperative city, county, State and friends group project. Although there would be efforts to provide some protection to several significant historical sites along the trail, the main effort of trail administrator would be in marking the trail, placing historical plaques and developing interpretive programs to commemorate this historic march.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## INTRODUCTION
- Study Purpose .......................................................... 1
- National Trail System .................................................. 1

## HISTORICAL BACKGROUND
- Brief History of the Civil Rights Movement ....................... 3
- The Selma to Montgomery Voting Rights Movement ............. 10

## DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA
- Natural Resources ....................................................... 22
- Physical Environment .................................................. 22
- Climate ........................................................................ 22
- Flora and Fauna ............................................................ 22
- Cultural Resources ......................................................... 23
- National Historic Landmarks ........................................... 23
- Sites Listed in the National Register ................................ 23
- Additional Sites ............................................................ 23
- Socioeconomic Environment ............................................ 27
- Population and Economy ............................................... 27
- Existing Public Use ........................................................ 27
- Monuments, Memorials and Local Museums ...................... 28
- Recreation Resources ..................................................... 29
- Land Ownership and Use ............................................... 29

## NATIONAL TRAIL ELIGIBILITY
- National Scenic Trail Criteria .......................................... 30
- National Historic Trail Criteria ......................................... 30
- Description of Route ...................................................... 30
- National Significance ...................................................... 31
- Potential for Interpretation and Education ......................... 32

## FEASIBILITY AND MANAGEMENT ALTERNATIVES
- Alternative 1 ............................................................... 34
- Alternative 2 ............................................................... 34
- Alternative 3 ............................................................... 34
- Alternative 4 ............................................................... 35
- Alternative 5 ............................................................... 36
- Preferred Alternative .................................................... 36
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ENVIRONMENTAL CONSEQUENCES</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred Alternative</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Alternative</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF PREPARERS</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED REFERENCES</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDICES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A - Selma to Montgomery National Trail Study Act</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B - Introductory Study Brochure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C - Draft Report for Public Comment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D - National Park System Advisory Board Resolution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E - Public Meeting Comments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F - Consultation, Coordination and Public Comments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G - Trailwide Interpretive Topics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION

Study Purpose

In 1990, Congress directed the Secretary of the Interior to study the route traveled by voting rights protestors in 1965 from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama. A national trail study assesses the eligibility and, if eligible, the feasibility and desirability of authorizing a route as a national historic or scenic trail. Responsibility for the study was assigned to the Southeast Regional Office of the National Park Service (NPS).

This document is a final report on the results of the study. It also presents alternatives other than national trail authorization to commemorate the Selma to Montgomery march. The document was prepared on the basis of extensive historical research, including oral interviews, and input received at a series of public meetings. Local citizens, organizations, and public officials, including the Alabama Historical Commission, were consulted during preparation of this study. Alternatives were developed based on public comments, and a preferred alternative has been selected.

This document includes an environmental assessment prepared in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act and the National Environmental Policy Act. Included is an analysis of the environmental effects of the conceptual alternatives.

National Trails System

The National Trails System Act of 1968, as amended, institutes a national system of recreation, scenic, and historic trails. National recreation trails provide a variety of outdoor recreation uses in or reasonably accessible to urban areas. They are designated by the Secretary of the Interior or the Secretary of Agriculture. National scenic trails are extended routes, authorized by Congress, that provide recreation and the conservation and enjoyment of the nationally significant scenic, natural, or cultural qualities of the areas through which they pass. Scenic trails are primarily intended for hiking and other non-motorized uses determined to be appropriate for each individual case, such as horseback riding, bicycling, cross country skiing, and nature study. Recreational use of scenic trails tends to be a more important management emphasis than natural and cultural interpretation. Congress has established eight national scenic trails: the Appalachian, Pacific Crest, Continental Divide, North Country, Ice Age, Potomac Heritage, Natchez Trace, and Florida trails.

National historic trails are extended routes, authorized by Congress, that follow nationally significant, original routes of travel as closely as possible. Their purpose is to identify and interpret the historic route and its remnants and arti-
facts for public use and enjoyment. Congress has established ten national historic trails: the Lewis and Clark, Oregon, Mormon, Iditarod, Overmountain Victory, Trail of Tears, Nez Perce, Santa Fe, Juan Bautista de Anza and California and Pony Express trails. To qualify as a national historic trail, the trail must, among other things, meet three special criteria in the National Trail Systems Act: (1) It must be a trail or route established by historic use; its location must be sufficiently known; and it should generally follow the historic route accurately; (2) it must be of national significance with respect to any of several broad facets of American history; and (3) it must have significant potential for public recreational use or historic interest based on historic interpretation and appreciation.

If Congress authorizes a national historic or scenic trail, a comprehensive management plan is developed to specify actions necessary to provide for public use and resource protection. National scenic trails and national historic trails include an ongoing Federal administrative responsibility, in a spirit of cooperation with other governmental units and the private sector. A “cooperative effort” is a most important facet of the trails administration.
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Brief History of the Civil Rights Movement

The American civil rights movement has traditionally been identified with the protest activities of the 1950s and 1960s. Recent generations most commonly associate it with marches led by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and the boycotts and sit-in activities by African-Americans and whites in the Deep South. The movement's origin is most often associated with the landmark Supreme Court case, Brown v. the Board of Education (1954), which declared racial segregation in public education unconstitutional. Although such events were significant, the civil rights movement was not spontaneous. Decades of activity prior to the Brown decision set the stage for the momentous events of the 1950s and 1960s and are a significant part of the civil rights movement. After years of legal maneuvering, the marches, sit-ins, and rallies were able to focus the nation's attention on the plight of African-Americans, and several landmark Federal laws were the result.

The Selma to Montgomery march was only one protest, but it stands out because of its purpose—voting rights. Full citizenship and voting rights had been long denied to minorities in the United States, and the quest for political rights was an obvious progression after the desegregation of public accommodations in 1964. Through widespread media coverage, the Congress, the President, and the American people saw the determination and strength of the Selma protestors as they endured violence and adversity. Their cause was adopted by many, resulting in a massive march and a rush to enact strong legislation which would guarantee suffrage rights for all eligible voters.

The Colonial Era

When the American colonists formally declared themselves independent from Great Britain in 1776, many of them did not believe this call for freedom applied to the liberation of African slaves. Many blacks who had been held in legal bondage since the mid-17th century used the momentous time to gain emancipation. In an effort to secure their freedom, thousands of black males volunteered for military service in exchange for freedom. However, emancipated blacks were not entirely free since white society refused to recognize them as equal citizens. Voting rights became an important issue during the post-colonial era simply because the newly formed democratic system supposedly guaranteed these rights to most citizens. The reality, however, was that only white male, property owners were given this privilege; non-property owners, native Americans, women, and blacks were excluded from voting.

The Post-Colonial Era

During the late 18th century, many northern States rewrote State laws restricting political rights for black Americans. The State of New York, for example, proclaimed that blacks could not vote or hold public office after an earlier law had declared that all free men regardless of race or creed were eligible to vote. Later, New York statutes abolished property qualifications for white voters, but increased property taxes for African-Americans. This reduced the status of black Americans to second class citizenship and deprived them of the ballot. (Higginbotham: 148)

Although a small number of blacks were emancipated during the Revolutionary era, the majority of them, especially in the South, remained in bondage. The need for human labor in the South placed free blacks in an awkward predicament. With more than 319,000 freedmen in the United States, white southerners viewed this group as a threat to slavery because it gave bondsmen aspirations to become free. Southern societies therefore enacted various restrictions on freedmen, including limitations on the right to vote.

During the early 19th century, citizenship became a major issue of the civil rights movement. Led by activists such as Frederick Douglass and Martin R. Delaney, free African-Americans sought the Federal government's recognition of their citizenship. Blacks had hoped if the nation accepted them as citizens, voting rights would follow. Disenfranchisement restrictions, however, caused great concern for many free blacks who believed that white society had no intentions of accepting them as citizens. This sentiment was eloquently expressed by Delaney when he wrote:

It is useless to talk about our rights in individual states; we can have no rights there as
citizens, not recognized (sic) in our common country; as the citizens of one state, are entitled to all the rights and privileges of an American citizen in all the states. . . . These provisions then do not include the colored people of the United States; since there is no power left in them, whereby they may protect us as their own citizens (Delaney: 158).

The lack of civil liberties for free blacks prompted some, like Delaney, to advocate African emigration. But as the nation’s internal problems intensified over slavery, it appeared that conflict was inevitable. Many black Americans and white abolitionists saw domestic conflict as the solution to the slavery and citizenship issues.

The Civil War

The slavery controversy was a primary cause of the Civil War. Slavery had become an increasingly important and sensitive issue as the nation began to expand westward. Congress made diverse attempts to solve the problem through several legislative acts: the Missouri Compromise of 1820, the Compromise of 1850 and the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854. Each of these measures sought to appease the northern and southern regions of the country by designating slave and non-slave areas; strengthening the Fugitive Slave Act and abolishing slave trade in the District of Columbia; and having the slavery issue decided by popular sovereignty. Nonetheless, northern and southern regional hostility increased as these attempts failed.

In 1857, the United States Supreme Court appeared to settle the slavery debate through the Dred Scott v. Sandford case. Scott, a Missouri slave, petitioned the local courts and later the Supreme Court for freedom and citizenship respectively. In its final opinion, the court declared that blacks were not citizens of the United States. National citizenship, according to the Supreme Court, was extended through the State, but did not apply to blacks:

\[
\text{The words 'people of the United States' and 'citizens' are synonymous terms, and mean the same thing, who, according to our republican institutions, form the sovereignty, and who hold the power and conduct the government through their representatives. . . . The question before us is, whether the class of persons described in the plea in abatement compose a portion of the people, and are constituent members of this sovereignty. We think they are not, and that they are not included, and were not intended to be included, under the word 'citizens' in the Constitution, and can, therefore, claim none of the rights and privileges which the instrument provides for and secures to citizens of the United States. . . . (Cushman: 702).}
\]

This landmark case not only hindered the anti-slavery movement, but more importantly jeopardized the status of free blacks in American society. The highest court in the land made it clear that, regardless of status, black Americans could not enjoy the rights and privileges guaranteed by the Constitution.

The effort to solve the slavery question eventually led to the outbreak of war in April 1861. The Civil War gave blacks new hope for complete liberation and citizenship rights. As during the American Revolution, black men volunteered for military service in an effort to gain their freedom and citizenship. While slaves in the Confederate States were liberated through the Emancipation Proclamation issued by President Abraham Lincoln in 1863, all bondsmen were not recognized as freedmen until the close of the Civil War and the passage of the 13th Amendment in 1865.

Consequently, the end of the Civil War marked the termination of two centuries of legalized slavery in America. The war emancipated four million slaves—the majority of whom were uneducated, landless and homeless. The United States next had to find solutions to such severe problems while reconstructing the South.

Reconstruction

Dominated by Republicans, the Thirty-Ninth Congress convened in December 1865. Its major priority was to adopt provisions for the South’s readmittance to the Union and to provide for emancipated slaves. Under the leadership of Senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts and Congressman Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, “Radical Republicans” were concerned about the fate of the
freedmen. Congress, in March, 1865, established the Freedmen’s Bureau to assist ex-slaves and impoverished whites secure land, homes, employment, and education. Although these necessities were important, an additional concern was gaining citizenship and voting rights. After slavery was abolished permanently through the 13th Amendment, Congress, in 1866 extended citizenship and voting rights to blacks through the Civil Rights Act. Historian Eric Foner describes the Civil Rights Act of 1866 as “one of the most important bills ever presented.” (Foner: 121) For the most part, the bill was a response to the Black Codes established by southern governments which prohibited freedmen from voting, serving on juries, holding public office, and having equal access to public facilities and accommodations.

With the enactment of the Civil Rights Act, the major fear for freedmen and Radical Republicans was that the Act did not fully protect their rights. Hence, in 1867, the Reconstruction Act required southern States to rewrite their constitutions to include voting rights and the adoption of the proposed 14th Amendment. Similarly, Congress passed a bill that enfranchised blacks in Washington, D.C., which was subsequently extended to the States. To ensure enforcement of the legislation, the 14th Amendment was ratified on July 9, 1868, granting national citizenship to black Americans. A clause was added legally enfranchising all blacks and threatening to deny congressional representation to any southern State violating the amendment. The amendment drew criticism from white southerners who believed the law gave too much power to the freedmen, and women rights advocates such as Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady argued that the 14th Amendment should have been used to grant all citizens suffrage rights, regardless of race or sex.

The passage of the Civil Rights Act, Reconstruction Act and the 14th Amendment were significant because they provided the opportunity for blacks to participate in the political process. Accordingly, it forced the nation to convert into an “interracial democracy”. For the first time, America would not act as separate entities, but as one. Both black and white voters exercised political rights as one community, not separately as in the past. (Foner: 122) Once African-Americans were enfranchised, Republicans urged them to exercise their right by voting for party candidates. With the aid of the Loyal League, a powerful political club, blacks ran for public office and were elected to local and State offices throughout the South. Moreover, 22 black Americans were elected to the United States Congress, and of these, 2 served in the Senate, and 20 served in the House of Representatives (Quarles: 135).

To ensure African-American voting power, the 15th Amendment was ratified in February 1870. This amendment prohibited Federal and State governments from denying any male citizen the right to vote because of race or previous condition of servitude. Radical Republicans viewed this piece of legislation as an effort “to promote black equality and transform America from a confederation of states into a centralized nation” (Foner: 192). A major weakness of the amendment was that it did not prohibit the use of poll taxes, literacy tests, and property qualifications as a means to deny one’s voting rights. Moreover, it broadly stated that “race” should not be the basis to deny one the right to vote, but it did not prevent religion, sex, education or property from being used to discriminate against voters.

Conservative white southerners nevertheless viewed Republican power as dictatorial and unfair. They believed that the Republican reconstruction programs allowed too much political and economic power to African-Americans. To protect black voting rights further, Congress in 1871 passed two legislative bills, the Ku Klux Klan and the Enforcement Acts, which prohibited States from discriminating in voting. Despite these efforts, white conservatives regained political control in the State legislatures and began to enact laws to curtail black suffrage. Their actions were supported by the Supreme Court when it ruled in United States v. Cruikshank (1876) that the 15th Amendment did not prevent individuals from voting discrimination, only States. In 1883, social and economic gains for blacks were further reduced when the court proclaimed that the Civil Rights Acts of 1875, which prevented social discrimination and permitted blacks to serve on juries, were unconstitutional since the 14th Amendment did not permit “Congress to create a code of municipal law for the regulation of private rights,” only “against the operation of state laws” (Cushman: 685).
By the late 1890s, blacks had lost virtually all civil liberties accorded by the Constitution and other laws. As northern support began to wane and Federal troops left the South after the election of Rutherford B. Hayes, white conservatives, often known as “Redeemers,” took total control of the State legislatures and rewrote State constitutions to disfranchise African-American voters. Mississippi and Louisiana, for instance, employed tactics such as poll taxes, literacy tests, grandfather clauses, and restrictive primaries as requirements to vote. These methods proved to be effective as thousands of blacks lost their voting privileges and were expelled from elected positions.

When the *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision in 1896 sanctioned legalized segregation, the status of black Americans had declined drastically. In the South, racial violence, segregation, and limited economic and educational opportunities compelled thousands of blacks to leave rural communities and seek refuge in northern and southern metropolitan areas. Even in urban centers, blacks continued to live in a segregated society which, at best, recognized them as second-class citizens. Many African-Americans sought alternatives to remedy their condition. Black leaders such as Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. DuBois and Bishop Henry McNeal Turner of the African Methodist Church responded with diverse solutions. Although these leaders proposed ideas varied from separatism to African emigration, they all agreed that the acquisition and exercising of suffrage rights were the primary concerns of the black community. Without this essential privilege, African-Americans would never be recognized as equal citizens.

Black Americans, like generations before them, believed in the American values and principles of democracy and set forth to claim their place in society. There were three methods that were used to accomplish this goal. First, black leaders such as Washington and DuBois strongly urged the establishment of educational institutions to increase the awareness of civil rights. Further, the occurrences of war were again used to secure civil rights, and from 1898 to 1945, millions of black males attempted to enlist in the military in order “to make the world safe for democracy.” Lastly, the laws that denied equal liberties to blacks had to be eradicated, and protest organizations such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) were established to further the cause.

### A New Century

During the early decades of the 20th century, black Americans formed civil rights organizations at the national and local levels to combat racial discrimination. Among these were the Niagara Movement and the NAACP. Led by Dr. W.E.B. DuBois and a team of 29 black intellectuals, the Niagara Movement was organized in 1905 to formally protest segregation and disfranchisement. After the Niagara Movement was formally established, over 80 branch offices in northern cities were created, and a legal department was established to fight civil rights in the courts.

Even though a few significant cases were won, the Niagara Movement was unable to survive due to meager funds. After the demise of the organization, the principals and philosophy of the Niagara Movement were transferred to a new organization, the NAACP.

Founded in 1909 as an interracial organization, the NAACP’s primary concern was acquiring voting rights for black Americans. Since racial discrimination and the lack of political rights had been formulated through the courts, the NAACP developed a legal team, the Legal Defense Fund, to attack discrimination through the judicial system. In an attempt to secure voting rights, the NAACP challenged disfranchisement laws by attacking the legality of white primaries created to nominate Democratic Party candidates and to exclude blacks from participating in elections. In 1923, the State of Texas even legislated that “in no event shall a negro (sic) be eligible to participate in the Democratic Party primary elections, such ballot would be void and elected officials are herein directed to throw out such a ballot, and not count the same” (Cushman: 674). This law was challenged by the NAACP in the case *Nixon v. Herndon* (1927). The Supreme Court ruled the statute invalid on the grounds that blacks were not able to exercise their “equal protection” rights guaranteed under the 14th Amendment.

By the 1930s and 1940s, the NAACP challenged the courts on voting rights once again when a black voter attempted to participate in the exclusive white Democratic Party. The Supreme Court stated in *Groovey v. Townsend* (1935) that since the political organization was viewed as a “private club” it did not violate the 14th Amendment and therefore one’s voting privilege was not denied. But in 1944, the Su-
The Supreme Court reversed this decision by declaring in *Smith v. Allwright* that the Texas primary did violate the 15th Amendment [See Table 1]. Although the NAACP won several significant victories on the voting issue, African-Americans continued to vote in small numbers.

In addition to challenging political rights for blacks, the NAACP attempted to eradicate social segregation through the landmark case, *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*. The Legal Defense Fund under the leadership of attorneys Charles Hamilton Houston and Thurgood Marshall successfully argued against the constitutionality of segregation in public education and the Plessy case. After careful consideration, the Supreme Court handed down an unanimous decision on May 17, 1954, declaring that legal segregation was unconstitutional. This monumental victory helped eliminate legal discrimination, but the work of the NAACP did not end with the Brown case. The task of the NAACP continued to be effective even though it often did not bring immediate change.

It was the need for immediate and direct change which prompted many black Americans to utilize different methods, including mass demonstrations, sit-ins and boycotts. Mass demonstrations were essential to the success of the modern civil rights movement because they created crisis situations which required negotiations between white and black leaders. In his famous essay, "Letter from a Birmingham City Jail" in 1963, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., expressed the impatience of African-Americans when he wrote, "We have known through painful experience that freedom is never voluntarily given by the oppressor; it must be demanded by the oppressed" (King: 292).

Mass demonstrations proved to be forceful and effective when A. Philip Randolph of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters threatened to march on Washington, D.C. to petition the Federal government for fair employment opportunities in 1941. The first mass demonstrations, however, did not occur until the 1950s [See Table 2]. Organizations such as the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC); Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC); Congress of Racial Equality (CORE); and the NAACP, used marches and mass protests to force Federal, State and local governments to reconsider their views on civil rights. All of these organizations considered securing voting rights as the best method of gaining civil liberties for blacks. In his eloquent speech in 1957 at the Prayer Pilgrimage March on Washington, D.C., Dr. King, leader of the SCLC, called for the Federal government to grant voting rights to African-Americans when he declared:

*Give us the ballot and we will no longer have to worry the Federal government about our basic rights. Give us the ballot and we will no longer plead to the Federal government for the passage of an anti-lynching law; we will by the power of our vote write the law on statute books of the southern states and bring to an end to the dastardly acts of the hooded perpetrators of violence... Give us the ballot and we will fill our legislative halls with men of good will... Give us the ballot and we will quietly and non-violently... implement the Supreme Court's decision of May 17, 1954* (King: 197-198).

The most significant mass demonstration occurred during the March on Washington on August 28, 1963, when the major civil rights organizations joined forces to petition the Federal government for a strong civil rights bill. The interracial crowd was inspired by various speakers such as A. Philip Randolph, John Lewis of the SNCC and Bayard Rustin of CORE, and the most memorable presentation was given by Dr. King as he told the world of his dream of racial equality. As a result of these major marches, the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1964 were passed. [See Table 3]

Although the Federal government guaranteed voting rights to African-Americans through civil rights legislation, many were still denied access to the political process. Voting discrimination, for the most part, was caused by the government's lack of enforcement of existing laws. In the summer of 1964, civil rights organizations such as the SCLC, SNCC, and CORE tested Federal legislation in the South's Black Belt by conducting mass registration drives. The three civil rights groups joined forces and formed the Council of Federated Organizations (COFO) in Mississippi. The interracial group, primarily northern college students, created freedom schools to educate black Americans as to their citizenship rights and registered them to vote. During this effort, three COFO workers, Andrew Goodman, Michael Schwerner, and
James Chaney, were murdered in Philadelphia, Mississippi.

Federal legislation was tested further when the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party (MFDP) was formed by SNCC member, Robert Moses. The MFDP challenged the all white Democratic Party of Mississippi by nominating four candidates, including Fannie Lou Hamer, to the United States Congress. The MFDP gained further notoriety when it sparked a credentials challenge at the Democratic National Convention of 1964 in Atlantic City, New Jersey. Despite the failure of securing elected positions, the MFDP did, however, give black Americans in Mississippi the opportunity to exercise their voting rights and to participate in the political process. The next organized protest would be Selma, Alabama, where a strong Federal voting rights law would be the goal.

### Table 1. Landmark Civil Rights Cases, 1915-1954

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Court Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guinn v. United States</td>
<td>June 21, 1915</td>
<td>MD&amp;OK</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that “grandfather clauses” are unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buchanan v. Worley</td>
<td>Nov. 15, 1917</td>
<td>KY</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that racial segregation in residential areas in Louisville is unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moore v. Dempsey</td>
<td>1923</td>
<td>AR</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that African-Americans are excluded from serving on juries, and African-Americans therefore are not offered fair trials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nixon v. Herndon</td>
<td>Mar. 7, 1927</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that “white primaries” are unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missouri ex rel Gaines v. Canada</td>
<td>Dec. 12, 1938</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that a state must provide equal educational facilities for African-Americans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith v. Allwright</td>
<td>April 3, 1944</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that exclusion of African Americans from Democratic primary is unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sipuel v. Oklahoma</td>
<td>Jan. 12, 1948</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court orders Oklahoma to provide equal opportunity to education in state law schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State of Regents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that federal and state courts can not enforce restrictive covenants which bar a person from owning or occupying personal property because of their race.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shelley v. Kramer</td>
<td>May 3, 1948</td>
<td>MO</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules that law school admission policies violate the 14th Amendment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweat v. Painter</td>
<td>June 5, 1950</td>
<td>TX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McLaurinn v. Oklahoma States Regents</td>
<td>June 5, 1950</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court rules racial separation in Oklahoma graduate schools is unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henderson v. U.S.</td>
<td>June 5, 1950</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court upholds that segregation of interstate accommodations was unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Briggs v. Elliott</td>
<td>June, 1951</td>
<td>SC</td>
<td>South Carolina state court rules that segregation is not discrimination in public education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Civil Rights Mass Demonstrations, 1941-1965

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>March</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Proponents</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negro March on Washington (D.C.)</td>
<td>1941</td>
<td>A. Philip Randolph (BSCP)</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Threatened of job discrimination in defense industry, never occurred</td>
<td>Pres. F. Roosevelt signs Executive Order 8802 which ends employment discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery Bus Boycott (Montgomery, AL)</td>
<td>1955-56</td>
<td>Montgomery Improvement Association; Martin Luther King, Jr.</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>Protests segregated city public bus system</td>
<td>U.S. Supreme Court declares segregated bus system was unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prayer Pilgrimage for Freedom (Washington, D.C.)</td>
<td>1957</td>
<td>A. Philip Randolph (BSCP); M.L. King, Jr. (SCLC)</td>
<td>15,000-37,000</td>
<td>A &quot;Crusade for Citizenship&quot; for African Americans</td>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1957 was passed which initiated programs to enfranchise five million African Americans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albany Movement (Albany, GA)</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>SNCC, SCLC</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>To demand voting rights and desegregation of public facilities and accommodations</td>
<td>City of Albany desegregates public library, but overall the city remained segregated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birmingham Movement (Birmingham, AL)</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Fred Shuttlesworth (ACMHR); SCLC</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>To desegregate the city of Birmingham</td>
<td>Birmingham's public facilities and accommodations were desegregated and equal employment opportunities are extended to African Americans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March on Washington for Freedom and Jobs (Washington, D.C.)</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>A. Philip Randolph (BSCP); Bayard Rustin (organizer); CORE; SCLC; SNCC; NAAC; NUL; etc.</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Demanded from Congress and Pres. John Kennedy fair employment opportunities and federal laws for the desegregation of public facilities and accommodations</td>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed which desegregated public facilities and accommodations; ended job discrimination; and promoted equal voting privileges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selma to Montgomery March (Selma, AL)</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>Dallas County Voters League; SNCC; SCLC</td>
<td>300 to 25,000</td>
<td>Protest voting discrimination</td>
<td>Voting Rights Act of 1965 was passed ending voting discrimination in federal, state and local elections.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Major Civil Rights Legislation, 1866-1965

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legislative Act</th>
<th>Date Passed</th>
<th>Proponent</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1866</td>
<td>April 9, 1866</td>
<td>Civil War</td>
<td>Gave citizenship and voting rights to all native-born Americans except Native Americans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1875</td>
<td>March 1, 1875</td>
<td>Reconstruction</td>
<td>Gave African-Americans and other citizens equal rights and access to public accommodations and places of public amusement, as well as jury duty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1957</td>
<td>August 29, 1957</td>
<td>Prayer Pilgrimage March; Little Rock, Arkansas attempts to desegregate public schools</td>
<td>Establishes a Civil Rights Commission and a Civil Rights Division in the Justice Department; gives the Justice Department authority to seek injunctions against voting infractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1960</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>SAME AS ABOVE</td>
<td>Re-enforced the Civil Rights Act of 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voting Rights Act of 1965</td>
<td>August 6, 1965</td>
<td>Selma to Montgomery March</td>
<td>Allowed African-Americans the right to register to vote in many southern counties</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Selma Voting Rights Movement

Dallas County, Alabama, and its county seat, Selma, were considered somewhat more progressive than other areas of the Deep South in that a few African-Americans had managed to register by the 1960s. In 1964, 2.2 percent of African-Americans over 21 were registered in the county. This translated into 335 African-American voters versus 9,542 white voters during the same period, even though the population of blacks and whites was almost equal. In contrast, neighboring Wilcox and Lowndes Counties had no African-American voters. The Dallas County registration was largely attributable to the work of several black citizens organized as the Dallas County Voters League. The group had been founded in the 1920s to increase African-American participation in the electorate. After a short period the organization became inactive, but it was revived in 1936. While C.J. Adams was the first president after the organization's reestablishment, Samuel W. Boynton, a local agricultural extension agent, became recognized as the key figure in the group. As an extension agent, Boynton had toured the county assisting black farmers, and he had also been the president of the local chapter of the NAACP. Boynton encouraged African-Americans to buy property and register to vote since he believed that property ownership would insulate them from economic reprisals if they sought to achieve their civil rights.

As the Dallas County Voters League continued its efforts, forces in Washington, D.C., were also moving to assist African-Americans in the Deep South. The Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1960 authorized the Federal government to bring lawsuits against individuals and governments which thwarted African-American voting rights. These laws alone, however, were not enough to guarantee voting rights for African-Americans. On April 13, 1961, the first voting rights case against Dallas County and its Board of Registrars was filed by the Justice Department in Federal court. When the chairman of the board resigned, U.S. District Judge Daniel Thomas in Mobile dismissed the case since it was not evident that the new board was discriminatory. This case was only one of a massive litigation effort initiated by the Justice Department. Delay proved to be the rule as the government was forced to build clear cases which documented discrimination by a particular group of officials.

The efforts of the Dallas County Voters League and people like Samuel Boynton attracted the attention of African-American leaders outside of Selma. In February of 1965, Bernard and Colia Lafayette of the SNCC came to Selma after being invited by the Dallas County Voters League. SNCC workers had previously considered Selma as a potential organizing point, but it was not considered ready for the civil rights movement. The Lafayettes soon realized that they faced a monumental task given the fear felt by African-Americans in Dallas County. When their initial efforts in the city of Selma were unsuccessful, they went to the African-Americans who lived in the rural areas. Many African-Americans outside the city were property owners, yeoman farmers and small store owners. As a result of their economic independence, they were more immune to the economic coercion which many in the city feared. The SNCC workers hoped to embarrass those in Selma into activity since African-Americans in the city often looked with contempt on the uncultured rural populace.
In early 1963, Marie Foster, a dental hygienist in Selma and a steering committee member of the Dallas County Voters League (DCVL), began a class to teach prospective voters how to fill out the complicated registration forms required by the State of Alabama. At her first class, Foster had only one student, but word of her class soon spread through the community, and the class began to increase in size. Students were taught the tricks of the registration process, answering all questions and never leaving a blank space; a person also had to be prepared with “vouchers,” registered voters in Dallas County who could attest to residency and good character. Mass meetings of African-Americans in Selma sponsored by the DCVL and SNCC were also begun in 1963. The first meeting was held on May 23, 1963, ironically, the day of Samuel W. Boynton’s death. By mid-June, the Lafayettes had been successful enough in their organization to hold their own mass meeting in Selma. The site for this meeting was the Rev. L.L. Anderson’s Tabernacle Baptist Church, and the Rev. James Bevel of the SCLC was the speaker, a harbinger of his later role in the Selma movement.

Despite the success of the mass meetings, attendance at the weekly citizenship classes began to decline in late June and July after Judge Thomas denied the Justice Department’s request for an injunction against Dallas County Sheriff Jim Clark and his efforts to intimidate potential voters. The movement in Selma also underwent a change when the Lafayettes left Selma and new SNCC workers arrived in August and September. These new workers, including SNCC Chairman John Lewis and SNCC Executive Secretary James Forman, intensified SNCC’s efforts in voter registration. October 7, 1963, was designated as “Freedom Day” in Selma, and approximately 300 people marched to the courthouse to register to vote. The protesters waited all day, but only a small group was registered. Weekly meetings continued; the next one, on October 15, 1963, featured Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., the dynamic young president of the SCLC. King had traveled from Birmingham where the SCLC was staging a major campaign over public accommodations, and the SCLC was hopeful that a new civil rights bill would be enacted by the U.S. Congress.

Protests and meetings by African-Americans in Selma came to a virtual halt after Judge Hare’s injunction. This lack of movement prompted Amelia Boynton, Samuel Boynton’s widow, to meet with the leadership of the SCLC in Birmingham to persuade them to make Selma their next focus; a local black attorney, J.L. Chestnut, made a similar visit to Atlanta. The SCLC had already decided that voting rights would be its next quest after the passage of a public accommodations act. Selma provided an opportunity for a voting rights campaign which the SCLC thought could be successful given the strong local leadership and the confrontational style of the Dallas County Sheriff Jim Clark. The leadership of the DCVL issued a formal invitation to the SCLC and, by November of 1964, the SCLC had decided to go to Selma. Local white leaders in Selma knew of SCLC’s plans since they were described in reports contained in Martin Luther King’s briefcase which was stolen in Anniston, Alabama. As the DCVL prepared for the SCLC, so did Selma’s new mayor, Joseph T. Smitherman, and his Commissioner of Public Safety, Wilson Baker. Baker even went to Washington requesting that Justice Department officials dissuade King from coming to Selma. Although they were not successful in thwarting the SCLC’s plans, city leaders adopted a more accommodating position which they hoped would prompt the SCLC to abandon Selma like it had forsaken Albany, Georgia. One important step in that process was to control the hotheaded Clark. Baker and Clark made a “gentleman’s agreement” that Clark would leave law enforcement within Selma city lim-
its to Baker; the Dallas County Courthouse and its sidewalks, however, remained Clark's responsibility.

Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church

The year 1965 was the year for voting rights from the very first day. On January 1, the Rev. Ralph Abernathy, Vice-President of SCLC, traveled to Selma to deliver a kick-off speech to SCLC's involvement in Dallas County. Despite Abernathy's presence, it was not until January 2 that the SCLC staff arrived in Selma, and it was on that evening that Martin Luther King, Jr. led a rally at Brown Chapel African Methodist Episcopal (A.M.E.) Church. In his speech, King promised demonstrations and even another march on Washington if voting rights were not guaranteed for African-Americans in the South. Although King left Selma later that evening, SCLC staff members including James Bevel and James Orange, remained in the city and began organizing a series of ward meetings at various churches for January 7. It was at these ward meetings that SCLC leaders tried to inspire the African-Americans in Dallas County with ideas of what voting rights could mean in their lives. The most trivial matters of public policy were open for discussion; one meeting even devoted time to discussing the need for increased garbage collection. The ban on mass meetings had been successfully broken.

The start of activities in Selma coincided almost exactly with the discussions in Washington over future civil rights legislation. President Lyndon B. Johnson had just won a landslide election, but many in the Johnson Administration were reluctant to push for voting rights legislation so soon after the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Some in the Justice Department were even skeptical whether legislation was sufficient; many officials favored a constitutional amendment instead, like the one ratified in 1964 which prohibited poll taxes in Federal elections. Nonetheless, Johnson alluded to the need for a voting rights bill in his State of the Union address that year, and Justice Department officials soon began drafting legislation. Most, however, thought that a voting rights bill would not become a reality until early in 1966.

Activities in Selma continued to escalate through January of 1965. On January 14, African-Americans began to test the Civil Rights Act of 1964 by integrating local restaurants and the King Albert Hotel in Selma. At the same time, around 400 marchers led by Dr. King and John Lewis of SNCC made a march to the courthouse. On January 19, a march again set out for the courthouse, but these marchers were slow to move into an alley where Sheriff Clark directed them. An angry Clark then assaulted Amelia Boynton, forcing her into a police car. Knowing that Sheriff Clark could be provoked, the marches continued and arrests increased. On Friday, January 22, 105 black teachers led by DCVL President F.D. Reese marched to the courthouse from Clark Elementary School near the George Washington Carver Homes. After being threatened at the courthouse, the teachers eventually returned to Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church. The teachers’ march set off a chain reaction in Selma resulting in more and more middle-class African-Americans becoming involved in the movement.

Armed with a court order from Judge Thomas restraining Sheriff Clark, the SCLC attempted to build on its success by having King arrested. King's prominence would make his arrest a national news story and garner needed publicity for the voting rights campaign. On February 1, more than 200 marchers followed the familiar path down Sylvan Street to Alabama Avenue. Commissioner Baker had negotiated successfully with campaign leaders, and together they established certain procedures which would be followed by marchers in the city, Baker's jurisdiction. To force their arrest, the group did not separate into small units as instructed by Commissioner Baker. It was then Baker who arrested the marchers and took them to the city jail, avoiding a conflict between King and Jim
Clark. Baker and city officials feared what might happen if King was arrested by Clark and held in the county’s custody. The city was attempting to project a progressive image to attract industry, and officials worried that further violence by Clark would thwart their efforts.

King and Ralph Abernathy declined to post bond, hoping that their incarceration would rouse national support for their work in Selma. In part, their strategy was successful because the day after their arrest, United States Senator Jacob Javits of New York became the first Member of Congress to publicly react to the events in Selma. Marches continued after King’s arrest and school children began to participate in many of the activities. The movement in Selma experienced a small shock on February 4 as SNCC invited Malcolm X to visit Selma after his speech at Tuskegee Institute. Although many SCLC officials feared that Malcolm X would prompt violence, his visit proved only to be a courtesy call with a speech conciliatory to SCLC’s and SNCC’s efforts. February 4 was also significant since Judge Thomas enjoined Dallas County from using the Alabama literacy test and required the Dallas County Board of Registrars to allow at least 100 people per registration day to fill out registration forms until June 1, 1965. It was Thomas’ dramatic ruling which prompted King and Abernathy to post bond on February 5.

As protest activities in Selma escalated, voting rights activities in nearby Marion, the seat of Perry County, were beginning to receive media coverage and increased momentum. The SCLC had sent James Orange and SNCC had sent James Best to Perry County to assist local civil rights leaders, including Albert Turner and the local Civic League. Activists in Marion and Perry County had been working steadily for several years to gain voting rights, and Turner had been recognized for his efforts by the SCLC leadership. On the morning of February 18, James Orange was arrested in Marion, and Alabama State Troopers began to patrol the community. A reluctant C.T. Vivian of the SCLC agreed to speak at a rally in Marion that evening, but he stated that he had to return to Selma quickly since most of the SCLC staff had returned to Atlanta for the weekend. Zion Chapel Methodist Church, the site of the evening rally, sat across the street from one corner of the county courthouse, and the march which was to follow the rally would be relatively short. After Vivian’s speech, those in attendance began to move out of the church, but they were almost immediately attacked by State troopers. One family in attendance, the Jacksons, fled from the troopers and sought refuge in Mack’s Cafe, but a group of troopers soon found them. When one officer attempted to strike Viola Jackson, her son, Jimmie Lee, sought to protect her. When he moved toward her, two troopers grabbed Mr. Jackson, assaulted him, and then shot him at point blank range. Jimmie Lee Jackson and several other injured marchers were taken to Good Samaritan Hospital in Selma, a facility operated by the Edmunsite Catholic Missions to serve the area’s African-American population.
For 7 days after the shooting of Jimmie Lee Jackson, protesters again and again attempted a night march in Selma. Governor George Wallace banned night marches on February 20, but this did not impede SCLC and SNCC leaders. Commissioner Wilson Baker was equally committed to preventing a night march since he feared that an incident similar to that in Marion might occur in Selma. Baker knew that Alabama troopers were in Selma and might lash out if a night march was held. Meanwhile in Washington, D.C., Republican political officials began to decry the Johnson Administration’s delay in proposing voting rights legislation, given the volatile situation in Alabama. One Republican admitted that the conduct of Sheriff Clark and other law enforcement officials in Alabama was one of the prime motivations for their outspoken stance.

On February 25, Jimmie Lee Jackson died in Selma from an infection caused by the shooting. Jackson’s death produced a strong response in Selma as well as Marion, and a series of memorial services were planned for him in both cities. One of the first statements regarding a possible trek to Montgomery came from Lucy Foster, a civil rights leader in Marion, who proposed that African-Americans dump Jackson’s body at the Alabama Capitol to gain the attention of Governor George Wallace. James Bevel of the SCLC built on Foster’s statement at a service for Jackson held on February 28. In his sermon, Bevel cited the Bible’s “Book of Esther” where Queen Esther went to the king on behalf of her people. Bevel argued that, like Esther, African-Americans had to go to Montgomery to see their “king,” Governor George Wallace. Some initial plans spoke of a caravan of cars from Marion, through Selma and then to Montgomery, but by March 2 plans were confirmed that Dr. King would lead a march from Selma to Montgomery beginning on Sunday, March 7, 1965.

Marching to Montgomery

Preparations for the march were initiated almost immediately by civil rights groups and quickly countered by government leaders in Alabama. Governor Wallace prohibited the event on March 6 with the support of most white leaders including Selma’s mayor, Joseph Smitherman. Many whites believed that there was no way to prevent violence along the route while others were not pleased that a group of African-Americans would block traffic on a major highway. The SNCC Executive Committee also met in Atlanta on March 6 to discuss their role, if any, in the planned march. The organization decided not to sanction it officially, but it allowed SNCC members to participate as individuals. This type of symbolic march was not fitting with SNCC’s emphasis on grassroots organization and indigenous leadership, but SNCC Chairman John Lewis and other SNCC leaders returned to Selma to march the next day. Martin Luther King, Jr., and Ralph Abernathy traveled the opposite direction back to Atlanta as both were needed to preach at their respective churches. The SCLC leadership had debated whether to continue with the plans for the march without a court order restraining Wallace and the Alabama troopers. A decision was finally reached that King and Abernathy would return to Atlanta, and a determination would be made Sunday morning whether the march should proceed. Most expected the march to proceed only a short distance, if it did at all, before all would be arrested.

More than 500 people arrived at Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church in Selma on Sunday morning, March 7, ready to march. Many, perhaps 300 or more, were from Marion. The SCLC staff in Selma was hesitant not to march given the determination of the people gathered at the church. A call was placed to Atlanta to confer with King and Abernathy who were preparing to preach their Sunday sermons. Based on the report provided by Hosea Williams, Director of Voter Education, SCLC, the SCLC staff in Selma, King and Abernathy authorized the march. The SCLC staff next began to organize the marchers and provided brief training in the principles and techniques of nonviolence. Early that afternoon, the marchers left Brown Chapel, led by Hosea Williams and John Lewis. The march proceeded down Sylvan Street to Alabama Avenue, and then the group turned south on Broad Street heading for the Edmund Pettus Bridge.
The marchers were prepared for confrontation since an ambulance followed them from Brown Chapel. But on the Selma side of the bridge, law enforcement officers stopped the ambulance, allowing the marchers to continue. At the apex of the bridge, Lewis and Williams could see that troopers and members of the sheriff’s posse were waiting on the opposite side. They were approaching an unincorporated area of Dallas County known as Selmont, and the moderate Commissioner Baker would not be able to intervene since the marchers were passing outside of city limits. The marchers continued on the bridge and began to walk east on Highway 80 to the first traffic light in Selmont.

Edmund Pettus Bridge

It was here that the troopers had blocked the road, and the marchers stopped. Major John Cloud, the commander of the troopers, informed the marchers that their assembly was unlawful, and he ordered them to disperse. When they did not move, troopers slowly began to move toward Williams and Lewis. After first pushing the marchers backwards with their billy clubs, the troopers and the posse attacked.
Tear gas was fired, and troopers and posse members, some on horseback, began to strike marchers with their clubs. The marchers were in a panic with the tear gas and the rebel yells which came from whites cheering the officers. Some marchers fled to a nearby field, but they were soon surrounded and forced to return over the bridge.
The law enforcement officers pursued the marchers all the way back to Brown Chapel, First Baptist Church, and the George Washington Carver Homes. Several injured marchers were taken to Good Samaritan Hospital and the Burwell Infirmary in Selma.

Reaction to the violent attack in Dallas County was swift and harsh. When informed of the violence, King stated that “no American is without responsibility” for the actions in Selma, and he sent word to SCLC supporters and clergy that a “ministers’ march” would be held on Tuesday to continue the voting rights campaign. SNCC also instigated a series of protests across the country with special focus directed to Washington, D.C. In Washington, congressional leaders across party lines denounced the actions of the law enforcement officers and demanded that President Johnson both ensure the protesters’ safety and deliver the long promised voting rights legislation. On Monday, March 8, SCLC attorneys petitioned U.S. District Judge Frank Johnson in Montgomery to restrain the State and county and permit the march on Tuesday. Judge Johnson, however, refused to provide the desired injunction and instead enjoined the SCLC from marching until after a full hearing on Wednesday, March 10.

King and the SCLC were in a quandary for they had never before broken a Federal court order. Ministers of all faiths had poured into Selma in response to King’s call, and many were housed with families in the George Washington Carver Homes which surrounded Brown Chapel. The arrival of so many ministers and civil rights workers in Selma after “Bloody Sunday” and the aggressive reaction of SNCC placed great pressure on King to lead a march on Tuesday. Officials of the Justice Department knew King’s predicament, and they proposed a compromise: a march could take place, but it would not go all the way to Montgomery. Instead the march would go as far as Selmont where marchers had been attacked on Sunday. Marchers would then peacefully return to Brown Chapel.

By Tuesday morning, King and the SCLC had agreed to the Justice Department’s proposal, and the ministers began marching south on Sylvan Street from Brown Chapel in the early afternoon. The marchers followed the route of the march on Sunday, turning on Alabama Avenue and then on Broad Street. As the marchers approached the Edmund Pettus Bridge, a Federal marshal stood before them and read Judge Johnson’s order. Nevertheless, the marchers proceeded across the bridge toward Selmont. Alabama troopers were again blocking Highway 80 near the traffic light, but King stopped the marchers yards away from the officers. At that point, several ministers offered prayers, and then the marchers turned around and returned to Brown Chapel. King explained in the evening that this march was symbolic, demonstrating that law enforcement officers would show restraint due to the presence of white ministers.

King promised that there would be a march to Montgomery after their case was heard by Judge Johnson. King then asked for as many ministers to remain in Selma as could to assist in march preparations. One minister who agreed to stay was the Rev. James Reeb, a Unitarian minister from Boston. Reeb and two other ministers went to dinner Tuesday night at Walker’s Cafe, but they made a wrong turn when leaving and passed the Silver Moon Cafe, a nefarious place with a segregationist crowd. Four white men yelled at the ministers and then ran toward them with either a club or pipe. Reeb was hit in the head, but the others escaped serious injury. It was several minutes later before anyone realized the seriousness of Reeb’s wound, and he was sent to the University of Alabama Hospital in Birmingham. Reeb’s transfer to Birmingham was hampered by mechanical difficulties with an ambulance and failure to secure a police escort. Several hours later, Reeb reached the University of Alabama Hospital where physicians realized that Reeb had a skull
fracture and a serious blood clot. He was not given much time to live.

The city of Selma did not want any further violence to tarnish the city's progressive image. On Wednesday, Smitherman and Baker began to block Sylvan Street, first at Selma Avenue and then at Jeff Davis Avenue. All attempted marches were turned around, some with the help of the Alabama troopers who remained in the area. The protesters in the blocked area soon began to refer to the rope barrier as the "Berlin Wall." Protesters remained at the rope day and night in protest of their captivity, but the city remained firm. At the same time, the SCLC leadership and their attorneys were in Montgomery testifying before Judge Johnson, asking him to permit the march. Judge Johnson heard the reports of many who were present on "Bloody Sunday," and he also viewed news coverage of the event. Witnesses included Major Cloud who commanded the troopers during the March 7 confrontation. Testimony continued through Thursday, March 11, and on that day, Reeb died.

Officials in Washington were active with the preparation of voting rights legislation and the continued protests of those who wanted more Federal attention directed toward Selma. Governor Wallace of Alabama came to Washington on Saturday, March 13, to meet with President Johnson on the situation in Selma, and Johnson charmed him to a more amicable position. Johnson also learned that the Justice Department had completed drafting a voting rights bill, and at the request of congressional leaders he planned to introduce the bill before a joint session of the Congress. In the first joint session on a domestic issue since 1946, Johnson introduced his voting rights bill on March 15. In his speech, he used the words of the civil rights movement, stating "we shall overcome" the heritage of racism and bigotry which haunts America. King and the SCLC leadership watched Johnson's speech, and were emotionally moved by Johnson's identification with the civil rights movement. The so-called "Berlin Wall" in Selma fell on the same day.

The euphoria over President Johnson's speech was not long lived, for on the next day King and James Forman of SNCC led a voting rights march in Montgomery that was attacked by the local police. This attack also received media attention, given Johnson's plea for tolerance less than 24 hours before. The highlight of the day, however, was Judge Johnson's decision to support the SCLC and restrain Sheriff Clark and the State of Alabama from interfering with the SCLC's planned march to Montgomery. The SCLC immediately began to prepare for the protest, and March 21 was set as the date for leaving Selma. A few days later, Governor Wallace advised President Johnson that the State of Alabama could not afford to protect the marchers; President Johnson responded by federalizing the "Dixie Division" of the Alabama National Guard.

King had chosen Hosea Williams to organize the logistics of the march, a complex effort because of its size and planned length. Williams organized committees to plan for anticipated needs like meals, housing, sanitation, communication, and entertainment. By March 21 these arrangements had been made and campsites selected along the route. Next the SCLC had to determine which marchers would march the entire route. In his court order, Judge Johnson stated that no more than 300 marchers could march on the two-lane section of Highway 80 in Lowndes County; but an unlimited number of people were allowed on the four-lane sections of Dallas and Montgomery Counties. A decision was made to give those present at "Bloody Sunday" priority with others adding to the total as needed.
By 1:15 p.m. on Sunday, March 21, the march began to cross the Edmund Pettus Bridge toward Montgomery. The marchers had traveled a somewhat different route out of town than normal, heading south on Sylvan Street, past Alabama Avenue to Water Avenue, and then to the bridge. Due to their late start, the marchers went only 7 miles that day to a field owned by David Hall, an African-American farmer. The site was off Highway 80 near Southside High School. On the site, students from a seminary in Berkeley, California, pitched four large tents for the marchers, and the National Guard patrolled and camped on the perimeter of the marchers' site. Meals were brought in from Selma's Green Street Baptist Church by more seminary students who used large metal trash cans to transport baked beans, oatmeal, coffee, and other hearty fare.

The march continued on Monday, and the protesters entered Lowndes County before lunch. It was in Lowndes that the march size was reduced to 300 where the road narrowed to two lanes.

It was also in Lowndes that Stokely Carmichael, a SNCC worker, began to speak to the African-Americans who came to watch the march; his efforts proved useful when he returned to Lowndes later to organize a voting rights movement. The marchers camped Monday night on a
field owned by Rosie Steele adjacent to Highway 80. The marchers remained in Lowndes on Tuesday and camped that night on a muddy field owned by Robert Gardner. As they walked, the marchers sang freedom songs and carried American flags. At night, small rallies were held with speeches and more singing before the marchers retired for needed rest.

MONTGOMERY TO SELMA, ALA. MARCH, 1965. Rest Period. John Lewis, Rev. Ralph David Abernathy, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Poinchita Pierce, Bernard Lee, and the back of Rev. Andrew Young's head.

It was also on Tuesday that Attorney General Nicholas Katzenbach testified before the Senate Judiciary Committee on the President's voting rights bill. In his testimony, he specifically cited the situation in Dallas County, Alabama, as a reason for action. The Attorney General had also spoken of Dallas County at the House Judiciary Committee hearings a week earlier. A confrontation was gearing up with some congressmen who wanted to include a ban on all poll taxes in the voting rights legislation. Many who opposed poll taxes were reluctant to include such a provision, however, for fear that it would be thrown out in a court challenge. Others were concerned about the role which Federal registrars might play and the formula which would trigger Federal involvement. As the marchers moved across the Black Belt, legislators began to work seriously on the voting rights bill.

On Wednesday, March 24, the marchers proceeded out of Lowndes County and into Montgomery County. Their destination on this day was the City of St. Jude, a Catholic social welfare complex which included a school, hospital, and other social services. St. Jude had offered the school’s athletic fields as a campsite and location for a rally to be held that night. More than 10,000 people arrived at St. Jude both to participate in the last leg of the walk and to enjoy the entertainment and speeches of many celebrities. Harry Belafonte; Dick Gregory; Joan Baez; Peter, Paul and Mary; Sammy Davis, Jr.; Johnny Mathis; Alan King; and others were present. Anticipating the march in the city, Governor Wallace declared March 25 a holiday for all female employees of the State, and he asked all people to remain out of the downtown area.

On March 25, the march left St. Jude and headed for downtown and the capitol. The route traveled through was one of the poorest sections of Montgomery before coming to Dexter Avenue, a direct path to the capitol. A platform had been erected there, and a series of speeches were to precede the presentation of a petition to Governor Wallace. On the platform at the capitol were John Lewis of SNCC, Roy Wilkins of the NAACP, Whitney Young of the National Urban League, A. Phillip Randolph, Rosa Parks, and Martin Luther King, Jr. Each spoke exuberantly to the large crowd with King arguing that the disenfranchisement of African-Americans was a calculated move to circumvent the rise of populism and an alliance between African-Americans and poor whites. An attempt was then made to present a petition to Governor Wallace. The petition asked that full voting rights be given to African-Americans in Alabama, but troopers prevented its delivery. After the rally, those in attendance slowly dispersed, heading back to Dallas County and other locations.

Tragedy struck Thursday evening as marchers were shuttled from Montgomery back to Selma. Viola Liuzzo, a housewife from Detroit who had come to assist the march, was returning marchers to Selma along with Leroy Moton, a Dallas County resident. Liuzzo drove a car with a Michigan license plate, and she may not have taken seriously the warnings to remain inconspicuous. After transporting one group to Selma, Moton and Liuzzo began the return trip to Montgomery to pick up another. At some point in Lowndes County, a car filled with four Ku Klux Klan members from Birmingham began to chase Liuzzo and Moton. Near Lowndesboro, the Klansmen came beside Liuzzo's car and fired two shots; Liuzzo was dead instantly. Moton managed to stop the car, and he feigned death when the Klansmen came for a second look. Moton
eventually waved down a passing truck and explained
what had happened. One of the Klansmen was an infor­
mant for the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), and
he, too, reported the incident. By Friday, March 26, the
FBI had all four perpetrators in custody.

Following the march, the voting rights legislation contin­
ued to move through the Congress, and protest activity
waned in Selma and Dallas County. SNCC continued to
work in the region and concentrated its efforts in Lowndes
County, building on Stockley Carmichael's work during
the Selma to Montgomery march. Lowndes County also
proved to be violent when Jonathan Daniels, a white Epis­
copal seminarian, was shot and killed outside a store in
Hayneville. SNCC eventually organized the Lowndes
County Freedom Organization as an alternative to the
Democratic and Republican Parties in Lowndes, and the
party's leaders adopted the black panther as the party's
symbol. The party, the first “Black Panther Party,” func­
tioned for several years before it was disbanded.

On August 6, 1965, less than five months after the Selma to
Montgomery march, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed
the Voting Rights Act at a ceremony in the capitol ro­
tunda. With the help of this law and Federal voting
registrars, thousands of African- Americans were added to
voting rolls in the South. The Voting Rights Act also pro­
vided the impetus for increases in the number of black
political candidates, and later amendments and re- inter­
pretations of the Act have provided for districts with
concentrations of minority voters.
Natural Resources

Physical Environment

The route between Selma and Montgomery is in a portion of Alabama’s Coastal Plain known as the Black Belt. In this region of rolling hills and open space, dark clay soils provide an environment suitable for cotton, grasses, and legumes. It was this soil that attracted farmers during the antebellum period and made the plantation system of agriculture profitable in the area. The region is almost level with elevations ranging from 200 to 300 feet above sea level. The Alabama River parallels the route from Montgomery to Selma, and U.S. Highway 80 crosses the river at Selma’s city limits. Several streams between Selma and Montgomery are also crossed, and the route travels through a large wetland area (approximately 1-mile of the route) near Big Swamp Creek in Lowndes County.

The actual roadways are two lanes with sidewalks in Selma and Montgomery and four lanes in all other areas. The portion of the route following U.S. Highway 80 is quite scenic with a wide, grassy median throughout and significant right-of-way lands in most areas. In most places, the route exhibits a “parkway” type atmosphere.

Climate

The climate of southern Alabama is temperate with warm summers and moderate winters. Snow is unusual, and roads are normally not closed due to weather. Table 4 presents average temperatures and precipitation for Dallas, Lowndes, and Montgomery Counties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Avg. Temp (Jan.)</th>
<th>Aug Temp (July)</th>
<th>Precipitation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dallas</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>50.29 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowndes</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>51.08 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>51.44 inches</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* From Alabama Encyclopedia

Flora and Fauna

While most of Alabama was originally covered in hardwood and pine forests, the Black Belt region is thought to have existed as grassland resembling the western prairie. Today, most of the route between Selma and Montgomery remains unforest, with several exceptions. Trees present in the region include some hardwoods (poplar, cypress, gum, hickory, oak, hackberry, ash, holly, persimmon, black locust, beech, sycamore, pawpaw, ironwood and hornbeam are all native to Alabama) and larger amounts of pine (shortleaf and loblolly dominate). Over 150 species of shrubs are found in the State. There are no known endangered plant species in Dallas, Lowndes, or Montgomery Counties.

The Black Belt region is home to a variety of animal species and is considered to be a part of the migratory range for several endangered species. Endangered mammals which may exist in the region include the Eastern Cougar, Florida Panther, Red Wolf, Gray Bat, and the Indiana Bat. Endangered birds possibly present include the Bald Eagle, Peregrine Falcon, Bachman’s Warbler, and the Red Cockaded Woodpeckers. Alligators may also be present in the region.

Cultural Resources

Several sites along or near the route have historic significance as a result of the Selma to Montgomery march, the Selma voting rights movement, or other aspects of the civil rights movement. Only two sites have National Historic Landmark (NHL) status, and three sites are listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Other sites associated with the march may be eligible for NHL or National Register status. Sites along the march route, listed in the National Register but which have no relation to the Selma to Montgomery march or the proposed trail, were not considered in this inventory. Table 5 lists important historic sites associated with the Selma to Montgomery march.
**Table 5. Cultural Resource Inventory**

### National Historic Landmarks

#### Alabama State Capitol
- **Loc:** East end of Dexter Avenue, Montgomery, Alabama
- **Sig:** Destination of the Selma to Montgomery march and site of the closing rally on March 25, 1965; designated as an NHL based on its status as the first Confederate capitol; building constructed in 1851
- **Stat:** Currently undergoing restoration under the supervision of the Alabama Historical Commission

#### Dexter Avenue Baptist Church
- **Loc:** 454 Dexter Avenue, Montgomery, Alabama
- **Sig:** Served as the original headquarters of the Montgomery Improvement Association during the Montgomery bus boycott of 1955-56; served as staging point for the rally at the capitol on March 25, 1965; small brick building constructed in 1878
- **Stat:** Not threatened

### Sites Listed in the National Register of Historic Places

#### First (Colored) Baptist Church
- **Loc:** Martin Luther King, Jr. Street at Jeff Davis Avenue, Selma, Alabama
- **Sig:** Site of voting rights rallies in the 1960s which supported the Selma campaign; originally built in 1894 and designed by a local African-American architect
- **Stat:** A tornado damaged the church in 1978, and the church was restored; the current steeple is not true to the original.

#### Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church
- **Loc:** 410 Martin Luther King, Jr. Street, Selma, Alabama
- **Sig:** Served as the headquarters for the Selma voting rights movement in 1960 and as the starting point for all three marches; the church was founded in 1867, and the Byzantine-style chapel was constructed in 1906
- **Stat:** The chapel building retains its integrity, but renovations are needed to preserve the structure and again allow use of the balcony

#### City of St. Jude Historic District
- **Loc:** 2048 West Fairview Avenue, Montgomery, Alabama
- **Sig:** Site of the final march encampment on March 24, 1965, where celebrities entertained the marchers and others; established by the Roman Catholic Church as a social welfare complex including a hospital, church, schools, and a convent
- **Stat:** The Administration Building was constructed in 1966, and the hospital is currently being renovated for use as apartments for the elderly
Table 5. Cultural Resource Inventory
continued

Additional Sites Associated with the Selma to Montgomery March

George Washington Carver Homes
Loc: Martin Luther King, Jr. Street, Selma, Alabama
Sig: Center of voting rights protests in 1965; lodging place for marchers and civil rights workers during protests
Stat: The homes may not possess sufficient architectural integrity to be eligible for listing; changes to the landscape of the area by the city of Selma may further diminish integrity
Own: Selma Housing Authority

Cecil B. Jackson Public Safety Building
(Old City Hall)
Loc: 1300 Alabama Avenue, Selma, Alabama
Sig: Jail where protesters, including M. L. King, Jr., were taken in 1965; served as Selma City Hall, Selma City Prison, and Dallas County Prison in 1965
Stat: Currently used as the headquarters for the city police and as the city jail
Own: City of Selma

Sullivan Building
Loc: 1220 Alabama Avenue
Sig: SNCC/SCLC field headquarters in 1965
Stat: Currently used as a food service training school
Own: Mr. Joe Grimes

Dallas County Courthouse
Loc: 105 Lauderdale Street, Selma, Alabama
Sig: Destination of most protest marches in 1960s; housed the Dallas County Board of Registrars and Sheriff James Clark’s office
Stat: Still utilized as the Dallas County Courthouse; no known alterations.
Own: Dallas County
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Tabernacle Baptist Church** | Loc: 1531 Broad Street, Selma, Alabama  
Sig: Site of the first mass meeting on voting rights in Dallas County in 1964; listed in the Alabama Register of Historic Sites and Places  
Stat: Still utilized as a church  
Own: Tabernacle Baptist Church |
| **Good Samaritan Hospital** | Loc: 611 Broad Street, Selma, Alabama  
Sig: One of two facilities in Selma which accepted African-American patients; main facility where injured were taken on “Bloody Sunday,” March 7, 1965  
Stat: Most of the building is vacant and in disrepair; a portion of the building is used as a clinic  
Own: Dr. Samuel Lett, M.D. |
| **Clark Elementary School** | Loc: 405 Lawrence Street, Selma, Alabama  
Sig: Starting point for the teachers march on January 22, 1965  
Stat: Still utilized as an elementary school  
Own: Selma Board of Education |
| **Zion Chapel United Methodist Church** | Loc: Town Square, Marion, Alabama  
Sig: Site of the mass meeting on February 18, 1965, before Jimmie Lee Jackson was shot  
Stat: Still utilized as a church  
Own: Zion Chapel United Methodist Church |
| **Reformed Presbyterian Church (Knox Presbyterian Church)** | Loc: 625 Jeff Davis Avenue, Selma, Alabama  
Sig: Mass meeting site; originating point of Concerned White Citizens march on March 5, 1965  
Stat: Still utilized as a church  
Own: Reformed Presbyterian Church |
Table 5. Cultural Resource Inventory
*continued*

Edmund Pettus Bridge

**Loc:** U.S. Highway 80 (Broad Street) and the Alabama River

**Sig:** At and near this site, marches were confronted by Alabama State Troopers and the sheriff’s posse on “Bloody Sunday,” March 7, 1965; recognized by many as an engineering novelty

**Stat:** A four lane, steel bridge still used as the main access to the city of Selma; listed in the Alabama Register of Historic Sites and Places Own: State of Alabama

David Hall Farm

**Loc:** South of U.S. Highway 80 on Dallas County Road 68, Dallas County, Alabama

**Sig:** Campsite of march on March 21, 1965

**Stat:** Private Farm Own: Ms. Rosa Bell Hall

Rosie Steele Farm

**Loc:** Highway 80 between County Road 23 and Big Swamp Creek, Lowndes County, Alabama

**Sig:** Campsite of march on March 22, 1965

**Stat:** Private Farm Own: Ms. Elizabeth Davis

Robert Gardner Farm

**Loc:** 101 Lake Berry Road (south of Highway 80), Lowndes County, Alabama

**Sig:** Campsite of march on March 23, 1965

**Stat:** Private Farm

**Own:** Mr. Robert Gardner

---

**SELMA, ALABAMA**

- **SITES DIRECTLY RELATED TO THE MARCH**
  1. BROWN CHAPEL A.M.E. CHURCH
  2. GEORGE WASHINGTON CARVER HOMES
  3. GOOD SAMARITAN HOSPITAL
  4. EDMUND PETTUS BRIDGE
  5. FEDERAL BUILDING - SELMA
  6. SULLIVAN BUILDING

- **SITES ASSOCIATED WITH THE MARCH**
  7. FIRST BAPTIST CHURCH
  8. DALLAS COUNTY COURTHOUSE
  9. CECIL B. JACKSON PUBLIC SAFETY BUILDING
  10. TABERNACLE BAPTIST CHURCH
  11. CLARK ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

---

**SELMA, ALABAMA**

- **SITES DIRECTLY RELATED TO THE MARCH**
  1. CITY OF ST. JUDE CATHOLIC CHURCH
  2. DEXTER AVENUE BAPTIST CHURCH
  3. ALABAMA STATE CAPITOL BUILDING
Socioeconomic Environment

Population and Economy

The economies of Dallas and Lowndes Counties are dominated by manufacturing and some agricultural related employment. Dallas and Lowndes also have very low per capita incomes compared to Montgomery and the State average. Dallas County's economy was severely affected in the 1970s by the closure of Craig Air Force Base; the base now serves as an industrial park with recreation facilities.

In Montgomery, the State capitol, government is the largest employer with service industries running second. In addition to State and local government employment, Montgomery is also home to two Air Force bases – Maxwell and Gunter. Study area demographic information is summarized in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>% Black</th>
<th>% Hispanic</th>
<th>% White</th>
<th>Per Capita Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dallas Co.</td>
<td>48,130</td>
<td>57.69</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>41.67</td>
<td>$8,344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selma</td>
<td>23,755</td>
<td>56.37</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>40.80</td>
<td>$8,844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowndes Co.</td>
<td>12,658</td>
<td>74.32</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>25.09</td>
<td>$6,848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery</td>
<td>209,085</td>
<td>41.63</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>56.67</td>
<td>$12,806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery</td>
<td>187,106</td>
<td>42.22</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>56.06</td>
<td>$12,884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Population Summary

From 1990 Census

Existing Public Use

The Selma to Montgomery route follows existing roadways and the portion along U.S. Highway 80 is designated by the State of Alabama as both the Jefferson Davis Highway and the Hernando DeSoto Trail. Present use of the route for historical interest and/or recreation has not been fully documented, however, observations made during this study indicate that apart from specific events related to the march, that little public use for non-motorized recreational purposes currently exists.

Table 7 documents visitation at three sites which interpret the Selma to Montgomery March and/or the civil rights movement. Vehicular use of U.S. Highway 80 is also presented. These figures demonstrate the interest of visitors in sites associated with the proposed trail and the possible impact of trail designation on current highway users.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Visitation/Use</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Memorial</td>
<td>Approx. 200,000</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery, Alabama</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dexter Avenue Baptist Church</td>
<td>Approx. 8,500</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery, Alabama</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Depot Museum</td>
<td>Approx. 3,000</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selma, Alabama</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highway 80—Montgomery/Lowndes County Line</td>
<td>9,300*</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highway 80—Lowndes/Dallas County Line</td>
<td>5,530*</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Represents average number of vehicles per month rather than individual visitation by year
Monuments, Memorials and Local Museums

Additional monuments, memorials and local museums which interpret the events of the Selma to Montgomery march are described in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Martin Luther King, Jr., Bust and Monument</td>
<td>410 Martin Luther King, Jr. Street (in front of Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church), Selma, Alabama</td>
<td>Marble memorial to Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and his role in the Selma voting rights movement</td>
<td>Placed by National Funeral Home and Morticians Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Heritage Museum</td>
<td>119 West Jeff Davis Avenue, Montgomery, Alabama</td>
<td>Museum includes information on the civil rights movement in Montgomery, including the Selma to Montgomery march</td>
<td>Open by appointment; owned and operated by Mr. Bobby Jackson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viola Liuzzo Memorial</td>
<td>U.S. Highway 80 near Wright Chapel A.M.E. Zion Church, Lowndes County, Alabama</td>
<td>Marble memorial at site where Viola Liuzzo was killed following the Selma to Montgomery march on March 25, 1965</td>
<td>Memorial placed by the Southern Christian Leadership Conference Auxiliary and the Atlanta Sub-Forty Running Club on land owned by Mr. James Hammonds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Memorial</td>
<td>400 Washington Avenue (in front of the Southern Poverty Law Center), Montgomery, Alabama</td>
<td>Honors those killed in the civil rights movement from 1955-1968, including the four killed in Alabama’s Black Belt in 1965</td>
<td>Designed by Maya Lin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8. Existing Monuments, Memorials and Museums

Historical Marker

Loc: Water Avenue at Broad Street, Selma, Alabama
Sig: Metal marker briefly recounting the voting rights movement in Selma and the march to Montgomery
Misc: Placed by the city of Selma and the Alabama Historical Commission

Old Depot Museum

Loc: 4 Martin Luther King, Jr. Street, Selma, Alabama
Sig: Museum includes artifacts and exhibits related to the history of Selma and Alabama's Black Belt; museum also holds documents and photographs in its Black History Room which are related to the Selma to Montgomery march
Misc: Building leased by the city of Selma; museum operated by private organization

National Voting Rights Museum

Loc: Water Avenue, Selma, Alabama
Sig: Museum on voting rights
Misc: A museum is planned for this site, but it is not operational at this time

Current Recreation Resources

The Craig Airport and Industrial Park, former site of Craig Air Force Base near Selma, is the only public recreation site adjacent to the 54-mile Selma to Montgomery route. The park includes a swimming pool, a 9-hole golf-course, athletic fields, and a picnic area. While not along the route, public and private campgrounds near Selma and Montgomery provide overnight accommodations. Opportunities for water-related recreation in the area are also plentiful due to the proximity of Dannelly Reservoir, R. E. Woodruff Lake, and the Alabama River. Potential exists for facilities offering picnicking, walking, bicycling, fishing, camping, and other forms of recreation, to be developed by Federal, State, or local governments or private interests.

Land Ownership and Use

The Selma to Montgomery march followed city and State roadways. The roadway on which the march took place is in State and local government ownership. The State of Alabama, the city of Selma, and the city of Montgomery all hold limited right-of-way adjacent to the portions of the roadway in their jurisdictions. Private landowners of sites associated with the trail are outlined in the chapter on cultural resources.

Land use alongside the roadway ranges from residential and commercial in the cities to agricultural, forestry, residential and industrial outside the city limits. In Selma, the route begins on Martin Luther King, Jr. Street where apartments and private residences line the route. When the route turns on both Water and Alabama Avenues, land use changes to commercial storefronts and warehouses. Commercial use continues out of Selma and through Selmont when private residences on large areas of land become more conspicuous. From Selmont to the outskirts of Montgomery, land use varies from agricultural, (cotton, soy beans, and cattle), forestry (pine), residential, and a limited amount of commercial and industrial use. Commercial use is more pronounced entering Montgomery but changes to more residential use after the City of St. Jude. Commercial use resumes near Mobile Street and continues to the Alabama capitol. The largest landowner along the route is the Montgomery Airport, but most land is held in small parcels.
The National Trail System Act required consideration of the Selma to Montgomery route for either national scenic or national historic trail status.

**National Scenic Trail Criteria**

National scenic trails must be “extended trails” at least 100-miles in length. The Selma to Montgomery route was found ineligible for national scenic trail designation since it is only 54-miles long. Due to the route’s ineligibility based on distance, no other scenic trail criteria were considered.

**National Historic Trail Criteria**

The National Trails System Act (section 5[b]) requires that a historic trail meet three specific criteria in order to qualify for designation as a national historic trail. Applicable subsections of the Act are quoted below:

(A) It must be a trail or route established by historic use and must be historically significant as a result of that use. The route need not currently exist as a discernible trail to qualify, but its location must be sufficiently known to permit evaluation of public recreation and historical interest potential. A designated trail should generally accurately follow the historic route, but may deviate somewhat on occasion of necessity to avoid difficult routing through subsequent development, or to provide some route variation offering a more pleasurable recreational experience. Such deviations shall be so noted onsite. Trail segments no longer possible to travel by trail due to subsequent development as motorized transportation routes may be designated and marked onsite as segments which link to the historic trail.

The Selma to Montgomery trail follows the path of the historic Selma to Montgomery voters’ rights march. The location is fully documented and can be accurately followed. The trail meets all parameters of this criteria.

(B) It must be of national significance with respect to any of several broad facets of American history, such as trade and commerce, migration and settlement, or military campaigns. To qualify as nationally significant, historic use of the trail must have had far-reaching effects on broad patterns of American culture. Trails significant in the history of Native Americans may be included.

The Selma to Montgomery trail fully meets this criteria under the theme of social and humanitarian movements and sub-theme civil rights movements. The Secretary’s advisory board has deemed the trail as nationally significant. A copy of the board’s written resolution can be found in Appendix D.

(C) It must have significant potential for public recreational use or historical interest based on historic interpretation and appreciation. The potential for such use is generally greater along roadless segments developed as historic trails and at historic sites associated with the trail. The presence of recreation potential not related to historic appreciation is not sufficient justification for designation under this category.

The proposed trail is currently being used for historical interest and appreciation. The potential for increased use is fully expected based upon documented increases in civil rights related programs at both Martin Luther King, Jr. National Historical Site and in Selma.

**Description of Route**

Almost all protest marches in Selma, Alabama, began on Sylvan Street (now Martin Luther King, Jr. Street) outside of Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church. On March 7, 1965, known as “Bloody Sunday,” marchers left Brown Chapel and headed south down Sylvan Street, turning west onto Alabama Avenue. Alabama Avenue was a direct path to the Dallas County Courthouse and had been used for marches during the previous two months. The “Bloody Sunday” march, however, turned south on Broad Street since it was bound for Montgomery. The marchers proceeded down...
Broad Street and across the Edmund Pettus Bridge. When the marchers passed over the Alabama River, they left the city limits of Selma and entered an unincorporated area of Dallas County known as Selmont. The marchers on March 7 proceeded no further than Kings Bend Road, the first traffic light from the bridge.

The march on Tuesday, March 9, 1965, often called “Turnaround Tuesday,” followed the same route as the one on Sunday. The march turned around near the site of Sunday’s confrontation and returned to Brown Chapel.

The plans for the march to Montgomery initially indicated that the march would proceed out of Selma as before. Despite these initial plans, the route followed a different course. While the marchers still originated at Brown Chapel, they proceeded south on Sylvan Street, past Alabama Avenue, and then turned west onto Water Avenue. The marchers turned south onto Broad Street and crossed the Edmund Pettus Bridge. Beginning in Selmont, the road is generally referred to as U.S. Highway 80. The marchers walked approximately 7.3 miles on the first day before turning off U.S. Highway 80 near Southside High school to camp at a farm owned by David Hall.

On Monday, March 22, the march continued east on U.S. Highway 80, entering Lowndes County. After walking more than 15 miles, the marchers camped at a farm on the highway owned by Rosie Steele. Tuesday’s march was less strenuous, only 11 miles to a farm owned by Robert Gardner. On Wednesday, March 24, the marchers went 12 miles, entering Montgomery County and camping at the City of St. Jude off U.S. Highway 80 (in Montgomery, that section of U.S. Highway 80 is known as Fairview Avenue).

The final portion of the march was a relatively short walk to the Alabama Capitol on Thursday, March 25. The marchers left the City of St. Jude, turning north on Oak Street. The marchers next turned east on Jeff Davis Avenue and then north onto Holt Street. Mobile Street becomes Montgomery Street farther north, and then intersects with Dexter Avenue at Court Square. The march proceeded east on Dexter Avenue to the western steps of the Alabama State Capitol.

**Status of the trail today**

The character of the route corridor followed by the marchers between Selma and Montgomery remains essentially unchanged. Road improvements have changed a portion of the highway in Lowndes County from two lanes to four, and a new interchange at the intersection of U.S. Highway 80 and U.S. Highway 81 in Montgomery County has altered the traffic pattern in that area. These minor alterations have not affected the character of the route or the surrounding landscape. In 1965 all of U.S. Highway 80 had four lanes except for the portion in Lowndes County, and this was a factor in Judge Frank Johnson’s decision to limit the number of marchers there.

It is now possible to drive the entire 54-mile route except for a small section in Montgomery which is a one-way street. Mobile Street between Mildred and Goldwaite Streets is one-way, heading southwest. A detour is required (approximately one-fourth of a mile) following Mildred and Goldwaite. City planners in Montgomery indicate that it may be possible to make Mobile Street one-way in the opposite direction, but there is no record of its direction at the time of the march. Walking the entire route is possible, but not practical, since there are no sidewalks outside of Selma and Montgomery city limits. However, the sections of the route to Selma and Montgomery, where sidewalks currently exist, are accessible. Additionally, the State on selected occasions has closed off portions of U.S. Highway 80 for reenactments of the famous march.

**National Significance**

The National Historic Landmarks program of the National Park Service provides a clear definition of “national significance” which is useful for the evaluation of national historic trails. Of the categories outlined by the Landmarks program, two are appropriate for consideration with respect to the Selma to Montgomery route and march: (1) the route is associated with events which have made significant contributions to the heritage of the United States (36 CFR, part 65.4[a][1]) and (2) the route represents a great idea or ideal of the American people (36 CFR, part 65.4[a][3]). An additional concern raised by the Landmarks program is that, generally, a site or event must be more than 50 years old to receive Federal recognition;
since the Selma to Montgomery march occurred less than 50 years ago, it is necessary to show that the route is “extraordinarily” significant (36 CFR, part 65.4(b)(8)).

The Selma to Montgomery march was the major catalyst for passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The attack on peaceful marchers near Selma on “Bloody Sunday,” March 7, 1965, outraged the nation and prompted numerous demands for stronger voting rights legislation. In their three attempts, the marchers brought the issue of voting rights to the forefront of the United States’ political agenda, and their peaceful means won broad support for their cause.

The SCLC’s practice of non-violent, civil disobedience extends at least back to Henry David Thoreau and other abolitionists who willingly violated laws which supported slavery. The Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., expanded on these basic ideals arguing that the power and the goal of nonviolent resistance was to achieve justice without alienation. Through mass acts of civil disobedience, African-Americans sought to create crisis situations which would require negotiations with white community leaders. As African-Americans in Selma, Alabama, began to grow tired of continued discrimination in voting, they, too, began to utilize the techniques of nonviolent resistance, holding rallies and conducting marches. Even after brutal attacks by law enforcement officials, African-Americans in Selma remained true to the discipline of nonviolent, civil disobedience—gaining morally “high ground” from which they could make their demands known to their community and nation.

Following the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, African-Americans in the South turned their focus to the most important of all rights—voting. Almost 100 years before, the 15th Amendment to the Constitution promised full voting rights regardless of skin color, but this promise was not a reality in early 1965. The continued barriers to the franchise faced by African-Americans were contrary to the democratic and egalitarian tradition of the United States. Selma was selected as a stage where African-Americans could show their plight and demand equal access to the ballot.

In early 1965, most officials and observers of President Lyndon B. Johnson’s administration did not believe a new civil rights law was possible after the hotly contested public accommodations act of 1964. The attack on peaceful marchers on “Bloody Sunday,” March 7, 1965, changed that, and President Johnson introduced new voting rights legislation only eight days after the attack. Passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 five months later forever changed political life in the South and the United States as a whole. The Selma to Montgomery march still represents one of the greatest and most significant civil rights protests in American history.

Potential for Historic Interpretation and Education

Designation of the march route as a National Historic Trail has tremendous potential for a variety of educational programs focusing on the significance of the Selma to Montgomery march and its role in the modern civil rights movement.

The City of Selma now provides interpretative programs and tours of the City’s voting rights movement at the Old Depot Museum and Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church. In Montgomery, Dexter Avenue Baptist Church, the Civil Rights Memorial, the World Heritage Museum, the City of St. Jude, and the African Culture Center provide educational programs and literature on the Selma to Montgomery march and the civil rights movement.

Sites such as Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church, First Baptist Church, the residential area of Sylvan Street (now Martin Luther King, Jr. Avenue), the Dallas County Courthouse, the Sullivan Building (the original site of SNCC headquarters), the Edmund Pettus Bridge, campsites, the Viola Liuzzo Memorial, the City of St. Jude, and the Alabama State Capitol offer excellent sites for historic interpretation and education.

The Selma-Dallas County Chamber of Commerce now offers guided tours of historic sites and districts in the city on a limited basis and the city of Selma is presently planning to provide interpretive signs in the Martin Luther King, Jr. Street area.
Feasibility and Desirability

In determining whether the Selma to Montgomery Trail is eligible as a potential component of the National Trails System, it also is required that establishment be both feasible and desirable. A 1983 amendment to the National Trails System states: “The feasibility of designating a trail shall be determined on the basis of an evaluation of whether or not it is physically possible to develop a trail along a route being studied, and whether the development of a trail would be financially feasible.” Existence of public lands or the acquisition, development, and management are not a requirement for finding a potential trail feasible for designation. In fact, many trails currently in the system are being successfully developed and managed by a broad partnership of public and private interests utilizing cooperative agreements, leases, donations, and volunteer efforts. The cooperation, interest, and participation of the state and local governments, historical groups, citizens, and landowners are of much greater importance to trail feasibility than the existence of public lands or Federal funds.

The National Trails System Act provides wide latitude in defining and developing a national historic trail. A national historic trail is not necessarily intended to be developed as a continuous “hikable” trail. Development of facilities for public recreation and historic interpretation on the actual historic route is preferred. National historic trails can include public roads, developed rights-of-way, and waterways which approximate the historic route in order to facilitate retracing the route. A national historic trail can also be a public road which parallels or generally follows the historic route. The Act provides that designation of national historic trails by Congress shall be continuous for its whole length, but the established or developed trail need not be continuous on-site. Thus, a national historic trail can be a network of recreation and historic sites related to the historic route, but not necessarily connected by a retraceable route. In summary, it can be concluded that a national historic trail is not necessarily a continuous, land-based trail on the historic route, but can be instead a set of management units defined and developed to provide the public with opportunities for recreation and historic interpretation related to and generally along the historic route. The issue of feasibility of a national historic trail becomes a question of whether it is possible to identify (1) the historic route; and (2) a feasible network of existing and/or proposed recreation facilities, historic interpretation sites, and retraceable routes to provide for public use and enjoyment. Clearly the Selma to Montgomery Trail meets these two criteria.

The issue of desirability of designating a route as a national historic trail includes consideration of (1) the need for the facilities, sites, and retraceable routes, which might be a part of such a trail, as identified in existing plans or in the national trail study process; (2) whether a federally administered overall administrative structure is needed to effectively provide for public awareness, use, and enjoyment of the historic route; (3) the sentiment of the general public toward the trail and particularly of any landowners who might be affected; (4) the willingness of public agencies and private organizations to participate in the development and operation of the trail; and (5) whether the proposed trail complements and appropriately fits into the developing National Trails System.

The significance of the Selma to Montgomery trail is clearly established. However, unlike most previous historic trail studies, such as the DeSoto Trail and the Trail of Tears, where the questions of “feasibility” revolve primarily around the problem of actually finding defining the trail, the Selma to Montgomery trail is well defined and feasible. The trail route follows a 54 mile segment of two and four lane roads and highways with 16 known significant sites. Knowing the route and the exact sites, creates the “modern” feasibility dilemma of a historic trail. The actual primary historical remnants (roads, buildings, fields) of this “trail” are located within a modern transportation corridor. Recognizing that these sites represent the “primary” historic resource, what should or can be done with them? The spectrums of this dilemma are preservation or commemoration, or a combination of both.

Preservation

The major premise of the preservation end of the spectrum would be that the 54 miles of road include the historic viewshed of the road, important fields and buildings be
maintained in perpetuity. They would be preserved just as they are since they represent the “Independence Hall” and the “Statue of Liberty” of the march.

**Ramifications:**

*Negative:* It would cost millions upon millions of dollars to purchase, (replace the existing transportation corridor with another) and maintain the historic roadway, countryside and important buildings in order to “keep it like it is”.

*Positive:* People could place themselves in the “presence” of the original marches and walk the actual walk. Just as we “feel” the presence of Jefferson, Washington, and Franklin when we are in Independence Hall.

**Commemoration**

The major Premise of the commemoration end of the spectrum would be that it is the event of the march not the “highway” that is significant. What would be preserved would be the idea, ideals and reality of the event not the actual “earth” where it happened.

**Ramifications:**

*Negative:* Thirty to fifty years from now this transportation corridor could be an eight-lane highway with high speed trains whisking people through an urban corridor making any interpretation of what happened here impossible. Visitors would lose the very meaning of the trail—to walk the walk—to “feel the pain and the glory”.

*Positive:* It can be accomplished. Modern interpretation tools—movies, holograms and computers could be used to create the feel and provide the “meaning” of the march. It would keep the meaning of the event alive.

**Conclusion**

It is this conflict between “saving” all the primary historic resources, or commemorating the event that serves as the basis for the various following alternatives.

**Alternative No. 1:** Preserve all the historic resources—the 54 miles of 2 lane highway and the 16 significant sites, (including the Edmund Pettus Bridge; the Brown Chapel AME Church, the campsites, buildings, views, etc). This alternative was considered and rejected as economically, politically and logically infeasible. The alternative is considered void and given no further consideration.

**Alternative No. 2:** Build a new walking trail along side the existing road. Years from now interested citizens could still walk this historic transportation corridor and relive at least the physical (although altered) presence of those who went before. (We note there is considerable public support for this concept). Alternative No. 2 was also considered and rejected as infeasible. Costs, environmental concerns, safety, and the lack of actual historical context would all negate the feasibility of this action. The alternative is also considered void and given no further consideration.

**Alternative No. 3:** Provide a commemorative trail with walking and motor route components over the 54 mile route with acquisition of the 16 significant sites. This alternative would include the selection, acquisition, protection and interpretations of the following selected sites along the route:

- Brown Chapel AME Church
- George Washington Carver Homes
- Sullivan Building
- Good Samaritan Hospital
- Edmund Pettus Bridge
- David Hall Farm
- Rosie Steele Farm
- Robert Gardner Farm
- City of St. Jude Catholic Church
- Dexter Avenue Church
- Alabama State Capitol
- Selma Federal Building
- Site of Viola Liuzzo being shot
- Site of Jimmy Lee Jackson being shot
- Site of Reverend Reeb being beaten
- Zion Methodist Church

**Discussion:** The entire 54 mile route from Selma to Montgomery would be identified, marked and interpreted. A comprehensive management plan developed after designation would guide the specific development of the trail. It would be expected that the plan would conclude that within the City of Selma, where safe sidewalks exist, the trail would be a walking trail following city streets. Outside of the city limits the trail would be a commemorative motor route. At selected sites, such as the Edmund Pettus Bridge, where adequate safe auto turnoffs permit, the actual sites and structures would be preserved and interpreted. Cooperative interpretative centers in
Montgomery and Selma would provide trail users an overview of the events of the March. On selected occasions, such as reenactments, trail organizers would work with State officials, to close off the highway to allow trail users access over the entire length of the march.

.Administration: The trail could be administered by the National Park Service in cooperation with State, county, city and private groups.

.Acquisition and Development: There would be no expected acquisition or development of the trail itself. Trail administrators would work with existing local/State owners of the trail (roadways) to maintain the transportation corridor in such locations and condition to allow long-term appropriate trail use (motorized or walking). Selected sites along the trail (16) would be afforded protection. Ownership could be by a variety of parties including Federal, State, local and private interest groups. The renovation of one or more existing structures along the trail route in Montgomery or more probably in Selma as an interpretive center for the trail would be anticipated.

.Operation and Maintenance: As a commemorative trail, the operation and maintenance would be directed mainly to maintenance of interpretive markers, plaques and selected sites and structures. The cost of any interpretive centers would be based on the size of the center and the cooperative arrangement with city and/or interest groups under which they were created. Other major costs associated with the trail would relate to the historical sites being protected. Costs for such areas as the Edmund Pettus Bridge would range from very nominal to millions of dollars depending upon the preservation treatment selected for each site.

.Feasibility: The development and operation of a commemorative interpreted 54-mile trail with selected preserved sites along the route is a feasible alternative. Depending upon the sites selected for preservation and the preservation techniques utilized, the costs would not appear to be prohibitive. The sites for protection are known and have maintained their historical integrity. They are in a variety of ownerships, none of which would preclude their long-term preservation. City and State cooperation in maintaining sidewalks and roadways is absolutely critical to this trail. Both the cities and the State have agreed to this commemorative trail and expressed their interest in cooperation.

Annual cost estimates for operation and maintenance — All costs are tentative due to expected cooperative nature of the project —

.Maintenance of signs, plaques and markers $13,000.

.Operation of trail visitor center (if developed) $15,000 to $450,000 depending on size, functions and operational responsibilities.

.Operation of selected historic site $10,000 to unlimited (depending on number of sites and preservation levels)

.Trail manager and operation of trail office $95,000.

.Alternative No. 4: Provide a commemorative trial with walking and motor route components over the 54-mile route with interpretation of significant sites without acquisition. The NPS would work with local and State officials to provide where possible limited protection to selected sites along the trail.

.Discussion: The entire 54 miles from Selma to Montgomery would be identified, marked and interpreted. A comprehensive management plan would guide the interpretation of the commemorative trail. It would be expected that within the City of Selma where safe sidewalks exist, the trail would accurately follow the city streets where the actual march took place. Outside of city limits, the trail would be a commemorative motor route. City, State, county and private organizations would be encouraged to protect selected sites along the route such as the Edmund Pettus Bridge, Robert Gardner Farm, and the Brown Chapel AME Church. However, this alternative would differ from Alternative No. 3 to the extent of not acquiring or seeking long-term preservation of these sites. As an active transportation corridor, it is recognized that 10, 20 or 30 years after formal recognition of the historic importance of the march that the actual sites and structures associated with the event either cannot reasonably be preserved or would no longer be contextually relevant. For example, the Edmund Pettus Bridge, although integral to the march, may have to be torn down and replaced by a modern bridge structure and reasonable alternative sites for a new bridge may not be available. Additionally, should more of the highway be four lane or six lane in
the future, the campsites associated with the march could easily lose any relevant contextual integrity. Given these expected future developments, the major thrust of this alternative would be to document the historic trail and provide long-term marking and interpretation of the route. Efforts would be geared to commemorating and interpreting the event of the march as opposed to long-term preservation of the sites associated with the march.

**Administration**: The trail could be administered by the National Park Service in cooperation with State, county, city and private groups.

**Acquisition and Development**: There would be no acquisition or development of the trail itself. Trail administrators would work with existing local/State owners of the trail to ensure long-term marking and commemoration of the event. Existing programs and funding sources for preservation would be used as applicable. The administrators would work with interested groups to ensure that an interpretive center was developed to interpret the historic Selma to Montgomery march.

**Feasibility**: A commemorative trail is fully feasible. Cooperative efforts between Federal, State, and local government as well as local interests groups is already well underway. The trail could be marked, plaques developed and displayed, interpretive centers developed and interpretive tours developed and run within existing public right-of-way and in cooperations with other friends of the march. Considerable local interest, especially in the Selma area currently exists. Local groups working with city and State officials have conducted several reenactments of the march, and strong local support for a commemorative trail exists.

Annual cost estimates for operation and maintenance. (All costs are tentative due to expected cooperative nature of the project) —

- **Maintenance of signs, plaques and markers**: $13,000.
- **Operation of trail visitor center (if developed)**: $15,000 to $450,000 depending on size, functions and operational responsibilities.
- **Trail manager and operation of trail office**: $95,000.

**Alternative No. 5: No Federal Action/Existing Trends**

Under this alternative, the Selma to Montgomery trail would not be authorized as a national historic trail under the National Trail System Act. Congress would take no action to authorize it, and consequently, neither the NPS nor any other Federal agency would take any action to develop the trail.

The lack of national trail designation would not preclude the State of Alabama, local governments, and/or private organizations from establishing all or any portions of the route as a historic trail. Historic sites could still be designated as National Historic Landmarks under the Historic Sites Act or listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Private organizations already interpret the march, and the City of Selma will soon create a walking tour along Martin Luther King, Jr. Street (Sylvan Street).

**Feasibility**: 

1. Working independently, there may be a lack of impetus to undertake actions;
2. A consistent, coordinated marking program for the historic trail would probably not be developed;
3. Change in existing interpretation and development of the trail would probably be sporadic and non-coordinated.

Each group or government would propose, fund, and implement public use proposals according to its own priorities and policies. No attempt would be made to coordinate interpretive activities relating to the march and its role in the civil rights movement.

**Desirability**: Public comment suggests that this alternative is undesirable since it will not ensure the remembrance and interpretation of the Selma to Montgomery march on a long-term basis.

**Preferred Alternative**

Public and agency comments on the draft study report (detailed in Appendix F) showed clear support for Alternative No. 4. Citizens were specifically concerned about Alternative No. 5 (no Federal action) since Alabama's Black Belt is economically depressed and without a strong presence in managing the trail, many believe that the trail will not be fully developed nor would it realize its full potential.

Based on public comment, State and local government concerns, development costs, and the environmental review, Alternative No. 4 was selected as the preferred alternative.
ENVIRONMENTAL AND ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES

The alternatives examined for the Selma to Montgomery Trail included two walking/motor routes, and no Federal action. This environmental assessment provides an analysis of the alternatives. An attempt has been made to ensure that all positive and negative aspects of each strategy are identified. The National Environmental Policy Act, the National Historic Preservation Act, the Endangered Species Act, and various other Federal laws, executive orders, regulations, and policies are considered in the environmental compliance process.

This environmental assessment should provide sufficient information for responsible officials to determine the environmental impacts of congressional action. It is anticipated that this action will not have a significant impact on the environment and that an Environmental Impact Statement will not be required. Should the project be authorized by Congress, a comprehensive management plan will be prepared which will include environmental compliance.

Preferred Alternative: No. 4

Description

This alternative would establish a 54-mile national historic trail on the walkways and roadways followed by marchers in 1965. Primary use of the trail would be by the walking public in Selma and the motoring public on U.S. Highway 80. Informational plaques would be developed and placed at significant historical sites along the trail. This alternative would provide interpretive signs along the route. A central cooperative interpretive site and visitor center could be established in Montgomery or Selma. The NPS would manage the trail, and cooperatively work with the cities if interpretive centers were established.

Cultural Resources

Interpretive signs and plaques which might be established along the route may include the purchase of small sites or historic easements for placement of the plaques. These activities would be coordinated with the Alabama Historical Commission and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation. The NPS would undertake archeological and architectural surveys as needed.

Should the trail be authorized by Congress, alternatives studied in the comprehensive plan for management would be coordinated with the Alabama Historic Commission and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation to ensure Section 106 compliance. National historic trail designation should not adversely affect cultural resources listed on or eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places.

Should a visitor center/museum be established in Selma, it would ensure adequate interpretation of the march and would provide for the protection of objects and artifacts associated with the march. If located in an historic structure or in an area where historic structures could be affected, renovations would be performed in compliance with the Secretary of the Interior’s Standards for Rehabilitation and would be coordinated with the Alabama Historical Commission and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation as required by Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act.

Floodplains (Executive Order 11998)

Locating signs and plaques in the 100-year floodplain of the Alabama River and its tributaries would be avoided to the extent possible. Even though, the NPS has determined that foot trails and related development are exempt from compliance with Executive Order 11998 all efforts would be made to avoid floodplains.

Wetlands (Executive Order 11990)

No significant wetlands have been identified in the area of impact for this alternative. However, should wetlands be adversely affected by alternatives considered in the comprehensive management plan, compliance with Executive Order 11990 will be met.

Prime and Unique Farmland

Interpretive signs and plaques sites as well as trail use should not adversely affect prime and unique farmland. The most significant impact from use would be that a few areas would be occupied. The time marchers were on a particular site would be limited to a maximum of one day per year. Further compliance with the Farmland Protection Policy Act for alternatives considered in the
comprehensive management plan will be coordinated as needed with the Soil Conservation Service including the completion of any Farmland Impact Rating should it appear that there could be a significant impact on prime and unique farmland.

**Construction Impacts**

Short-term impacts could occur during the plaque placement construction phase, such as the removal of vegetation and soil erosion. Efforts would be made to minimize or eliminate the removal of vegetation and the use of grading at each site. In addition, sites would be revegetated with native species, if appropriate. It is not anticipated that noise impacts will be significant as there are no nearby sensitive receptors.

**Air Quality**

The project should not have a significant impact on air quality as there are no Class I receptors near the proposal and the proposal does not constitute a source for air quality impacts within the air shed it is located. The proposal is in compliance with the Alabama State Air Quality Implementation Plan.

**Endangered/Threatened Species**

No endangered or threatened species (plant or animal) are known to exist in the trail corridor which would prohibit congressional designation of the trail. The Black Belt region of Alabama is considered to be a part of the historic range for the following endangered species:

- Eastern Cougar
- Florida Panther
- Red Wolf
- Gray Bat
- Indiana Bat
- Bald Eagle
- Peregrin Falcon
- Bachman’s Warbler
- Ivory-billed Woodpecker
- Red Cockaded Woodpecker

**Alligator**

Alternatives considered in the comprehensive plan should the trail be designated will require compliance with the Endangered Species Act though coordination with the U. S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

**Operational Impacts**

The expected numbers of trail users could create parking and congestion problems in the two cities. The closing off of U.S. Highway 80 on selected dates for a commemorative march could also lead to traffic problems. Litter which could result from use of the trail could have adverse impacts and specific provision will be developed to appropriately control and clean up litter resulting from trail use.

**Socio-Economic**

Designation and use of the trail and potential cooperative visitor center as described in this alternative is expected to contribute to the economic base of Alabama’s Black Belt by increasing tourism to the area. Increased tourism to the area should not have a major affect on local public services such as road maintenance, law enforcement, medical services, or health facilities. The overall socio-economic impacts of trail designation would be considered minimal to moderate and should have only minimal impacts which would be controlled through local planning and zoning.

**Impacts of Other Alternatives**

**Alternative No. 3: National Historic Trail with significant sites fully acquired and protected.**

The environmental effects of this alternative would be the same as Alternative No. 4 with the following additional impacts because of the 16 significant sites which would be protected in perpetuity. These impacts are presented in Table 9.
Environmental Impacts on Significant Sites Under Alternative 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SITE</th>
<th>POTENTIAL FOR LONG-TERM PRESERVATION</th>
<th>SITE CHARACTERISTICS</th>
<th>CULTURAL RESOURCES</th>
<th>FLOOD PLAINS &amp; WET LANDS</th>
<th>PRIME AGRICULTURAL LANDS</th>
<th>CONSTRUCTION</th>
<th>OPERATIONS</th>
<th>EN-THREATENED SPECIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brown Chapel AME Church</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Substantial brick</td>
<td>Substantial visited could distribute services</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>None anticipated</td>
<td>None (parking problem)</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Washington Carver House</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Older brick public housing</td>
<td>Would adversely affect revenue</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Would have to be modified for handicapped access</td>
<td>Could distribute residents</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sullivan Building</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Older brick building</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>Used as restaurant</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Samaritan Hospital</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Abandoned hospital</td>
<td>Would save building</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Possible release of hazardous materials</td>
<td>No effect – building not in use</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edmund Pettus Bridge</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Major thoroughfare into city of Selma – four lane/shoulder – major site of Selma March</td>
<td>Major site for march. Needs repairs. Could be hazardous to visitors</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Needs structural repairs due to increase of vehicle traffic. Sidewalks are available</td>
<td>Serve as major thoroughfare for vehicles into Selma parking problems</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City of St. Jude Catholic Church</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Substantial brick church/ school</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>None anticipated – no effect</td>
<td>Substantial visitors could disturb services/education programs</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dexter Avenue Church</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Substantial brick church</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>None anticipated – no effect</td>
<td>Substantial visitors could disturb services/education programs</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama State Capitol</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Stone building</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>None anticipated. Renovations are underway by the Alabama Historical Commission</td>
<td>Substantial visitors could disturb operations. Tours are conducted in limited areas</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selma Federal Building</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Two story older brick building</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>Would disturb current occupants</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site of Viola Liuzzo being shot</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Situated on open property owned by nearby AME Church</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Marble memorial placed onsite. Mrs. Liuzzo was killed 6/25/65.</td>
<td>Visitors would create no effect</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site of Henry Lee Jackson being shot</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Site of shooting – Mack’s Cafe no longer exists (Marion, Alabama)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Parking area or walkway would have minor effect onsite.</td>
<td>Visitors would create no effect</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site of Reverend Rose being located</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Site of burial – Silver Moon Cafe</td>
<td>Cafe no longer exists. Empty lot – well landscaped</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Memorial or plaque would disturb ground</td>
<td>Visitors would create no effect</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Hall Farm</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Open farmland</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No significant impact</td>
<td>Memorial or plaque would disturb ground</td>
<td>Annual ceremonial marches could damage ground cover and lead to minor erosion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roe Wallace Farm</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Open farmland</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No significant impact</td>
<td>Memorial or plaque would disturb ground</td>
<td>Annual ceremonial marches could damage ground cover and lead to minor erosion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Gardner Farm</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Open farmland</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No significant impact</td>
<td>Memorial or plaque would disturb ground</td>
<td>Annual ceremonial marches could damage ground cover and lead to minor erosion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Alternative No. 5: No Federal Action

Description
Under this alternative, the Selma to Montgomery route would not be designated as a national historic trail. Congress would take no action to authorize the trail, and, consequently, neither the NPS nor any other Federal agency would have the authority to establish and manage the trail.

Impacts
This alternative would produce no new federally responsible impacts to the human environment and cultural resource. Existing or planned use for the corridor would continue. Without Federal involvement in developing the trail, the trail and any support facilities would be developed at a slower rate (or not at all), and the great demand for trail opportunities would not be met.
LIST OF PREPARERS

Wallace Brittain, Chief, Conservation Assistance Branch, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service
Joseph Cooley, Landscape Architect, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service
Wink Hastings, Supervisory Outdoor Recreation Planner, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service
Lake Lambert, Historian, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service
Ruenell Massey, Secretary, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service
Robert Newkirk, Chief, Planning Division, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service
Barbara Tagger, Historian, Southeast Regional Office, National Park Service

SELECTED REFERENCES

APPENDIX A

SELMA TO MONTGOMERY NATIONAL TRAIL STUDY ACT
Public Law 101-321
101st Congress

An Act

To amend the National Trails System Act to designate the route from Selma to Montgomery for study for potential addition to the national trails system.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,

SECTION 1. SHORT TITLE.

This Act may be cited as the “Selma to Montgomery National Trail Study Act of 1989”.

SEC. 2. FINDINGS.

The Congress finds that:

(1) The march from Selma to Montgomery led to the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965, which achieved the legal right to vote for all Americans.

(2) Events associated with the march from Selma to Montgomery and from what came to be known as “Bloody Sunday” sent shock waves around the world, raised the Nation’s consciousness and convinced political leaders that the time had come for voting rights legislation.

(3) The designation of the route of the march from Selma to Montgomery as a national historic trail will serve as a reminder of the right and responsibility of all Americans to fully participate in the election processes. It will serve as a reminder that we must be ever vigilant in securing our right to vote. It will also give long overdue recognition to the men and women who have sacrificed so much for, and dedicated their lives to, voting rights for all Americans.

SEC. 3. DESIGNATION OF TRAIL FOR STUDY.

Section 5(c) of the National Trails System Act (82 Stat. 919; 16 U.S.C. 1244(c)) is amended by adding the following new paragraph at the end thereof:

“(33) The route from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama traveled by people in a march dramatizing the need for voting rights legislation, in March 1965, includes Sylvan South Street, Water
Avenue, the Edmund Pettus Bridge, and Highway 80. The study under this paragraph shall be prepared in accordance with subsection (b) of this section, except that it shall be completed and submitted to the Congress with recommendations as to the trail's suitability for designation not later than 1 year after the enactment of this paragraph.”.

In July 1990, Congress passed the Selma to Montgomery National Trail Study Act directing the National Park Service to study the route traveled by civil rights protesters in 1965. The objective of this study is the determination of the route's eligibility for designation as a National Historic Trail.

On three separate occasions in March of 1965 protesters attempted to march from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama to highlight the discriminatory practices which prevented African-Americans from voting in the Deep South. Race and color were no longer the obvious criteria for disenfranchisement as they had been with the “Grandfather Clause” and the “White Democratic Primary,” but discrimination by race was still rampant since literacy tests, interpretation tests, and voucher requirements allowed arbitrary decisions by registration officials. Thus, for 90 years various means had been used to deny full citizenship to African-Americans, and the denial of voting rights had become a national issue. As Federal judicial proceedings failed to produce changes in the registration process, African-American leaders, including the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), united in a direct action campaign focused at the heart of the Black Belt – Selma, Alabama.

After a series of protests in Selma and the death of Jimmie Lee Jackson in nearby Perry County, African-American leaders came upon the idea of marching from Selma to the state capital in Montgomery to formally protest continued voting discrimination. On Sunday, March 7, 1965, the first march set out from Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church toward Montgomery, but when the marchers reached the Edmund Pettus Bridge, they were brutally attacked by law enforcement officers. While a second march to Montgomery was peacefully turned around at the same bridge on March 9th, a third attempt beginning on March 21st successfully reached Montgomery after a five day trek under the watchful eye of federalized national guardsmen. The attack on March 7th, known as “Bloody Sunday,” and the continued resolve of civil rights workers in Selma were seen by millions of people through the comprehensive media coverage afforded the campaign. These actions strengthened the nation’s determination to enact strong voting rights legislation. The most significant outcome of the Selma protests was the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

A MARCH CHRONOLOGY

April 13, 1961
First voting rights case filed in Federal Court against Dallas County, Alabama

February 1963
Bernard and Colia Lafayette of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee enter Selma to begin a voter education project

January 2, 1965
Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference come to Selma to assist in a voting rights campaign

February 1, 1965
M.L. King, Jr. and Ralph Abernathy are arrested in Selma with 500 other protesters

February 4, 1965
Federal Judge Daniel Thomas prohibits Dallas County from using the Alabama literacy test

February 18, 1965
Jimmie Lee Jackson is shot in Marion, Alabama by state troopers during a voting rights protest

A STUDY OF THE VOTING RIGHTS MARCH OF 1965
NATIONAL TRAILS SYSTEM

Recognizing the growing need for outdoor recreation opportunities, Congress passed the National Trails System Act in 1968, designating the Appalachian and Pacific Crest Trails as initial components. The purpose of the Act was to create a national trail system consisting of scenic and recreation components. The Act was amended in 1978 to include National Historic Trails so that trails of historic and cultural significance might also be preserved. National Historic Trails presently in the system consist of the Lewis and Clark Trail, Oregon Trail, Mormon Trail, Iditarod Trail, Overmountain Victory Trail, Trail of Tears, Nez Perce Trail and the Sante Fe Trail.

To qualify as a National Historic Trail, certain criteria have been established as a means to evaluate potential routes. National Historic Trails must be original routes of national significance in American history. The route must also have a potential for historic interpretation and public interest. Further, development of the trail must be physically possible and financially feasible.

Only the Congress is authorized to designate the Selma to Montgomery route as a National Historic Trail. In the event designation occurs, a comprehensive management plan for the new trail would be developed in cooperation with state and local governments as well as private citizens and organizations.

STUDY PROCESS

The National Park Service makes every effort to involve state and local governments as well as private citizens in the study process to consider designation of historic trails. Since this trail will follow existing highway rights-of-way, cooperation with the State of Alabama, the City of Selma, Dallas County, Lowndes County, Montgomery County, and the City of Montgomery will be of particular importance. The National Park Service will also solicit cooperation from private landowners, organizations, and businesses along the route to assess potential effects should the route be designated as a component of the national trail system. A summary of the study results, including a recommendation as to trail eligibility and identification of potential historic sites, will be distributed for public review and comment. A final report containing the recommendation of the National Park Service will be prepared for submission to Congress. This final report will contain all historic information, an analysis of alternatives for implementing the trail, a projection of operational costs, and public comments.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

For additional information on the Selma to Montgomery Trail or other National Historic Trails contact:

Barbara Tagger or Lake Lambert
Planning and Federal Programs Division
National Park Service
75 Spring Street, SW
Atlanta, Georgia 30303
(404) 331-5838

The National Park Service, Department of the Interior, is an equal opportunity agency and offers all persons the benefits of participating in each of its programs and competing in all areas of employment regardless of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, handicap or other nonmerit factor.

March 7, 1965
Law enforcement officials attack the first march to Montgomery at the Edmund Pettus Bridge in Selma

March 9, 1965
A second march, intended for Montgomery, is peacefully turned around at the Edmund Pettus Bridge; James Reeb is attacked that night in Selma

March 15, 1965
President Lyndon Johnson introduces voting rights legislation before a joint session of Congress

March 21, 1965
A third, successful march from Selma to Montgomery begins with protection from the Alabama National Guard

March 25, 1965
Protest marchers arrive at the State House in Montgomery; Viola Liuzzo is killed by Ku Klux Klan members

August 6, 1965
President Lyndon Johnson signs the Voting Rights Act of 1965 in a ceremony in the capital rotunda
Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., stood on the platform in front of the stark white state capitol in Montgomery, Alabama, and gazed out at the crowd of 10,000. The largest civil rights march ever to take place in the South had finally reached its destination, after weeks of uncertainty and danger. Two blocks down the street, at the edge of the vast assemblage, was Dexter Avenue Baptist Church, from whose pulpit King inspired black bus boycotters a decade ago. Their single year-long display of nonviolence and courage had not only earned blacks the right to sit where they wanted on the buses, it had started a fire in the hearts of many Americans.

In the 10 years since then, King and his fellow travelers had seen that fire burn in all its glory and its pain—through victories in Little Rock, Jackson, and Birmingham; through beatings, burnings and bombings; through the murders of Jimmie Lee Jackson and James Reeb just days ago. Now here they stood, 10,000 strong, supported by countless other Americans who believed in their cause.

King did not refer directly to the brutal attack by state troopers upon the marchers just 18 days earlier. But it was that attack, seen on national television, that now drew the attention of the world to this moment. “Selma, Alabama,” King declared, “became a shining moment in the conscious of man... Confrontation of good and evil compressed in the tiny community of Selma generated the massive power to turn the whole nation to a new course.”

King warned the marchers that though this march was finished, the struggle for civil rights was not yet won. But it would be won, he said, and it wouldn’t be long.

“How long? Not long, because no lie can live forever... How long? Not long. Because the arm of the moral universe is long but it bends toward justice.”

Less then 5 months later, the 1965 Voting Rights Act was signed, and blacks throughout the South streamed into courthouses to register as voters. They were at last exercising a fundamental promise of democracy, a promise that took our nation 178 years to fulfill.

A PROMISE BROKEN

In striking contradiction to the American Declaration of Independence that stated that “all men are created equal,” the founders of this country adopted a constitution that did not guarantee the right to vote for all Americans. Women, Native Americans, freed blacks, and slaves had no voice in government, even though many risked their lives in service to their country during war and peace. That these voting restrictions defied the
1866 Congress enacts the Civil Rights Act of 1866 granting citizenship and voting rights to all native-born Americans except American Indians

1868 Fourteenth Amendment is ratified and extends citizenship and voting rights to African-Americans

1869 Fifteenth Amendment is ratified and forbids discrimination in voting based on race, color or previous condition of servitude

1875 Congress enacts the Civil Rights Act of 1875 granting African-Americans equal rights, access to public accommodations and eligibility for jury duty

1883 U.S. Supreme Court declares the Civil Rights Act of 1875 unconstitutional

1901 State of Alabama enacts constitutional changes restricting the right to vote

1915 U.S. Supreme Court rules that “grandfather clauses” are unconstitutional

1927 U.S. Supreme Court declares the “White Democratic Primary” unconstitutional based on the Fourteenth Amendment

1936 Dallas County Voters League is reactivated

1941 A. Philip Randolph threatens a march on Washington to protest employment discrimination; President Franklin Roosevelt prohibits discrimination by government and government contractors

1944 U.S. Supreme Court rules that the exclusion of African-Americans from Democratic primaries is unconstitutional based on the Fifteenth Amendment

1954 U.S. Supreme Court rules in Brown v. Board of Education that segregation in public schools is unconstitutional

1955 Montgomery Bus Boycott begins

1957 Civil rights groups march on Washington demanding the prohibition of discrimination in public accommodations and voting

Congress enacts the Civil Rights Act of 1957 allowing Federal intervention in court cases on voting rights

1960 Congress enacts the Civil Rights Act of 1960 providing further Federal support of voting rights court cases

1961 Congress On Racial Equality sponsors the “Freedom Rides” to test the desegregation of interstate bus travel

First voting rights case is filed against the Dallas County Board of Registrars in Federal Court

1962 Southern Christian Leadership Conference and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee demand voting rights and the desegregation of public facilities in Albany, Georgia; movement fails

1963 Southern Christian Leadership Conference leads a movement to desegregate public facilities in Birmingham, Alabama; city officials respond with violence

1964 Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee sends Bernard and Colia Lafayette to Selma to assist the Dallas County Voters League

Marie Foster, a Selma dental hygienist, begins to teach prospective voters how to complete registration forms

Civil rights group coordinates efforts in the Mississippi Summer Project—an effort to register African-Americans; three civil rights workers are murdered in Philadelphia, Mississippi

Twenty-fourth Amendment is ratified and bans poll taxes in Federal elections

Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party nominates four congressional candidates and challenges the all white Mississippi delegation at the Democratic National Convention in Atlantic City, New Jersey

Congress enacts the Civil Rights Act of 1964 banning segregation in public accommodations and employment

1965 State Circuit Judge James Hare enjoins any group of more than three people from meeting in Dallas County

Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference come to Selma to assist the voting rights campaign

M. L. King, Jr. and Ralph Abernathy are arrested in Selma with 500 other protesters

Federal Judge Daniel Thomas prohibits Dallas County from using the Alabama literacy test

Jimmie Lee Jackson is shot in Marion, Alabama by state troopers during a voting rights protest

Law enforcement officials attack the first march to Montgomery near the Edmund Pettus Bridge in Selma

A second march, intended for Montgomery, is peacefully turned around near the Edmund Pettus Bridge; James Reeb is attacked in Selma

President Lyndon Johnson introduces voting rights legislation before a joint session of Congress

A third, successful march from Selma to Montgomery begins with protection from the Alabama National Guard

Protest marchers arrive at the State Capitol in Montgomery; Viola Liuzzo is killed by Ku Klux Klan members

President Lyndon Johnson signs the Voting Rights Act of 1965 prohibiting most means of disenfranchising African-Americans and providing for Federal registrars
fundamental principles of democracy was of little concern to most law-
makers, for those whom it victimized had no political power to change it.

Nevertheless, blacks and women strove for change, by creating
organizations to educate the public about their plight, and through non-
vviolent marches and demonstrations. For women, it was a 132-year
struggle, won with the ratification of the 19th amendment in 1920.
For blacks, it was a longer, bloodier battle.

Even while protesting slavery, black activists Frederick Douglass and
Martin Delaney were also petitioning the federal government for citizen-
ship rights for free blacks. Their pleas fell on deaf ears. In 1857 the
Supreme Court's Dred Scott decision rejected any African-American
claims to citizenship.

At the end of the Civil War, the hopes of African-Americans ran
high. The 13th Amendment officially liberated all slaves, and two further
constitutional amendments, the 14th and 15th, granted blacks full
citizenship and voting rights. During Reconstruction, African-Americans
were elected to state legislatures, as well as the U.S. House of Represen-
tatives and U.S. Senate.

But progress was short-lived. By the last decade of the 19th cen-
tury, white southerners recaptured political power and began taking
steps to secure their position of power. Poll taxes, literacy tests, grand-
father clauses, and restrictive primaries prevented many blacks from
voting. Nightmarish random attacks by the Ku Klux Klan discouraged
many others from going to the polls.

Still, African-Americans continued to fight for equal rights — not
only in politics but in public accommodations, transportation, and educa-
tion. Booker T. Washington advocated economic progress as the avenue
to equality, while W.E.B. DuBois demanded civil rights immediately,
including access to the ballot. The National Association for the Advance-
ment of Colored People (NAACP) sought civil rights through the courts,
winning a landmark Supreme Court ruling that declared segregated
schools illegal in 1954.

But courtroom battles were not enough. Organizations like the
Fellowship of Reconciliation and the Congress of Racial Equality used
nonviolent resistance to integrate lunch counters and buses as early
as the 1940s. By peacefully defying segregation practices and launching
mass demonstrations, they hoped to draw attention to their cause and
create crisis situations which required negotiations between black and
white leaders.

In the 1950s and 1960s, those techniques were adopted by civil
rights organizations such as the Southern Christian Leadership Con-
ference (SCLC); and the Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee
(SNCC). Nonviolent protests led to the integration of buses in Mont-
gomery, schools in Little Rock, and public accommodations in Birming-
ham; and to the passage of major national civil rights legislation in

Nevertheless, many African-Americans were still denied the right
to vote. Violence, economic retaliation, fraudulent literacy tests and illegal
poll taxes were used to keep Southern blacks away from the polls. In
Mississippi, civil rights groups joined to form the Council of Federated
Organizations (COFO), and began "freedom schools" to teach African-
Americans about their citizenship rights and to register them to vote.
Three Council workers were murdered in Philadelphia, Mississippi, as
a result of their efforts, but the struggle continued. The Mississippi
Freedom Democratic Party (MFDP) challenged the all-white Democratic
Party of Mississippi in congressional races and at the Democratic National
Convention in 1964. Although the MFDP failed to win official recogni-
tion, it gave African-Americans in Mississippi the opportunity to
participate in the political process.
THE SELMA VOTING RIGHTS MOVEMENT

While black voters were struggling for representation in Mississippi, a similar struggle was going on in Dallas County, Alabama, and its county seat, Selma. Blacks there formed the Dallas County Voters League (DCVL) under the leadership of Samuel W. Boynton, a local agricultural extension agent and former president of the local chapter of the NAACP.

Despite stiff resistance from white officials, local activists persisted. Their courage attracted the attention of other African-American leaders. In early 1963, Bernard and Colia Lafayette of SNCC went to Selma to help the DCVL register African-American voters. Marie Foster, a steering committee member of the DCVL, began teaching classes on the complicated registration forms required by the State of Alabama.

The Selma activists quickly found themselves battling not only bureaucratic resistance, but the intimidation tactics of Sheriff Jim Clark and his deputies. In 1961, the U.S. Justice Department filed a voter discrimination lawsuit against the County Board of Registrars; and 2 years later sued Clark directly for harassment of blacks attempting to register.

Fearful that more "outside agitators" would target Selma, the late summer of 1963, SCLC leaders, following their hard-won victory in Birmingham, had already decided that their next push would be for a strong national voting rights law. Selma offered the perfect opportunity.

On January 2, 1965, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., defied Judge Hare's injunction and led a rally at Brown Chapel African Methodist Episcopal (A.M.E.) Church, promising demonstrations and even another march on Washington if voting rights were not guaranteed for African-Americans in the South. Immediately, a series of mass meetings and protest marches began with renewed momentum in Selma and nearby Marion, the seat of Perry County.

Then, on February 18, a nighttime march in Marion ended in violence and death. Alabama State Troopers attacked African-Americans leaving a mass meeting at Zion Methodist Church. Several, including Viola Jackson and her son Jimmie Lee, sought refuge in a small cafe; but troopers soon found them. An officer moved to strike Viola Jackson, then turned on Jimmie Lee when he tried to protect her. Two troopers assaulted Jackson, then shot him at point blank range. On February 25, Jimmie Lee Jackson died in Selma from an infection caused by the shooting.

Jackson's death angered activists. Lucy Foster, a leader in Marion, proposed bitterly that residents take Jackson's body to the Alabama Capitol to gain the attention of Governor George Wallace — a proposal repeated later by SCLC's James Bevel. Bevel and others realized that some mass nonviolent action was necessary, not only to win the attention of political leaders, but to vent the anger and frustration of the activists.

Even as Jackson was buried, the idea for a Selma to Montgomery march was growing. By March 2, plans were confirmed that Dr. King would lead a march from Selma to Montgomery beginning on Sunday, March 7, 1965.

MARCHING TO MONTGOMERY

The danger of such a march was apparent, and SCLC leaders debated whether to march without a court order restraining Governor Wallace, Sheriff Clark and the Alabama troopers. The decision was made on Sunday, when more than 500 people arrived at Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church in Selma, determined to march. Perhaps 300 or more were from Marion. SCLC staffers contacted King and Ralph Abernathy in Atlanta, received the authorization to march, and immediately began to brief the crowd on march procedures and the techniques of nonviolence.

Early that afternoon, the marchers left Brown Chapel, led by SCLC's Hosea Williams and SNCC Chairman John Lewis. At the apex of Edmund Pettus Bridge, Lewis and Williams could see troopers and members of the sheriff's posse waiting on the opposite side. The marchers continued across the bridge, east on Highway 80 to the first traffic light outside of Selma city limits. It was there that troopers blocked the road, and the marchers stopped. Major John Cloud, the commander of the troopers, told the marchers their assembly was unlawful and ordered them to disperse. When they did not move, troopers slowly began to move toward Williams and Lewis, and pushed the marchers back with their billy clubs.

Then suddenly, joined by the posse, they attacked — firing tear gas...
and striking marchers with their clubs. Some marchers fled, but they were soon surrounded and forced to return over the bridge. The law enforcement officers pursued the marchers all the way to Brown Chapel. The 2 hospitals in Selma that admitted blacks reported 65 injuries from the attack.

That night, footage of the attack was broadcast on network television, and Americans watched in horror at the spectacle of law enforcement officers attacking nonviolent citizens. Many responded with enthusiasm when Dr. King urged clergy nationwide to come to Selma to join in a “minister’s march” the next Tuesday. Among those who left their homes to come to Selma was James Reeb, a Unitarian minister from Boston.

In Washington, SNCC members launched a major demonstration. Congressional leaders across party lines denounced the actions of the law enforcement officers and demanded that President Johnson ensure the protesters’ safety and deliver long-promised voting rights legislation. On Monday, March 8, SCLC attorneys petitioned U.S. District Judge Frank Johnson in Montgomery to restrain the State and County and permit the march on Tuesday. Judge Johnson declined, and instead enjoined the SCLC from marching until after a full hearing on Wednesday, March 10.

By Tuesday morning, King and the SCLC had agreed to a Justice Department proposal that the Tuesday march would proceed only to the site of the attack on Sunday. When the ministers reached the line of troopers, they offered prayers, then turned around. At Brown Chapel following their return, King promised a march to Montgomery after their case was heard by Judge Johnson. King then asked the out-of-town ministers to remain in Selma as long as they could, to assist in march preparations.

Reverend Reeb was among those who decided to stay. That night, after eating dinner with two other ministers, Reeb and his companions passed the Silver Moon Cafe, where a segregationist crowd was gathered. Four white men yelled at the ministers and then ran toward them. Reeb was hit in the head with a club or a pipe. It was several minutes before anyone realized the seriousness of Reeb’s injury, and he was sent to the University of Alabama Hospital in Birmingham. He died on March 11.

Reeb’s murder only strengthened nationwide support for the march to Montgomery. Hundreds of people from across the country — white and black, young and old — traveled to Selma to join the marchers. Viola Liuzzo, a Detroit housewife, drove south by herself and volunteered to help transport supplies and marchers along the route.

On Saturday, March 13, Governor Wallace of Alabama traveled to Washington to meet with President Johnson on the situation in Selma. By the end of their visit, Johnson had persuaded Wallace to ask for federalization of the National Guard and to take a more moderate position on voting rights.

Then on Monday, March 15, in a nationally televised speech, President Johnson introduced the long-awaited voting rights bill. Of the Selma marchers, he said: “Their cause must be our cause, too. Because it’s not just Negroes, but really it’s all of us who must overcome the crippling legacy of bigotry and injustice. And we shall overcome.”

Civil rights activists rejoiced when they heard the President repeat the slogan of the movement, but their euphoria was short-lived. The following day, King and James Forman of SNCC led a voting rights march in Montgomery that was attacked by local police. The same day, Judge Johnson enjoined Sheriff Clark and the State of Alabama from interfering with the SCLC’s planned march to Montgomery. The SCLC immediately began preparing for the event, set to begin on March 21.

At about 1:15 p.m. on Sunday, March 21, about 3,000 marchers once again began to cross the Edmund Pettus Bridge toward Montgomery — this time under the protection of National Guard troops. Due to their late start, the marchers went only 7 miles that day to a field owned by David Hall, an African-American farmer. The site was on Highway 80 near Southside High School. On the site, students from a seminary in Berkeley, California, pitched four large tents for the marchers, and the National Guard patrolled and camped on the perimeter of the site.

(FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION).
The march continued on Monday, and the protesters entered Lowndes County before lunch. It was in Lowndes that the march size was reduced to 300 and the road narrowed to two lanes. It was also in Lowndes that Stokely Carmichael, a SNCC worker, began to speak to the African-Americans about registering to vote, and the longterm commitment that SNCC planned to have in Lowndes County. His efforts proved useful when he returned to Lowndes later to organize the first Black Panther Party. The marchers camped Monday night on a field owned by Rosie Steele adjacent to Highway 80. The marchers remained in Lowndes on Tuesday and camped that night on a muddy field owned by Robert Gardner. The marchers proceeded out of Lowndes County and into Montgomery County on Wednesday, March 24. Their destination on this day was the City of St. Jude, a Catholic social welfare complex which included a school and hospital. St. Jude had offered the school's athletic fields as a campsite and location for a rally to be held that night. More than 10,000 arrived at St. Jude both to participate in the last leg of the walk and to enjoy the entertainment: Harry Belafonte; Dick Gregory; Joan Baez, Peter, Paul and Mary; Sammy Davis, Jr.; Johnny Mathis; Alan King and others were present. On March 25, the march left St. Jude and headed for downtown and the capitol. The marchers traveled through one of the poorest sections of Montgomery before coming to Dexter Avenue, a direct path to the capitol, where a platform had been erected for King and others to speak. While King urged the audience to continue their struggle against racism, violence, segregated schools and housing, and poverty, Governor Wallace watched from an office window. His refusal to accept the demonstrators' petition demanding full voting rights for African-Americans in Alabama went nearly unnoticed in the triumph of the moment. Victorious and drained, the marchers slowly dispersed, heading back home. Viola Liuzzo worked steadily as the rally ended, shuttling marchers to Selma with the help of Leroy Moton, an African-American man from Dallas County. After transporting one group to Selma, Moton and Liuzzo began the return trip to Montgomery to pick up another. At some point in Lowndes County, a car filled with four Ku Klux Klan members from Birmingham began to chase Liuzzo and Moton. Near Lowndesboro, the Klansmen came beside Liuzzo's car and fired two shots; Liuzzo died instantly. Moton managed to stop the car and eventually waved down a passing truck. The next day, the Federal Bureau of Investigation had the perpetrators in custody. Despite damaging testimony from one of the Klansmen, the murder trial of the three accused Klansmen resulted in a hung jury. A retrial ended in a not guilty verdict. Finally, the U.S. Justice Department brought federal charges against the Klansmen, and they were eventually convicted.

Less than 5 months after the historic march, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act into law. Federal officials poured into the South to register African-Americans who had been denied access to the ballot. Political life in the South was forever changed with the addition of minority voters and political officials, and voting rights are now the privilege of all citizens, regardless of race, creed or color. The Selma to Montgomery march is remembered as a symbol for all Americans representing the power of the ballot and its meaning in our democracy.

Study Purpose

In 1990, Congress enacted the Selma to Montgomery National Trail Study Act directing the National Park Service (NPS) to study the route traveled by voting rights activists in 1965 from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama. Responsibility for this study was assigned to the Planning and Federal Programs Division of the NPS' Southeast Regional Office. As required by the study act, the route has been evaluated under the authority and requirements of the National Trail System Act which provides for National Scenic and National Historic Trails. National Historic Trails are original routes of national significance in American history; these routes must be identifiable and have a potential for public education or recreation. A determination of the route's eligibility for National Historic Trail status has now been completed, and the route has been judged to meet all criteria. In addition, the designation of a connecting trail from Marion to Selma is recommended to characterize the significant role played by area residents. The Selma to Montgomery route is not eligible for National Scenic Trail status since it is less than 100 miles in length. This brochure provides a brief summary of the study and presents alternatives to commemorate the Selma to Montgomery march. The brochure was prepared on the basis of extensive historical research, including oral histories with march participants, and input received at a series of public meetings. Functioning as a draft study report, this document is presented to the public and all interested parties for evaluation and review.
Study Process

Beginning in May 1991, historical research was conducted utilizing primary and secondary sources, and an oral history project was initiated to obtain further information on the 1965 Selma to Montgomery march. Meetings with public and government officials were also utilized to identify significant sites and events as well as possible ways to commemorate the famous march. Public meetings were held in Selma, Hayneville, Montgomery and Marion, Alabama, as well as a meeting with government officials in Montgomery. A public information brochure to introduce the study was disseminated in August 1991, and other interested parties have been informed of the study's progress.

The proposed trail has garnered strong support as indicated by the attendance at public meetings and the number of written comments received. The majority of public involvement has been the result of an article in Teaching Tolerance, an educational publication of the Southern Poverty Law Center in Montgomery, Alabama. Comments have included support for the trail in general as well as specific suggestions for museums, commemorative activities, and ideas for relating the Selma to Montgomery march to other civil rights activities.

In conjunction with the trail study, the NPS has provided technical assistance to the city of Selma in their planning for the Martin Luther King Street (Sylvan Street) area, which was a center for voting rights activity and the originating point for the march to Montgomery. The city is planning drainage and housing improvements for the area and also plans to establish a self-guided walking tour. NPS officials suggested sign specifications and provided information on the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation.

Based on the study's research and public involvement, four implementation alternatives for the proposed Selma to Montgomery Trail have been prepared. These alternatives included different levels of Federal involvement and development ranging from no Federal involvement to designation and construction of a conventional trail alongside the route. A final study report will include a recommended alternative based on the study findings and public comment.

The final report with all determinations, recommendations and public comments will be submitted to the Congress in Summer 1992. Only the Congress is authorized to designate the Selma to Montgomery route as a National Historic Trail. In the event designation occurs, a comprehensive management plan for the new trail will be developed in cooperation with State and local governments as well as private citizens and organizations.

Alternative Plans

All alternative plans for the Selma to Montgomery Trail are considered feasible although some have more practical and desirable features than others. The following plans are presented:

Alternative A—Authorize National Historic Trail along Public Roadways with Interpretive Center in Selma or Montgomery. This alternative would establish a National Historic Trail on the roadways followed by the marchers in 1965. Primary use of this trail would be by the motoring public. This alternative would provide recreation and interpretive sites along the route, and cassette tape tours could also be developed. A central interpretive site and visitor center would be established in Montgomery or Selma. The NPS would manage the trail and interpretive center.

Alternative B—Authorize National Historic Trail as Conventional Trail paralleling Actual Route. A conventional trail such as the one offered in this alternative would allow visitors to actually walk the route followed by the marchers in 1965. The trail, developed adjacent to the existing roadway and sidewalks, would provide recreation, camping, and interpretive sites along the route. A conventional trail would not preclude a motor route and/or a visitor center as in Alternative A. The NPS would manage the trail.

Alternative C—Authorize National Historic Trail along Public Roadways and provide Technical Assistance to facilitate non-Federal management. This alternative would establish a National Historic Trail on the roadways followed by the marchers in 1965. Primary use would be as a motor route with limited Federal support for added recreation and interpretive sites. NPS officials would provide technical assistance through a cooperative agreement(s) to State and local governments and private organizations for management and interpretation activities.

Alternative D—No Federal Action. Under this alternative, the Selma to Montgomery route would not be authorized as a National Historic Trail. Congress would take no action to designate it, and consequently, neither the NPS nor any other Federal agency would have the authority to create and manage the trail. Lack of national trail designation would not preclude local or state action, designation of related sites as National Historic Landmarks, or the listing of related sites in the National Register of Historic Places.
This trail study is subject to compliance requirements under both the
National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA) and Section 106 of
the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (NHPA), as amended.
Section 106 of the NHPA and regulations promulgated by the Advisory
Council on Historic Preservation require the National Park Service to
avoid or mitigate any possible adverse impacts on cultural resources
listed or eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.
The NEPA, as well as regulations and procedures issued by the Council
on Environmental Quality, directs the Federal government to consider
a broad range of alternatives when developing a proposal for Federal
action. This environmental overview outlines the implementation alter­
natives considered during the trail study. An environmental assessment
which evaluates their effects on the environment and cultural resources
will be distributed for agency and public review and comment. Com­
ments on this brochure will be used as a part of the scoping process
for the environmental assessment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALTERNATIVE A</th>
<th>ALTERNATIVE B</th>
<th>ALTERNATIVE C</th>
<th>ALTERNATIVE D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIPTION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federally managed motor trail with a visitor center/museum, interpretive sites, and recreation opportunities.</td>
<td>Federal management of a conventional trail adjacent to the original route.</td>
<td>State and local management of the trail with technical assistance from the Federal government.</td>
<td>No Federal action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CULTURAL RESOURCES</td>
<td>A visitor center/museum would ensure adequate interpretation of the route and march. Interpretive and recreation sites would be established on the route and might include the purchase of historic sites and structures or historic easements. Any alteration to historic sites would be coordinated with the Alabama Historical Commission in compliance with Section 106 of the Historic Preservation Act.</td>
<td>Conventional trail development may require the purchase of land or easements containing historic resources. A conventional trail should not adversely affect such historic sites. Any alterations would be coordinated with the Alabama Historical Commission in compliance with Section 106 of the Historic Preservation Act.</td>
<td>Federal, state, and local governments and private interests would work voluntarily to protect, preserve, and interpret significant historic sites. Federal involvement in preservation and interpretation would be limited to technical assistance. Any alterations to historic sites would be coordinated with the Alabama Historical Commission in compliance with Section 106 of the Historic Preservation Act. The protection and interpretation of cultural resources would be limited to initiatives by State and local governments and private interests. Access to historic sites would be limited. Many resources may continue to deteriorate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLOODPLAINS</td>
<td>Interpretive signs, roadside pull-outs, and recreation sites may be constructed in the floodplain of the Alabama River and its tributaries. Such development would have little or no impact. Compliance with local floodplain ordinances would be met.</td>
<td>A conventional trail would cross floodplains of the Alabama River and its tributaries. Such development would have little or no impact. Compliance with local floodplain ordinances would be met.</td>
<td>State and local governments or private interests may develop interpretive and recreation sites in the floodplain of the Alabama River or its tributaries. State and local governments or private interests may develop interpretive and recreation sites in the floodplain of the Alabama River or its tributaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WETLANDS</td>
<td>No significant historic sites or potential recreation sites contain wetlands.</td>
<td>A conventional trail would cross a large area of wetlands in Lowndes County, called Big Swamp Creek. Bridges or fill material may be necessary. Dredging or filling in a wetland requires compliance with Section 404 of the Clean Water Act.</td>
<td>No significant historic sites or potential recreation sites contain wetlands. No significant historic sites or potential recreation sites contain wetlands.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**ALTERNATIVE A**

**PRIME AGRICULTURAL LANDS**
Interpretive signs, roadside pull-outs, and recreation sites may require the conversion of farmland to non-agricultural uses. Any conversion would be coordinated with the U.S.D.A. Soil Conservation Service in compliance with the Farmland Protection Policy Act.

**CONSTRUCTION IMPACTS**
Short-term, unavoidable impacts occur during any construction phase, such as minimal increases in air and noise pollution. Various measures are available to minimize the effects of construction of interpretive sites, a visitor center, and recreation areas.

**ENDANGERED/THREATENED SPECIES**
No endangered or threatened species are known to exist in the trail corridor.

**SOCIΟ-ECONOMIC**
Active Federal management with a visitor center, interpretive sites, and recreation opportunities would increase tourism to the area and foster business opportunity, including concessions.

---

**ALTERNATIVE B**

**CONSTRUCTION IMPACTS**
Short-term, unavoidable impacts described in Alternative A will occur during the construction of a conventional trail. Minimal increases in air and noise pollution would occur as a result of a parallel trail.

**ENDANGERED/THREATENED SPECIES**
No endangered or threatened species are known to exist in the trail corridor.

**SOCIΟ-ECONOMIC**
The purchase of land and easements and construction costs of a conventional trail would be extremely high. A conventional trail may result in only a small increase in tourism to the area. An increase in business development through camping concessions is possible.

---

**ALTERNATIVE C**

**CONSTRUCTION IMPACTS**
Short-term, unavoidable impacts will occur if State and local governments or private interest construct sites for the trail.

**ENDANGERED/THREATENED SPECIES**
No endangered or threatened species are known to exist in the trail corridor.

**SOCIΟ-ECONOMIC**
Tourism increases would be dependent on State and local governments and private interests with limited Federal support. Scarce State and local resources may reduce the full social benefit of trail designation.

---

**ALTERNATIVE D**

No farmland would be protected or harmed except by State and local governments or private interests.

---

"At times, history and fate meet at a single time, in a single place to shape a turning point in man's unending search for freedom. So it was at Lexington and Concord. So it was a century ago at Appomattox. So it was last week in Selma, Alabama."

President Lyndon B. Johnson
March 15, 1965
National Significance

The Selma to Montgomery march represents a confluence of two fundamental ideals of the American people—democratic equality and nonviolent protest—and is further distinguished as a catalyst for passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The attack on peaceful marchers near Selma on “Bloody Sunday,” March 7, 1965, outraged the Nation and prompted numerous demands for stronger voting rights legislation. In their three attempts, the marchers brought the issue of voting rights to the forefront of the United States’ political agenda, and their peaceful means won broad support for their cause.

Only 27 years have passed since the march, but it is already recognized as one of the premier civil rights protests in American history. The march’s significance is based on its expression of fundamental ideals and its lasting influence on the social and political life of the United States. The march’s role in guaranteeing voting rights for all people, as promised by the Fifteenth Amendment, makes the route extraordinarily significant.

At their February 1992 meeting in New Orleans, Louisiana, the Secretary of the Interior’s National Park System Advisory Board considered and unanimously confirmed the route’s national significance under the criteria of the Historic Sites Act of 1935.

Description of Route

Two distinct routes followed by protest marchers have been identified for the proposed National Historic Trail. The first route follows the path of marchers on both “Bloody Sunday,” March 7, 1965, and “Turnaround Tuesday,” March 9, 1965. This route proceeds from Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church to Kings Bend Road in Selmont. The second route followed by marchers on the successful trek to Montgomery beginning on March 21, 1965, also starts at Brown Chapel and follows U.S. Highway 80 through rural countryside until it reaches Montgomery. The route from Selma to Montgomery is approximately 54-miles in length.

Both the first and second route retain their essential integrity. Road improvements have changed a portion of Highway 80 in Lowndes County from two lanes to four, and a new interchange at the intersection of Highway 80 and Highway 31 in Montgomery County has altered the traffic pattern in that area. These minor alterations have not affected the character of the route or the surrounding landscape.

Potential for Interpretation and Educational Interest

Designation of the march route as a National Historic Trail has tremendous potential for a variety of educational programs focusing on the significance of the Selma to Montgomery march and its role in the modern Civil Rights Movement. The development of a visitor center could be utilized to interpret the various topics of the Civil Rights Movement, the Selma to Montgomery March and voting rights issues. Such a center could include exhibits, hands on displays, audio-visual programs, and literature to orient and educate visitors.

The City of Selma now provides interpretative programs and tours of the city’s voting rights movement at the Old Depot Museum, Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church, and the newly-established National Voting Rights Museum. In Montgomery, Dexter Avenue Baptist Church, the Civil Rights Memorial, the World Heritage Museum, the City of St. Jude, and the African Culture Center provide educational programs and literature on the Selma to Montgomery march and the civil rights movement.

Walking tours could be conducted at the original starting point of the Selma to Montgomery march and along the entire route. Tours would allow visitors to view sites where important meetings, rallies, and marches occurred, and a conventional trail would allow visitors to walk and camp along the route as the marchers did in 1965. Sites such as Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church, First Baptist Church, the residential area of Sylvan Street (now Martin Luther King, Jr. Avenue), the Dallas County Courthouse, the Sullivan Building (the original site of SNCC headquarters), the Edmund Pettus Bridge, campsites, the Viola Liuzzo Memorial, the City of St. Jude, and the Alabama State Capitol would be the focal points of any tours.

The Selma-Dallas County Chamber of Commerce now offers guided tours of historic sites and districts in the city on a limited basis. Self-guided walking tours could also be offered by providing visitors with detailed information brochures and by establishing interpretive signs and maps within historic areas. The city of Selma is presently planning to provide such interpretive signs in the Martin Luther King, Jr. Street area.
Recreational Opportunities

The Craig Airport and Industrial Park, former site of Craig Air Force Base near Selma, is the only public recreation site adjacent to the 54-mile Selma to Montgomery route. The park includes a swimming pool, a 9-hole golf course, athletic fields and a picnic area. While not along the route, public and private campgrounds near Selma and Montgomery provide overnight accommodations. Opportunities for water-related recreation in the area are also plentiful near the route due to the proximity of Dannelly Reservoir, R.E. Woodruff Lake and the Alabama River. Potential exists for facilities offering picnicking, walking, bicycling, fishing, camping and other forms of recreation, developed by Federal, State, or local governments or private interests.

Marion Side Trail

The oral history project and public meeting components of the national trail study illuminated the decisive role of Marion, Alabama, and its citizens in the Selma to Montgomery march. While outside the scope of the study authorization, consideration of a connecting or side trail from Marion to Selma is warranted if the Selma to Montgomery route is designated as a National Historic Trail. A side trail could follow the route traveled by Marion residents who participated in the Bloody Sunday march on March 7, 1965, and could recognize sites in Perry County with significance to the voting rights movement. Connecting and side trails are authorized by the National Trails System Act and may be designated by the Secretary of the Interior with the approval of State and local governments and private landowners.

Public Comment

All persons, groups, organizations and governments are invited to comment on this draft study report. Comments received, both before and after this brochure, will be considered in preparing the final report to Congress. To guarantee the incorporation of your ideas and opinions, please contact the NPS by July 15, 1992. Address all questions, comments and suggestions to:

Barbara Tagger or Lake Lambert
Planning and Federal Programs Division
National Park Service
75 Spring Street, SW
Atlanta, Georgia 30303
(404) 331-5838

As the Nation's principal conservation agency, the Department of the Interior has responsibility for most of our nationally owned public lands and natural resources. This includes fostering the wisest use of our land and water resources, protecting our fish and wildlife, preserving the environmental and cultural values of our national parks and historical places, and providing for the enjoyment of life through outdoor recreation. The Department assesses our mineral resources and works to assure that their development is in the best interests of all our people. The Department also has a major responsibility for American Indian reservation communities and for people who live in Island Territories under United States administration.

The National Park Service, Department of the Interior, is an equal opportunity agency and offers all persons the benefits of participating in each of its programs and competing in all areas of employment regardless of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, handicap or other nonmerit factors.
APPENDIX D

NATIONAL PARK ADVISORY BOARD RESOLUTION
WHEREAS, in 1990, an Act of Congress authorized a study of the 1965 march from Selma to Montgomery, Alabama, to determine the route’s eligibility for national historic trail status; and

WHEREAS, the congressional Act found the following:

(1) The march from Selma to Montgomery led to the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965; and

(2) Events associated with the march from Selma to Montgomery, such as “Bloody Sunday,” sent shock waves around the world, raised the Nation’s consciousness and convinced political leaders that the time had come for voting rights legislation; and

(3) The designation of the route of the march from Selma to Montgomery as a national historic trail will be a reminder of the right and responsibility of all Americans to fully participate in the election process; and

WHEREAS, the National Trail System Act, Section 5(b)(3), requires the members of the National Park System Advisory Board to evaluate proposed national historic trails to determine their national significance under the Historic Sites Act of 1935 criteria; and

WHEREAS, the Board on February 26, 1992, reviewed the National Park Service’s Selma to Montgomery trail study, and determined that:
(1) The route of the march from Selma to Montgomery is nationally significant; and 

(2) The route and events associated with the march are of such extraordinary national importance so as to warrant being an exception to the 50-year rule; so now

THEREFORE BE IT RESOLVED THAT, the National Park System Advisory Board determines and recommends that the Selma to Montgomery route possesses and meets the criteria of the Historic Sites Act of 1935 for national historic significance.

Bryan Wagner, Chairman

Anne Walker, Secretary
APPENDIX E

PUBLIC MEETING COMMENTS
PUBLIC MEETINGS COMMENTS

In late August 1991, the NPS hosted a series of public meetings in Selma, Hayneville, and Montgomery, Alabama, to discuss the proposed Selma to Montgomery National Historic Trails. An additional meeting was held in Marion, Alabama, in November 1991.

Attendance at the meetings was as follows:

Selma 92
Hayneville 16
Montgomery 30
Marion 11
TOTAL 149

The purpose of these meetings was both to inform the public about the study and its process and to obtain comments and ideas regarding important sites and ways to commemorate the Selma to Montgomery march. At each meeting, citizens were divided into groups and encouraged to list their ideas on large sheets of paper. The comments generated and sites identified are listed below.

Tuesday, August 27, 1991 -- Selma, Alabama

Museum and Center for Civil Rights
Recognition of religion’s role in the Movement
Museum with two parts--one in Selma and one in Montgomery
Markers along route denoting important sites and events
Educational Projects for children (tapes, videos, written materials, interactive)
Beautification along the trail
Visitor center between the Edmund Pettus Bridge and Brown Chapel
National center in Selma for voting rights with a "walk of fame"
Annual festival including a torch runner to Montgomery, music, and crafts
Civil Rights--Civil War Museum in Selma
Adequate and safe parking at starting, mid-point, and end of trail and various sites
Marking of overnight camps
Provide a special flag to anyone interested in displaying it
National voter registration/voting rights week
Walking tour materials
Annual re-enactment
Develop a site-seeing tour for buses
Footprint Memorial
Dramatization of treatment received by marchers
Landscaping project between Brown Chapel and Selmont
Art Gallery
Freedom Songs
Artifacts
Slide presentation along route
Audio message broadcasted on low power AM radio
Trail should be positive, under-scoring change
Signs 10 miles apart on Highway 80
Rest areas with documentary films
Emphasize teachers' march and its importance
Good publicity
Research contributions of "Behind the Scenes" people
Note the mass meetings
Souvenirs
List and mark each important site.
Mark direction on interstate to the trail
Special markers at some sites
Honor the leaders and protective forces
Self-guided tour with brochures
Regularly scheduled tours on Martin Luther King Street by
trained youth
Educate young people
Rest rooms
Rest stops with play-ground areas
Oral histories of march participants which are available
to the public
"Memory Rooms" at historic sites
Special walk from Brown Chapel to the Bridge
Exhibits, memorabilia, and video cassettes of participants
"Songs of Selma" children's art show at anniversary time of march
Plaque honoring fallen heroes
Extend trail to Marian, Alabama
Hold a prayer vigil on Martin Luther King Street during
re-enactment
Develop educational poems, plays, and music with an amphitheater
International publicity
Interpretive brochure
Publicize through rest areas
Oratorical contest
Markers on east side of Pettus Bridge
Colors, symbols or slogans to use on certain days
Coloring books
Remember Silver Moon Cafe
Voter registration drives
Utilize information/exhibits in Old Depot Museum
"Eyes on the Prize" available for check-out
Businesses and souvenir shops for low income people
Maintenance and clean-up of march route
Restoration of black churches
Make the Pettus Bridge stand-out
Need for actual trail to walk along Highway 80

Wednesday, August 28, 1991 - Hayneville, Alabama

Historic markers at important sites in Lowndes County
Museum in Lowndes County at a black owned or related site
Museum at Haralson Place
Museum in Lowndes, Montgomery, and Dallas Counties
Encourage businesses to locate along trail route and
follow trail theme
Monument to voter registration and those who registered in
Lowndes County
Collect artifacts related to the Lowndes County Freedom Organization
Make tour guides available
Need a marker at intersection of Highway 80 and Highway 97 pointing toward Hayneville and its sites
Need for a local commission involved in the trail’s management
Collect pictures from the movement
Note the tie between Civil War and civil rights sites
Preservation of Lowndes County Courthouse, noting its importance in the Reconstruction Era

Thursday, August 29, 1991 - Montgomery, Alabama

Historic markers denoting trail and important sites
Information Center in Montgomery (City Transit Area/Fairview Avenue)
Recognition of the City of St. Jude
Recognition of Dexter Avenue-King Memorial Baptist Church
Mark Edmund Pettus Bridge site (possible visitor center site)
Note sites in Lowndes County, including Tent City and Steele Home
Allow walking on a portion of the route/bike trail
Establish an educational center (museum)
Week-long community activity, including churches, freedom songs, and an annual civil rights anniversary
Ecumenical candlelight ceremony
Establish a staffed park/tourist information center
Nonviolence exhibit
Collect old voter registration forms for a museum
Use an old city bus as a trolley
Center in Montgomery
Revitalize St. Jude area
Film of events
Commemorative celebration
Curriculum developed for schools/educational awareness activities
Oral history tapes
Museum with media for educating young people
Citizens task force
Note Empire Theater (site of Rosa Parks’ arrest)
Shelter or rest stop along route
Eternal flame possibly of St. Jude
Museum on voting issues
Memorial wall noting bombing of churches and homes
Trail with markers starting at St. Jude and including Mt. Zion Church, Holt Church, and 1st Baptist Church
Recognize the state capital
Establish a program commemorating the march (every 5 years)
Establish a campground on the actual overnight sites
Recognize Alabama State College
Re-enactment of march
Directional signs
Wax Museum
Audio tapes
Videos
Historical research, asking for information and people involved
Recognize Beaulah Baptist Church
Recognize E. D. Nixon’s home
Recognize Holt Street Baptist Church
Monroe Street parking lot (Posey’s)
Note Deaths, including V. Liuzzo, J. Reeb, J. Daniels, J. L. Jackson, W. Edwards, and H. Brooks
Note Lutheran Church served by Reverend Mr. Gratz
Recognize Benmore Hotel and protest by A.S.U. students
Note King’s parsonage
Note Centennial Hill where people hosted marchers
Recognize 1st Baptist Church
Recognize Regal Cafe
Oak Street
Note Court Square (site where Rosa Parks boarded bus)
Recognize Mt. Zion AME Zion Church
Recognize Old Montgomery jail on Ripley Street
Signs to direct traffic along route into Montgomery
Utilize Alabama State University archives (E.D. Nixon collections)
Utilize voter registration records of Zecozy Williams, a former federal registrar
State capitol re-opening
Civil rights memorial
Greyhound bus station
Note contributions of Virginia Darr

Wednesday, November 6, 1991—Marion, Alabama

Since half the marchers on "Bloody Sunday" were from Marion, the "trail" should start in Marion. Route: Hwy. 45 to Hwy. 6 to Hwy. 14 to Hwy. 80 to Jeff Davis Avenue to Sylvan Street in Selma.
Jimmie Lee Jackson’s grave site should be marked.
Recognize Zion United Methodist Church for its civil rights meetings and Jimmie Lee Jackson’s funeral.
Mark site where Jimmie Lee Jackson was shot (today it is the Lee and Rollins Funeral Home, but formerly Mack’s Cafe).
Recognize Lincoln High School in Marion where mass student arrest occurred.
Recognize Marion Post Office as the site where African-Americans were registered to vote by a Federal registrar in 1965.
Consider Marion Baptist Academy as a possible museum site.
Recognize Lucy Foster’s home (across from Lincoln High School) where civil rights workers were housed.
The Homes of Mrs. Coretta Scott King and Mrs. Jean Young should be marked.
APPENDIX F

CONSULTATION, COORDINATION, AND PUBLIC COMMENTS
CONSULTATION, COORDINATION AND PUBLIC COMMENTS

The following agencies and organizations were consulted during the trail study:

Federal Agencies

Federal Highway Administration, U.S. Department of Transportation
Office of Environmental Policy
Washington, District of Columbia

Fish and Wildlife Service, U.S. Department of the Interior
Atlanta, Georgia

Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture
Talladega National Forest
Centreville, Alabama

Soil Conservation Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture
Auburn and Selma, Alabama

Corps of Engineers, U.S. Department of the Army
Mobile District
Mobile, Alabama

State and Local Agencies

Alabama Bureau of Tourism and Travel
Alabama Department of Conservation and Natural Resources
Alabama Department of Economic and Community Development
Alabama Highway Department
Alabama Historical Commission
City of Benton
City of Hayneville
City of Montgomery
City of Selma
Dallas County Commission
Lowndes County Commission
Montgomery County Commission

Private Organizations and Societies

Brown Chapel A.M.E. Church
Dexter Avenue-King Memorial Baptist Church
First Baptist Church (Selma)
Landmarks Foundation
Montgomery Chamber of Commerce
Montgomery Improvement Association
Old Depot Museum
Selma-Dallas County Chamber of Commerce
Southern Poverty Law Center
World Heritage Museum
Summary of Public and Agency Responses

Following the public meeting series, the trail study team was asked to submit an article for the inaugural issue of Teaching Tolerance. This publication is produced by the Southern Poverty Law Center and provides resources to educators trying to inspire racial and religious harmony. Included with the article was a comment page which allowed students and teachers to submit ideas and comments to the NPS. Over 594 comments* were received by this means, and all supported designation of the trail.

Other comments received as a result of the initial brochure and draft study report numbered 30.**. A summary of responses, indexed by the alternative preferred, is indicated below. Selected public and agency comments follow.

Summary of Public and Agency Comments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alt A</th>
<th>Alt B</th>
<th>Alt C</th>
<th>Alt D</th>
<th>Support, But No Preference</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>624</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Comments from Teaching Tolerance are included in the "Support, But No Preference" category.

** While this number is low, many citizens may have considered their participation and comments during the public meeting as sufficient.
APPENDIX G

NATIONAL TRAILS SYSTEM ACT
National Trails System Act

Sec. 1. This Act may be cited as the "National Trails System Act". (16 U.S.C. 1241(note))

STATEMENT OF POLICY

Sec. 2. (a) In order to provide for the ever-increasing outdoor recreation needs of an expanding population and in order to promote the preservation of, public access to, travel within, and enjoyment and appreciation of the open-air, outdoor areas and historic resources of the Nation, trails should be established (i) primarily, near the urban areas of the Nation, and (ii) secondarily, within scenic areas and along historic travel routes of the Nation, which are often more remotely located.

(b) The purpose of this Act is to provide the means for attaining these objectives by instituting a national system of recreation, scenic and historic trails, by designating the Appalachian Trail and the Pacific Crest Trail as the initial components of that system, and by prescribing the methods by which, and standards according to which, additional components may be added to the system.

(c) The Congress recognizes the valuable contributions that volunteers and private, nonprofit trail groups have made to the development and maintenance of the Nation's trails. In recognition of these contributions, it is further the purpose of this Act to encourage and assist volunteer citizen involvement in the planning, development, maintenance, and management, where appropriate, of trails.

NATIONAL TRAILS SYSTEM

Sec. 3. (a) The national system of trails shall be composed of the following:

(1) National recreation trails, established as provided in section 4 of this Act, which will provide a variety of outdoor recreation uses in or reasonably accessible to urban areas.

(2) National scenic trails, established as provided in section 5 of this Act, which will be extended trails so located as to provide for maximum outdoor recreation potential and for the conservation and enjoyment of the nationally significant scenic, historic, natural, or cultural qualities of the areas through which such trails may pass. National scenic trails may be located so as to represent desert, marsh, grassland, mountain, canyon, river, forest, and other areas, as well as landforms which exhibit significant characteristics of the physiographic region of the Nation.

(3) National historic trails, established as provided in section 5 of this Act, which will be extended trails which follow as closely as possible and practicable the original trails or routes of travel of national historic significance. Designation of such trails or routes shall be continuous, but the established or developed trail, and the acquisition thereof, need not be continuous on-site. National historic trails shall have as their purpose the identification and protection of the historic route and its historic remnants and artifacts for public use and enjoyment. Only those selected land and water based components of an historic trail which are on federally owned lands and which meet the national historic trail criteria established in this Act are included as Federal protection components of a national historic trail. The appropriate Secretary may certify other lands as protected segments of an historic trail upon application from State or local governmental agencies or private interests involved if such segments meet the national historic trail criteria established in this Act and such criteria supplementary thereto as the appropriate Secretary may prescribe, and are administered by such agencies or interests without expense to the United States.

(b) Connecting or side trails, established as provided in section 6 of this Act, which will provide additional points of public access to national recreation, national scenic or national historic trails or which will provide connections between such trails.

The Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture, in consultation with appropriate governmental agencies and public and private organizations, shall establish a uniform marker for the national trails system.

For purposes of this section, the term "extended trails" means trails or trail segments which total at least one hundred miles in length, except that historic trails of less than one hundred miles may be designated as extended trails. While it is desirable that extended trails be continuous, studies of such trails may conclude that it is feasible to propose one or more trail segments which, in the aggregate, constitute at least one hundred miles in length.

(c) On October 1, 1982, and at the beginning of each odd numbered fiscal year thereafter, the Secretary of the Interior shall submit to the Speaker of the United States...
House of Representatives and to the President of the United States Senate, an initial and revised (respectively) National Trails System plan. Such comprehensive plan shall indicate the scope and extent of a completed nationwide system of trails, to include (1) desirable nationally significant scenic and historic components which are considered necessary to complete a comprehensive national system, and (2) other trails which would balance out a complete and comprehensive nationwide system of trails. Such plan, and the periodic revisions thereto, shall be prepared in full consultation with the Secretary of Agriculture, the Governors of the various States, and the trails community. (16 U.S.C. 1242)

NATIONAL RECREATION TRAILS

Sec. 4. (a) The Secretary of the Interior, or the Secretary of Agriculture where lands administered by him are involved, may establish and designate national recreation trails, with the consent of the Federal agency, State, or political subdivision having jurisdiction over the lands involved, upon finding that—

(i) such trails are reasonably accessible to urban areas, and, or

(ii) such trails meet the criteria established in this Act and such supplementary criteria as he may prescribe.

(b) As provided in this section, trails within park, forest, and other recreation areas administered by the Secretary of the Interior or the Secretary of Agriculture or in other federally administered areas may be established and designated as "National Recreation Trails" by the appropriate Secretary and, when no Federal land acquisition is involved—

(i) trails in or reasonably accessible to urban areas may be designated as "National Recreation Trails" by the appropriate Secretary with the consent of the States, their political subdivisions, or other appropriate administering agencies;

(ii) trails within park, forest, and other recreation areas owned or administered by States may be designated as "National Recreation Trails" by the appropriate Secretary with the consent of the State; and

(iii) trails on privately owned lands may be designated "National Recreation Trails" by the appropriate Secretary with the written consent of the owner of the property involved.

248

NATIONAL SCENIC AND NATIONAL HISTORICAL TRAILS

Sec. 5. (a) National scenic and national historic trails shall be authorized and designated only by Act of Congress. There are hereby established the following National Scenic and National Historic Trails:

(1) The Appalachian National Scenic Trail, a trail of approximately two thousand miles extending generally along the Appalachian Mountains from Mount Katahdin, Maine, to Springer Mountain, Georgia. Insofar as practicable, the right-of-way for such trail shall comprise the trail depicted on the maps identified as "National System of Trails, Proposed Appalachian Trail, NST-AT-101 May 1967", which shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director of the National Park Service. Where practicable, such rights-of-way shall include lands protected for it under agreements in effect as of the date of enactment of this Act, to which Federal agencies and State were parties. The Appalachian Trail shall be administered primarily as a footpath by the Secretary of the Interior, in consultation with the Secretary of Agriculture.

(2) The Pacific Crest National Scenic Trail, a trail of approximately two thousand three hundred fifty miles, extending from the Mexican-California border northernly generally along the mountain ranges of the west coast States to the Canadian-Washington border near Lake Ross, following the route as generally depicted on the map, identified as "National System of Trails, Proposed Pacific Crest Trail, NST-PC-103 May 1967", which shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Chief of the Forest Service. The Pacific Crest Trail shall be administered by the Secretary of Agriculture, in consultation with the Secretary of the Interior.

(3) The Oregon National Historic Trail, a route of approximately two thousand miles extending from near Independence, Missouri, to the vicinity of Portland, Oregon, following a route as depicted on maps identified as "Primary Route of the Oregon Trail 1841-1848", in the Department of the Interior's Oregon Trail study report dated April 1977, and which shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director of the National Park Service. The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of the Interior.

(4) The Mormon Pioneer National Historic Trail, a route of approximately one thousand three hundred miles extending from Nauvoo, Illinois, to Salt Lake City, Utah, following the primary historical route of the Mormon Trail as generally depicted on a map, identified as "Mormon Trail Vicinity Map, figure 2" in the Department of the Interior Mormon Trail study report dated March 1977, and which shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director, National Park Service, Washington, D.C.
The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of the Interior.

(5) The Continental Divide National Scenic Trail, a trail of approximately thirty-one hundred miles, extending from the Montana-Canada border to the New Mexico-Mexico border, following the approximate route depicted on the map, identified as "Proposed Continental Divide National Scenic Trail" in the Department of the Interior Continental Divide Trail study report dated March 1977 and which shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Chief, Forest Service, Washington, D.C. The Continental Divide National Scenic Trail shall be administered by the Secretary of Agriculture in consultation with the Secretary of the Interior. Notwithstanding the provisions of section 7(c), the use of motorized vehicles on roads which will be designated segments of the Continental Divide National Scenic Trail shall be permitted in accordance with regulations prescribed by the appropriate Secretary.

(6) The Lewis and Clark National Historic Trail, a trail of approximately three thousand seven hundred miles, extending from Wood River, Illinois, to the mouth of the Columbia River in Oregon, following the outbound and inbound routes of the Lewis and Clark expedition depicted on maps identified as, "Vicinity Map, Lewis and Clark Trail" study report dated April 1977. The map shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director, National Park Service, Washington, D.C. The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of the Interior.

(7) The Iditarod National Historic Trail, a route of approximately two thousand miles extending from Seward, Alaska to Nome, Alaska, following the routes as depicted on maps identified as "Seward-Nome Trail", in the Department of the Interior's study report entitled "The Iditarod Trail (Seward-Nome Route) and other Alaskan Gold Rush Trails" dated September 1977. The map shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director, National Park Service, Washington, D.C. The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of the Interior.

(8) The North Country National Scenic Trail, a trail of approximately thirty-two hundred miles, extending from Door County, Wisconsin, to Interstate Park in Saint Croix County, Wisconsin, generally following the route described in "On the Trail of the Ice Age--A Hiker's and Biker's Guide to Wisconsin's Ice Age National Scientific Reserve and Trail," by Henry S. Reuss, Member of Congress, dated 1980. The guide and maps shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director, National Park Service, Washington, District of Columbia. Overall administration of the trail shall be the responsibility of the Secretary of the Interior pursuant to section 5(d) of this Act. The State of Wisconsin, in consultation with the Secretary of the Interior, may, subject to the approval of the Secretary, prepare a plan for the management of the trail which can be approved by the Secretary pursuant to section 5(e) of this Act. Notwithstanding the provisions of section 7(c), snowmobile use may be permitted on segments of the Ice Age National Scenic Trail where deemed appropriate by the Secretary and the managing authority responsible for the segment.

(9) The Potomac Heritage National Scenic Trail, a corridor of approximately seven hundred and four miles following the route as generally depicted on the map identified as "National Trails System, Proposed Potomac Heritage Trail" in "The Potomac Heritage Trail," a report prepared by the Department of the Interior and dated December 1974, except that no designation of the trail shall be made in the State of West Virginia. The map shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director of the National Park Service, Washington, District of Columbia. The trail shall initially consist of only those segments of the corridor located within the exterior boundaries of federally administered areas. No lands or interests therein outside the exterior boundaries of any federally administered area may be acquired by the Federal Government for the Potomac Heritage Trail.

The Secretary of the Interior may designate lands outside of federally administered areas as segments of the trail, only upon application from the States or local governmental
agencies involved, if such segments meet the criteria established in this Act and are administered by such agencies without expense to the United States. The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of the Interior.

12. The Natchez Trace National Scenic Trail, a trail system approximating six hundred and ninety-four miles extending from Nashville, Tennessee, to Natchez, Mississippi, as depicted on the map entitled "Concept Plan, Natchez Trace Trails Study," in "The Natchez Trace," a report prepared by the Department of the Interior and dated August 1979. The map shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Director of the National Park Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, District of Columbia. The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of the Interior.

13. The Florida National Scenic Trail, a route of approximately thirteen hundred miles extending through the State of Florida as generally depicted in "The Florida Trail," a national scenic trail study draft prepared by the Department of the Interior and dated February 1980. The report shall be on file and available for public inspection in the office of the Chief of the Forest Service, Washington, District of Columbia. No lands or interests therein outside the exterior boundaries of any federally administered area may be acquired by the Federal Government for the Florida Trail except with the consent of owner thereof. The Secretary of Agriculture may designate lands outside of federally administered areas as segments of the trail, only upon application from the States or local governmental agencies involved, if such segments meet the criteria established in this Act and are administered by such agencies without expense to the United States. The trail shall be administered by the Secretary of Agriculture.

(b) The Secretary of the Interior, through the agency most likely to administer such trail, and the Secretary of Agriculture where lands administered by him are involved, shall make such additional studies as are herein or may hereafter be authorized by the Congress for the purpose of determining the feasibility and desirability of designating other trails as national scenic or national historic trails. Such studies shall be made in consultation with the heads of other Federal agencies administering lands through which such additional proposed trails would pass and in cooperation with interested interstate, State, and local governmental agencies, public and private organizations, and landowners and land users concerned. The feasibility of designating a trail shall be determined on the basis of an evaluation of whether or not it is physically possible to develop a trail along a route being studied, and whether the development of trail would be financially feasible. The studies listed in subsection (c) of this section shall be completed and submitted to the Congress, with recommendations as to the suitability of trail designation, not later than three complete fiscal years from the date of enactment of their addition to this subsection, or from the date of enactment of this sentence, whichever is later. Such studies, when submitted, shall be printed as a House or Senate document, and shall include, but not be limited to:

1. the proposed route of such trail (including maps and illustrations);
2. the areas adjacent to such trails, to be utilized for scenic, historic, natural, cultural, or developmental purposes;
3. the characteristics which, in the judgment of the appropriate Secretary, make the proposed trail worthy of designation as a national scenic or national historic trail; and in the case of national historic trails the report shall include the recommendation of the Secretary of the Interior's National Park System Advisory Board as to the national historic significance based on the criteria developed under the Historic Sites Act of 1935 (40 Stat. 666; 16 U.S.C. 461);
4. the current status of land ownership and current and potential use along the designated route;
5. the estimated cost of acquisition of lands or interest in lands, if any;
6. the plans for developing and maintaining the trail and the cost thereof;
7. the proposed Federal administering agency (which, in the case of a national scenic or national historic trail wholly or substantially within a national forest, shall be the Department of Agriculture);
8. the extent to which a State or its political subdivisions and public and private organizations might reasonably be expected to participate in acquiring the necessary lands and in the administration thereof;
9. the relative use of the lands involved, including: the number of anticipated visitor-days for the entire length of, as well as for segments of, such trail; the number of months which such trail, or segments thereof, will be open for recreation purposes; the economic and social benefits which might accrue from alternate land uses; and the estimated man-years of civilian employment and expenditures expected for the purposes of maintenance, supervision, and regulation of such trail;
10. the anticipated impact of public outdoor recreation use on the preservation of a proposed national historic trail and its related historic and archeological features and settings, including the measures proposed to ensure evaluation and preservation of the values that contribute to their national historic significance; and
to qualify for designation as a national historic trail, a trail must meet all three of the following criteria:

(A) It must be a trail or route established by historic use and must be historically significant as a result of that use. The route need not currently exist as a discernible trail to qualify, but its location must be sufficiently known to permit evaluation of public recreation and historical interest potential. A designated trail should generally follow the historic route, but may deviate somewhat on occasion of necessity to avoid difficult routing through subsequent development, or to provide some route variation offering a more pleasurable recreational experience. Such deviations shall be so noted on site. Trail segments no longer possible to travel by trail due to subsequent development as motorized transportation routes may be designated and marked onsite as segments which link to the historic trail.

(B) It must be of national significance with respect to any of several broad facets of American history, such as trade and commerce, exploration, migration and settlement, or military campaigns. To qualify as nationally significant, historic use of the trail must have had a far-reaching effect on broad patterns of American culture. Trails significant in the history of native Americans may be included.

(C) It must have significant potential for public recreational use or historical interest based on historic interpretation and appreciation. The potential for such use is generally greater along roadless segments developed as historic trails, and at historic sites associated with the trail. The presence of recreation potential not related to historic appreciation is not sufficient justification for designation under this category.

The following routes shall be studied in accordance with the objectives outlined in subsection (b) of this section:

1) Continental Divide Trail, a three-thousand, one-hundred-mile trail extending from near the Mexican border in southwestern New Mexico northward generally along the Continental Divide to the Canadian border in Glacier National Park.

2) Potomac Heritage Trail, an eight-hundred-and-twenty-five-mile trail extending generally from the mouth of the Potomac River to its sources in Pennsylvania and West Virginia, including the one-hundred-and-seventy-mile Chesapeake and Ohio Canal towpath.

3) Old Cattle Trails of the Southwest from the vicinity of San Antonio, Texas, approximately eight hundred miles through Oklahoma via Baxter Springs and Abilene, Kansas, to Fort Scott, Kansas, including the Chisholm Trail, from the vicinity of San Antonio or Cuero, Texas, approximately eight hundred miles north through Oklahoma to Abilene, Kansas.

4) Lewis and Clark Trail, from Wood River, Illinois, to the Pacific Ocean in Oregon, following both the outbound and inbound routes of the Lewis and Clark Expedition.

5) Natchez Trace, from Nashville, Tennessee, approximately six hundred miles to Natchez, Mississippi.

6) North Country Trail, from the Appalachian Trail in Vermont, approximately three thousand two hundred miles through the States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, to the Lewis and Clark Trail in North Dakota.

7) Kittanning Trail from Sherrisburg in Huntingdon County to Kittanning, Armstrong County, Pennsylvania.

8) Oregon Trail, from Independence, Missouri, approximately two thousand miles to near Fort Vancouver, Washington.

9) Santa Fe Trail, from Independence, Missouri, approximately eight hundred miles to Santa Fe, New Mexico.

10) Long Trail, extending two hundred and fifty-five miles from the Massachusetts border northward through Vermont to the Canadian Border.

11) Mormon Trail, extending from Nauvoo, Illinois, to Salt Lake City, Utah, through the States of Iowa, Nebraska, and Wyoming.

12) Gold Rush Trails in Alaska.

13) Mormon Battalion Trail, extending two thousand miles from Mount Pisgah, Iowa, through Kansas, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona to Los Angeles, California.

14) El Camino Real from St. Augustine to San Mateo, Florida, approximately 20 miles along the southern boundary of the St. Johns River from Fort Caroline National Memorial to the St. Augustine National Park Monument.

15) Bartram Trail, extending through the States of Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee.

16) Daniel Boone Trail, extending from the vicinity of Statesville, North Carolina, to Fort Boonesborough State Park, Kentucky.

17) Desert Trail, extending from the Canadian border through parts of Idaho, Washington, Oregon, Nevada, California, and Arizona, to the Mexican border.

18) Dominguez-Escalante Trail, extending approximately two thousand miles along the route of the 1776 expedition led by Father Francisco Atanasio Dominguez and Father Silvestre Velez de Escalante, originating in Santa Fe, New Mexico; proceeding northwest along the San Juan,
Dolores, Gunnison, and White Rivers in Colorado; thence westerly to Utah Lake; thence southward to Arizona and returning to Santa Fe.

(19) Florida Trail, extending north from Everglades National Park, including the Big Cypress Swamp, the Kissimmee Prairie, the Withlacoochee State Forest, Ocala National Forest, Osceola National Forest, and Blackwater River State Forest, said completed trail to be approximately one thousand three hundred miles long, of which over four hundred miles of trail have already been built.

(20) Indian Nations Trail, extending from the Red River in Oklahoma approximately two hundred miles northward through the former Indian nations to the Oklahoma-Kansas boundary line.

(21) Nez Perce Trail extending from the vicinity of Wallowa Lake, Oregon, to Bear Paw Mountain, Montana.

(22) Pacific Northwest Trail, extending approximately one thousand miles from the Continental Divide in Glacier National Park, Montana, to the Pacific Ocean beach of Olympic National Park, Washington, by way of-

(A) Flathead National Forest and Kootenai National Forest in the State of Montana;
(B) Kaniksu National Forest in the State of Idaho;

(23) Overmountain Victory Trail, extending from the vicinity of Elizabethon, Tennessee, to Kings Mountain National Military Park, South Carolina.

(24) Juan Bautista de Anza Trail, following the overland route taken by Juan Bautista de Anza in connection with his travels from the United States Mexican States to San Francisco, California.

(25) Trail of Tears, including the associated forts and specifically, Fort Mitchell, Alabama, and historic properties, extending from the vicinity of Murphy, North Carolina, through Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Illinois, Missouri, and Arkansas, to the vicinity of Tahlequah, Oklahoma.

(26) Illinois Trail, extending from the Lewis and Clark Trail at Wood River, Illinois, to the Chicago Portage National Historic Site, generally following the Illinois River and Lake Michigan Canal.

(27) Jedediah Smith Trail, to include the routes of the explorations led by Jedediah Smith—

(A) during the period 1826-1827, extending from the Idaho-Wyoming border, through the Great Salt Lake, Sevier, Virgin, and Colorado River Valleys, and the Mojave Desert, to the San Gabriel Mission, California; thence through the Tehachapi Mountains, San Joaquin and Stanislaus River Valleys, Ebbetts Pass, Walker River Valley, Bald Mount, Mount Grafton, and Great Salt Lake to Bear Lake, Utah; and (B) during 1828, extending from the Sacramento and Trinity River valleys along the Pacific coastline, through the Smith and Willamette River Valleys to the Fort Vancouver National Historic Site, Washington, on the Columbia River.

(28) General Crook Trail, extending from Prescott, Arizona, across the Mogollon Rim to Fort Apache.

(29) Beale Wagon Road, within the Kaibab and Cononino National Forests in Arizona: Provided, such study may be prepared in conjunction with ongoing planning processes for these National Forests to be completed before 1990.

(d) The Secretary charged with the administration of each respective trail shall, within one year of the date of the addition of any national scenic or national historic trail to the system, and within sixty days of the enactment of this sentence for the Appalachian and Pacific Crest National Scenic Trails, establish an advisory council for each such trail, each of which councils shall expire ten years from the date of its establishment. If the appropriate Secretary is unable to establish such an advisory council because of the lack of adequate public interest, the Secretary shall so advise the appropriate committees of the Congress. The appropriate Secretary shall consult with such council from time to time with respect to matters relating to the trail, including the selection of rights-of-way, standards for the erection and maintenance of markers along the trail, and the administration of the trail. The members of each advisory council, which shall not exceed thirty-five in number, shall serve for a term of two years and without compensation as such, but the Secretary may pay, upon vouchers signed by the chairman of the council, the expenses reasonably incurred by the council and its members in carrying out their responsibilities under this section. Members of each council shall be appointed by the appropriate Secretary as follows:

(1) the head of each Federal department or independent agency administering lands through which the trail route passes, or his designee;
(2) a member appointed to represent each State through which the trail passes, and such appointments shall be made from recommendations of the Governors of such States;
(3) one or more members appointed to represent private organizations, including corporate and individual land-owners and land users, which in the opinion of the Secretary, have an established and recognized interest in the trail, and such appointments shall be made from recommendations of the heads of such organizations:

256
Provided, That the Appalachian Trail Conference shall be represented by a sufficient number of persons to represent the various sections of the country through which the Appalachian Trail passes; and
(4) the Secretary shall designate one member to be chairman and shall fill vacancies in the same manner as the original appointment.

(e) Within two complete fiscal years of the date of enactment of legislation designating a national scenic trail, except for the Continental Divide National Scenic Trail, and the North Country National Scenic Trail, as part of the system, and within two complete fiscal years of the date of enactment of this subsection for the Pacific Crest and Appalachian Trails, the responsible Secretary shall, after full consultation with affected Federal land managing agencies, the Governors of the affected States, the relevant Advisory Council established pursuant to section 5(d), and the Appalachian Trail Conference in the case of the Appalachian Trail, submit to the Committee on Interior and Insular Affairs of the House of Representatives a comprehensive plan for the acquisition, management, development, and use of the trail, including but not limited to, the following items:

(1) specific objectives and practices to be observed in the management of the trail, including the identification of all significant natural, historical, and cultural resources to be preserved (along with high potential historic sites and high potential route segments in the case of national historic trails), details of anticipated cooperative agreements to be consummated with other entities, and an identified carrying capacity of the trail and a plan for its implementation;
(2) an acquisition or protection plan, by fiscal year, for all lands to be acquired by fee title or lesser interest, along with detailed explanation of anticipated necessary cooperative agreements for any lands not to be acquired; and
(3) general and site-specific development plans including anticipated costs.

(f) Within two complete fiscal years of the date of enactment of legislation designating a national historic trail or the Continental Divide National Scenic Trail or the North Country National Scenic Trail as part of the system, the responsible Secretary shall, after full consultation with affected Federal land managing agencies, the Governors of the affected States, and the relevant Advisory Council established pursuant to section 5(d) of this Act, submit to the Committee on Interior and Insular Affairs of the House of Representatives and the Committee on Energy and Natural Resources of the Senate, a comprehensive plan for the acquisition, management, development, and use of the trail, including but not limited to, the following items:

(1) specific objectives and practices to be observed in the management of the trail, including the identification of all significant natural, historical, and cultural resources to be preserved, details of any anticipated cooperative agreements to be consummated with State and local government agencies or private interests, and for national scenic or national historic trails an identified carrying capacity of the trail and a plan for its implementation;
(2) the process to be followed by the appropriate Secretary to implement the marking requirements established in section 7(e) of this Act;
(3) a protection plan for any high potential historic sites or high potential route segments; and
(4) general and site-specific development plans, including anticipated costs.

CONNECTING AND SIDE TRAILS

Sec. 6. Connecting or side trails within park, forest, and other recreation areas administered by the Secretary of the Interior or Secretary of Agriculture may be established, designated, and marked by the appropriate Secretary as components of a national recreation, national scenic or national historic trail. When no Federal land acquisition is involved, connecting or side trails may be located across lands administered by interstate, State, or local governmental agencies with their consent or, where the appropriate Secretary deems necessary or desirable, on privately owned lands with the consent of the landowner. Applications for approval and designation of connecting and side trails on non-Federal lands shall be submitted to the appropriate Secretary.

ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Sec. 7. (a)(1)(A) The Secretary charged with the overall administration of a trail pursuant to section 5(a) shall, in administering and managing the trail, consult with the heads of all other affected State and Federal agencies. Nothing contained in this Act shall be deemed to transfer among Federal agencies any management responsibilities established under any other law for federally administered lands which are components of the National Trails System. Any transfer of management responsibilities may be carried out between the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture only as provided under subparagraph (B).

(B) The Secretary charged with the overall administration of any trail pursuant to section 5(a) may transfer management of any specified trail
administration of the trail. Reasonable efforts shall be made to provide sufficient access opportunities to such trails and, to the extent practicable, efforts shall be made to avoid activities incompatible with the purposes for which such trails were established. The use of motorized vehicles by the general public along any national scenic trail shall be prohibited and nothing in this Act shall be construed as authorizing the use of motorized vehicles within the natural and historical areas of the national park system, the national wildlife refuge system, the national wilderness preservation system, the national recreation system, the national scenic, or national historic trails by cooperative agreement of a landowner shall not preclude such owner from using motorized vehicles on or across such trails or adjacent lands from time to time in accordance with regulations to be established by the appropriate Secretary. Where a national scenic or national historic trail follows existing public roads, developed rights-of-way or waterways, and similar features of man's nonhistorically related development, approximating the original location of a historic route, such segments may be marked to facilitate retracement of the historic route, and where a national historic trail parallels an existing public road, such road may be marked to commemorate the historic route. Other uses along the historic trails and the Continental Divide National Scenic Trail, which will not substantially interfere with the nature and purposes of the trail, and which, at the time of designation, are allowed by administrative regulations, including the use of motorized vehicles, shall be permitted by the Secretary charged with the administration of the trail. The Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture, in consultation with appropriate governmental agencies and public and private organizations, shall establish a uniform marker, including thereon an appropriate and distinctive symbol for each national recreation, national scenic, and national historic trail. Where the trails cross lands administered by Federal agencies such markers shall be erected at appropriate points along the trails and maintained by the Federal agency administering the trail in accordance with standards established by the appropriate Secretary and where the trails cross non-Federal lands, in accordance with written cooperative agreements, the appropriate Secretary shall provide such uniform markers to cooperating agencies.
appropriate Secretary may also provide for trail interpretation sites, which shall be located at historic sites along the route of any national scenic or national historic trail, in order to present information to the public about the trail, at the lowest possible cost, with emphasis on the portion of the trail passing through the State in which the site is located. Wherever possible, the sites shall be maintained by a State agency under a cooperative agreement between the appropriate Secretary and the State agency.

(d) Within the exterior boundaries of areas under their administration that are included in the right-of-way selected for a national recreation, national scenic, or national historic trail, the heads of Federal agencies may use lands for trail purposes and may acquire lands or interests in lands by written cooperative agreement, donation, purchase with donated or appropriated funds or exchange.

(e) Where the lands included in a national scenic or national historic trail right-of-way are outside of the exterior boundaries of federally administered areas, the Secretary charged with the administration of such trail shall encourage the State or local governments involved (1) to enter into written cooperative agreements with landowners, private organizations, and individuals to provide necessary trail right-of-way or (2) to acquire such lands or interests therein to be utilized as segments of the national scenic or national historic trail. Provided, That if the State or local governments fail to enter into such written cooperative agreements or to acquire such lands or interests therein after notice of the selection of the right-of-way is published, the appropriate Secretary may (1) enter into such agreements with landowners, States, local governments, private organizations, and individuals for the use of lands for trail purposes, or (ii) acquire private lands or interests therein by donation, purchase with donated or appropriated funds or exchange in accordance with the provisions of subsection (f) of this section: Provided further, That the appropriate Secretary may acquire lands or interests therein from local governments or governmental corporations with the consent of such entities. The lands involved in such rights-of-way should be acquired in fee, if other methods of public utility are not sufficient to assure their use for the purpose for which they are acquired: Provided, That if the Secretary charged with the administration of such trail permanently relocates the right-of-way and disposes of all title or interest in the land, the original owner, or his heirs or assigns, shall be offered, by notice given at the former owner's last known address, the right of first refusal at their fair market price.

(f)(1) The Secretary of the Interior, in the exercise of his exchange authority, may accept title to any non-Federal property within the right-of-way and in exchange therefor he may convey to the grantor of such property and federally owned property under his jurisdiction which is located in the State wherein such property is located and which he classifies as suitable for exchange or other disposal. The value of the properties so exchanged either shall be approximately equal, or if they are not approximately equal the values shall be equalized by the payment of cash to the grantor or to the Secretary as the circumstances require. The Secretary of Agriculture, in the exercise of his exchange authority, may utilize authorities and procedures available to him in connection with exchanges of national forest lands.

(2) In acquiring lands or interests therein for a National Scenic Historic Trail, the appropriate Secretary may, with consent of a landowner, acquire whole tracts notwithstanding that parts of such tracts may lie outside the area of trail acquisition. In furtherance of the purposes of this act, lands so acquired outside the area of trail acquisition may be exchanged for any non-Federal lands or interests therein within the trail right-of-way, or disposed of in accordance with such procedures or regulations as the appropriate Secretary shall prescribe, including:

(i) provisions for conveyance of such acquired lands or interests therein at not less than fair market value to the highest bidder, and

(ii) provisions for allowing the last owners of record a right to purchase said acquired lands or interests therein upon payment or agreement to pay an amount equal to the highest bid price. For lands designated for exchange or disposal, the appropriate Secretary may convey these lands with any reservations or covenants deemed desirable to further the purposes of this act. The proceeds from any disposal shall be credited to the appropriation bearing the costs of land acquisition for the affected trail.

(g) The appropriate Secretary may utilize condemnation proceedings without the consent of the owner to acquire private lands or interests therein pursuant to this section only in cases where, in his judgment, all reasonable efforts to acquire such lands or interests through negotiation have failed. In such cases he shall acquire only such title as, in his judgment, is reasonably necessary to provide passage across such lands: Provided, That condemnation proceedings may not be utilized to acquire fee title or lesser interests to more than an average of one
of the trail, no land or site located along a designated National Scenic Trail shall be subject to the provisions of historic sites. Except for designated protected components of the trail, no land or site located along a designated national historic trail or along the Continental Divide National Scenic Trail shall be subject to the provisions of section 4(f) of the Department of Transportation Act (49 U.S.C. 1653(f) unless such land or site is deemed to be of historical significance under appropriate historical site criteria such as those for the National Register of Historic Places.

(h)(1) The Secretary charged with the administration of a national recreation, national scenic, or national historic trail shall provide for the development and maintenance of such trails within federally administered areas and shall cooperate with and encourage the States to operate, develop, and maintain portions of such trails which are located outside the boundaries of federally administered areas. When deemed to be in the public interest, such Secretary may enter written cooperative agreements with the States or their political subdivisions, landowners, private organizations, or individuals to operate, develop, and maintain any component of the national trails system located within a federally administered area. Such agreements may include provisions for financial assistance to encourage participation in the acquisition, protection, operation, development, or maintenance of such trails, provisions providing for volunteer activity in the park or volunteer in the forest status (in accordance with the Volunteers in the Park Act of 1969 and the Volunteers in the Forests Act of 1972) to individuals, private organizations, or landowners participating in such activities, or provisions of both types. The appropriate Secretary shall also initiate consultations with affected States and their political subdivisions to encourage—

(A) the development and implementation by such entities of appropriate measures to protect private landowners from trespass resulting from trail use and from unreasonable personal liability and property damage caused by trail use, and

(B) the development and implementation by such entities of provisions for land practices compatible with the purposes of this Act, for property within or adjacent to trail rights-of-way. After consulting with States and their political subdivisions under the preceding sentence, the Secretary may provide assistance to such entities under appropriate cooperative agreements in the manner provided by this subsection.

(2) Whenever the Secretary of the Interior makes any conveyance of land under any of the public land laws, he may reserve a right-of-way for trails to the extent he deems necessary to carry out the purposes of this Act.

(j) Potential trail uses allowed on designated components of the national trails system may include, but are not limited to, the following: bicycling, cross-country skiing, day hiking, equestrian activities, jogging or similar fitness activities, trail biking, camping, and long distance backpacking, snowmobiling, and surface water and underwater activities. Vehicles which may be permitted on certain trails may include, but need not be limited to, motorcycles, bicycles, four-wheel drive or all-terrain off-road vehicles. In addition, trail access for handicapped individuals may be provided. The provisions of this subsection shall not supersede any other provisions of this Act or other Federal laws, or any State or local laws.

(k) For the conservation purpose of preserving or enhancing the recreational, scenic, natural, or historical values of components of the national trails system, and environs thereof as determined by the appropriate Secretary, landowners are authorized to qualify real property interests to qualified organizations consistent with section 170 (h)(3) of the Internal Revenue Code.
Code of 1954, including, but not limited to, right-of-way, open space, scenic, or conservation easements, without regard to any limitation on the nature of the estate or interest otherwise transferable within the jurisdiction where the land is located. The conveyance of any such interest in land in accordance with this subsection shall be deemed to further a Federal conservation policy and yield a significant public benefit for purposes of section 6 of Public Law 96-541.

STATE AND METROPOLITAN AREA TRAILS

Sec. 8. (a) The Secretary of the Interior is directed to encourage States to consider, in their comprehensive statewide outdoor recreation plans and proposals for financial assistance for State and local projects submitted pursuant to the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act, needs and opportunities for establishing park, forest, and other recreation and historic trails on lands owned or administered by States, and recreation trails on lands in or near urban areas.

The Secretary is also directed to encourage States to consider, in their comprehensive statewide historic preservation plans and proposals for financial assistance for State, local, and private projects submitted pursuant to the Act of October 15, 1966 (80 Stat. 915), as amended, needs and opportunities for establishing historic trails.

He is further directed, in accordance with the authority contained in the Act of May 28, 1963 (77 Stat. 49), to encourage States, political subdivisions, and private interests, including nonprofit organizations, to establish such trails.

(b) The Secretary of Housing and Urban Development is directed, in administering the program of comprehensive urban planning and assistance under section 701 of the Housing Act of 1954, to encourage the planning of recreation trails in connection with the recreation and transportation planning for metropolitan and other urban areas. He is further directed, in administering the urban open-space program under title VII of the Housing Act of 1961, to encourage such recreation trails.

(c) The Secretary of Agriculture is directed, in accordance with authority vested in him, to encourage States and local agencies and private interests to establish such trails.

(d) The Secretary of Transportation, the Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the Secretary of the Interior, in administering the Railroad Revitalization and Regulatory Reform Act of 1976, shall encourage States and local agencies and private interests to establish appropriate trails using the provisions of such programs.

RIGTHS-OF-WAY AND OTHER PROPERTIES

Sec. 9. (a) The Secretary of the Interior or the Secretary of Agriculture as the case may be, may grant easements and rights of way upon, under, across, or along any component of the national trails system in accordance with laws applicable to the national park system and the national forest system, respectively: Provided, That any conditions contained in such easements and rights-of-way shall be related to the policy and purposes of this Act.

(b) The Department of Defense, the Department of Transportation, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the Federal Communications Commission, the Federal Power Commission, and other Federal agencies have jurisdiction or control over or information concerning the use, abandonment, or disposition of road ways, utility rights-of-way, or other properties which may be suitable for the purpose of improving or expanding the national trails system shall cooperate with the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of Agriculture in order to assure, to the extent practicable, that any such properties having values suitable for trail purposes may be made available for such use. (16 U.S.C. 1248)
AUTHORIZATION OF APPROPRIATIONS

Sec. 10. (a)(1) There are hereby authorized to be appropriated for the acquisition of lands or interests in lands not more than $5,000,000 for the Appalachian National Scenic Trail and not more than $500,000 for the Pacific Crest National Scenic Trail. From the appropriations authorized for fiscal year 1979 and succeeding fiscal years pursuant to the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act (78 Stat. 897), as amended, not more than the following amounts may be expended for the acquisition of lands and interests in lands authorized to be acquired pursuant to the provisions of this Act: for the Appalachian National Scenic Trail, not to exceed $30,000,000 for fiscal year 1979, $30,000,000 for fiscal year 1980, and $30,000,000 for fiscal year 1981, except that the difference between the foregoing amounts and the actual appropriations in any one fiscal year shall be available for appropriation in subsequent fiscal years.

(2) It is the express intent of the Congress that the Secretary should substantially complete the land acquisition program necessary to insure the protection of the Appalachian Trail within three complete fiscal years following the date of enactment of this sentence. Until the entire acquisition program is completed, he shall transmit in writing at the close of each fiscal year the following information to the Committee on Energy and Natural Resources of the Senate and to the Committee on Interior and Insular Affairs of the House of Representatives:
(A) the amount of land acquired during the fiscal year and the amount expended therefor;
(B) the estimated amount of land remaining to be acquired; and
(C) the amount of land planned for acquisition in the ensuing fiscal year and the estimated cost thereof.

(b) For the purposes of Public Law 95-42 (91 Stat. 211), the lands and interests therein acquired pursuant to this section shall be deemed to qualify for funding under the provisions of section 1, clause 2, of said Act.

(c)(1) There is hereby authorized to be appropriated such sums as may be necessary to implement the provisions of this Act relating to the trails designated by paragraphs 3(a)(3), (4), (5), (6), (7), (8), (9), and (10); Provided, That no such funds are authorized to be appropriated prior to October 1, 1978: And provided further, That notwithstanding any other provisions of this Act or any other provisions of law, no funds may be expended by Federal agencies for the acquisition of lands or interests in lands outside the exterior boundaries of existing Federal areas for the Continental Divide National Scenic Trail, the North Country National Scenic Trail, The Ice Age National Scenic Trail, the Oregon National Historic Trail, the Mormon Pioneer National Historic Trail, the Lewis and Clark National Historic Trail and the Iditarod National Historic Trail, except that funds may be expended for the acquisition of lands of interests therein for the purpose of providing for one trail interpretation site, as described in section 7(c), along with such trail in each State crossed by the trail.

(2) There is hereby authorized to be appropriated for fiscal year 1983 and subsequent fiscal years such sums as may be necessary to implement the provisions of this Act relating to the trails designated by paragraphs (9) through (13) of section 5(a) of this Act. Not more than $500,000 may be appropriated for the purposes of acquisition of land and interests therein for the trail designated by section (a)(12) of this Act, and not more than 32,000,000 may be appropriated for the purposes of the development of such trail. The administering agency for the trail shall encourage volunteer trail groups to participate in the development of the trail.

VOLUNTEER ASSISTANCE

Sec. 11. (a)(1) In addition to the cooperative agreement and other authorities contained in this Act, the Secretaries of the Interior, the Secretary of Agriculture, and the head of any Federal agency administering Federal lands, are authorized to encourage volunteers and volunteer organizations to plan, develop, maintain, and manage, where appropriate, trails throughout the Nation.

(b) Wherever appropriate in furtherance of the purposes of this Act, the Secretaries are authorized and encouraged to utilize the Volunteers in the Parks Act of 1969, the Volunteers in the Forests Act of 1972, and section 6 of the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965 (relating to the development of Statewide Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plans).

(c)(1) Each Secretary or the head of any Federal land managing agency, may assist volunteers and volunteer organizations in planning, developing, maintaining, and managing trails, Volunteer work may include, but need not be limited to:

(1) Planning, developing, maintaining, or managing (A) trails which are components of the national trails system, or (B) trails which, if so developed and maintained, could qualify for designation as components of the national trails system; or (2) operating programs to organize and supervise volunteer trail building efforts with respect to the trails referred to in paragraph (1), conducting trail-related research projects, or providing education and training to volunteers on methods of trails planning, construction, and maintenance.
(c) The appropriate Secretary or the head of any Federal land managing agency may utilize and make available Federal facilities, equipment, tools, and technical assistance to volunteers and volunteer organizations, subject to such limitations and restrictions as the appropriate Secretary or the head of any Federal land managing agency deems necessary or desirable.