

Ku Klux Klan in Tennessee

Standards: 5.23, 8.86

Essential question: What factors led to the rise of the Ku Klux Klan in Tennessee?

The Ku Klux Klan was formed in Pulaski, Tennessee between December 1865 and May 1866. Its founding members were six well educated former members of the Confederate army. They claimed that they originally intended the organization to be nothing more than a social club modeled on a popular fraternity. However, the organization quickly became something much more sinister: a **paramilitary** group that used violence and intimidation tactics on anyone who opposed their vision of a country ruled by white men.

The name Ku Klux was derived from the Greek word Kuklos meaning “circle” and “klan” was added for alliterative value. Following the fraternity tradition, the men developed secret signals and codes for passing messages. They created coded titles like Grand Cyclops (president) and Night Hawks (messengers) and rituals including **hazing** of new members. The original six then donned some sheets with holes cut out for the eyes and began riding around the countryside crashing parties and playing practical jokes. As others became aware of the group, membership grew and new clubs or dens were created in surrounding counties.

According to John Lester, one of the original Klansmen, the men only gradually realized that they could use their costumes and anonymity to frighten African-Americans. However, some historians find this story doubtful. They believe that the group had intimidation of African Americans as its main purpose from the beginning. The 1866 Civil Rights Act had declared African Americans to have the same rights as whites. As former Confederates and members of the upper class, the men must have found this frustrating. Racial tensions were rising all over the state. A buggy accident in Memphis involving one white and one African American driver led to a riot that killed 46 African Americans and two whites. The Memphis Race Riots of May 1866 may have been the real motivation for founding the organization.

The group began patrolling roads and whipping African Americans who travelled at night. They also began collecting information about white Republicans and African Americans who were politically active. As former Confederates, the men could not vote in Tennessee elections, but they could harass and intimidate anyone who dared to vote for policies they opposed. In 1867, Klan members from all around the state met in Nashville. They revised and refined their rules, wrote a constitution called the Prescript and devised an organizational system for spreading new dens throughout the south. The “Invisible Empire,” as they now called themselves selected Nathan Bedford Forrest as their new Grand Wizard or leader.

Nathan Bedford Forrest was a former slave trader and Confederate general. During the Civil War Forrest was known as the “Wizard of the Saddle”. It is likely that the title “Grand

Wizard” was derived from this nickname. Forrest was responsible for the 1864 Fort Pillow Massacre in which both Unionists and Black Federal Troops were slaughtered. Forrest’s name drew even more former Confederates to the organization. While the organization claimed to be selective, many poor white men claimed to have been forced to join. They were threatened with fines and beatings if they did not participate.

This “social club” quickly became an instrument of terror throughout the South. African Americans who defied social norms by looking white men in the eye, speaking to white women or doing anything that demonstrated pride were considered “uppity” and subject to abuse from the Klan. African Americans who enjoyed economic success were especially vulnerable to the **vigilante justice** handed out by the Klan. George Taylor had amassed 60 acres and two mules before the Klan broke into his home in the middle of the night. They dragged him outside where they whipped him until his backbone was visible through his wounds. Taylor and his family were forced to abandon their farm and possessions, a loss of about \$500.

In Tennessee, Klansmen increasingly targeted Radical Republicans as well as politically active African Americans. On August 12, 1868 a group of six masked men approached Lewis Powell’s home in Hickman County. Powell was a member of the Black Union League. Powell hid in the woods as the men advanced. The men asked Powell’s wife for food. When she told them that her family was poor and had none to spare, the men opened fire killing her. They rode off as Powell ran back to find his wife dead. Governor Brownlow tried to destroy the Klan by using the State Guard to catch klansmen. However, the attempt was unsuccessful. When the guard appeared, the klansmen simply ceased their activities until the guard was called elsewhere and then they promptly resumed.

Frustrated with the State Guard’s lack of success, Brownlow hired a private detective named Seymour Barmore to infiltrate the Klan. Barmore managed to get admitted to a den, but was later heard bragging about breaking up the Klan. A message was relayed to Klansmen in Maury County who boarded the train Barmore was on and kidnapped him. Barmore’s body was recovered six weeks later. The Klan had sent a message: anyone who crossed them would die.

As the organization grew, its ties with the Democratic Party grew as well. In Tennessee, Conservative Republicans and former Confederate Democrats were able to reclaim control of the legislature. When a new state constitution was put to a vote in 1870, Klansmen made sure that both African American and white voters voted for it or were too scared to vote at all. The ratification of the 1870 Constitution and the election of John C. Brown, a former Confederate general and Klansmen, meant that the Ku Klux Klan would continue to terrorize the state for many years to come.

Paramilitary- a group organized like an army, but not a part of the official armed forces

Hazing- activities involving harassment, abuse and/or humiliation as a way of initiating a person into a group

Vigilante justice- occurs when a group with no legal authority enforces their own rules on the local population. While the word justice is part of the term, the actions are rarely just or fair to the victims

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Tennessee's Constitutional Convention of 1870 and African-American Legislators

Standards: 5.24, 8.90, U.S.2

Essential Question: What events led to Tennessee's Constitutional Convention of 1870 and the election of African-Americans to the General Assembly?

To understand the roots of the Constitutional Convention of 1870, one must look back to Tennessee's Civil War experience beginning with the fight over secession. Once South Carolina seceded in December 1860, Tennesseans were roughly divided into three camps. The first camp wanted to secede whole-heartedly. The second camp wanted to remain in the Union at any cost. The third group wanted to remain in the Union, but they did not want to force other states like South Carolina to remain in the Union if they wanted out. When the question of secession was first put to voters in February 1861, 69,000 voted to remain in the Union while 58,000 voted for secession. After the Battle of Fort Sumter and President Lincoln's call for 75,000 troops, many Tennesseans in the third group changed their minds. A second vote on secession in June 1861 resulted in 105,000 votes for secession and only 47,000 against. Thus, Tennessee became the last state to join the Confederacy.

The majority of Unionists lived in East Tennessee. William "Parson" Brownlow and Andrew Johnson were two key leaders of the movement. The unionists wanted to form a separate state as West Virginia had done, but this was never accomplished. Instead, they settled down to endure four years of ruthless guerilla warfare in which they were sometimes the victims and sometimes the perpetrators of brutally violent acts. Ironically, Middle and West Tennessee, where most of the secessionists lived, quickly came under Federal control. President Lincoln appointed Andrew Johnson, the loyal Unionist, military governor. In an effort to bring order to Tennessee, Johnson ruled with an iron hand. His harsh mandates left many of the moderate unionists feeling betrayed. Emancipation was an especially tricky issue in Tennessee. Many unionists including the very vocal Brownlow opposed emancipation. In fact, Johnson asked Lincoln to exclude Tennessee from the Emancipation Proclamation because he feared that do otherwise would drive many Tennesseans into the arms of the Confederacy.

When Johnson left Tennessee to assume his duties as vice-president, he was replaced by William Brownlow. Brownlow was able to push ratification of the 14th amendment through the legislature and ensure that Tennessee would be the first Confederate state to rejoin the Union. Brownlow was many things, but a compromiser was not one of them. Instead of trying to reunite former Confederates (Democrats) and Unionists (Republicans) he drove them further apart with two laws. The first stripped voting rights from former Confederates in order to keep the Republicans in power. The second granted African Americans the right to vote. Voting rights or

enfranchisement of African Americans angered many Conservative Republicans as well. A split developed in the Republican Party between the Radicals and Conservatives.

It is not coincidental that the Ku Klux Klan was founded in Pulaski, Tennessee in 1865, the same year that Brownlow took office. Former Confederates who found themselves locked out of political power could not bear to see African American men voting when they could not. The Klan quickly evolved into a terrorist organization that used violence and threats of violence to intimidate voters and control the outcome of elections. Brownlow responded by sending out state troops to capture Klansmen, but they were largely unsuccessful in breaking up the group. When the state guard appeared, the klansmen stopped their activities until the guard left. The state already had massive debts from the war and could not afford to maintain the state guard. Once the guard was gone, the Klansmen returned to terrorizing the countryside.

In 1869, Brownlow left his post as governor to assume his duties as United States Senator. DeWitt Clinton Senter, Brownlow's successor, assumed the governorship. Senter eased the voting restrictions that Brownlow had put in place on Conservative Republican voters. The Conservative Republicans favored granting suffrage to former Confederates. In order to gain the support of Conservative Republicans, Senter agreed. He appointed election commissioners who allowed more Conservatives and former Confederates to vote. The former Confederates (Democrats) saw this as their path back to political power. The former Confederates began running candidates in legislative races across the state. By 1870, the former Confederates had enough seats in the legislative branch to call for a constitutional convention.

The new constitution did not disenfranchise African American voters as many of the legislators wanted, but it did completely restore voting rights to former Confederates. At a practical level there was no need to anger the federal government by denying African American voting rights on paper when the Ku Klux Klan was doing it more effectively with violence. The new constitution also contained a number of other provisions designed to weaken the power of the Radical Republicans. The constitution was overwhelmingly approved by voters in March. In November of 1870 John C. Brown was elected governor of Tennessee. Brown was a Democrat, former Confederate and member of the Ku Klux Klan. His election signaled end of the Reconstruction era in Tennessee. The experiences of African-American legislators in the General Assembly show Tennessee's movement towards segregation and disenfranchisement.

In 1872, the first African American, Sampson Keeble was elected to represent Davidson County in the 38th General Assembly. Keeble served only one term. Between 1872 and 1887, thirteen other African Americans were elected to the Tennessee General Assembly. After 1887, no other African Americans were elected until A.W. Willis, who was elected in 1965.

The African Americans who served in the Tennessee General Assembly in the 19th century had a number of things in common. Nine of the men represented counties in southwest Tennessee (Shelby, Fayette, Haywood and Tipton counties). The others represented Davidson,

Hamilton and Montgomery counties. Eleven of the fourteen were born into slavery. Four were attorneys, four were teachers and seven attended college. Three of the representatives attended Fisk University, including Greene E. Evans who was part of the earliest group of Fisk Jubilee Singers.

Another commonality was the lack of success these men had in preventing the passage of **Jim Crow laws** in Tennessee. In 1875, just after Sampson Keeble's term ended, Tennessee passed its first Jim Crow law. The 1875 law, Chapter 130 Acts of Tennessee, allowed discrimination in hotels, trains, theaters and most other public places. Under the law, business owners could simply refuse service to anyone they choose. If patron complained, he or she could be fined up to \$100. A number of the African Americans who served in the General Assembly introduced bills to overturn or amend Chapter 130 and similar laws, but were unsuccessful. Only Styles Hutchins (Rep. Hamilton County) had any success in passing legislation. His bills to abolish the poll tax in Chattanooga and to prevent criminals from other states from testifying in Tennessee courts were successful. In general, any legislation proposed by Tennessee's African American legislators that aimed to protect the rights granted by the 13th, 14th and 15th amendments failed.

After the end of Reconstruction, Tennessee's African American legislators faced increasing pressure from violent groups of racist whites. David Rivers represented Fayette County from 1883-1884. He was reelected in 1885, but was prevented from taking his seat when a mob of prejudiced whites drove him from Fayette County. While running for a fourth term in 1888, Samuel McElwee was targeted by white separatists in Haywood County. Armed mobs terrorized African American voters. Local officials deliberately miscounted and misreported votes to prevent McElwee from serving another term. McElwee and his family were forced to flee Haywood County and barely escaped with their lives. Like many of the other former legislators, McElwee eventually left Tennessee. The 46th General Assembly (1889-1890) was the first since 1872 to not have any African American legislators. The 46th General Assembly passed a statewide **poll tax** designed to greatly reduce the number of African American voters. The poll tax also meant that it would be 75 years before another African American would serve in Tennessee's General Assembly.

Jim Crow laws- laws that legalized the segregation of African-Americans and whites. The laws are named after a character from a popular traveling show in the late 1800's. The Jim Crow character, played by a white actor in black face make-up, portrayed African-Americans as stupid, brutish and completely inferior to whites.

Poll tax – tax paid by voters at the polling place on election day. Poll taxes became common in the South after the Civil War as a way to keep African-Americans from voting. Discrimination forced many African-Americans into low paying jobs which made it impossible to pay the tax.

Source: Hardy, William Edward, "'Fare well to all Radicals': Redeeming Tennessee, 1869-1870." PhD diss., University of Tennessee, 2013.<http://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_graddiss/2432>

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1878 Memphis Yellow Fever Epidemic

Standards: 5.26, 8.90, US.2

Essential Question: What factors contributed to the high death rate during the 1878 Memphis yellow fever epidemic?

“Yellow Jack,” as yellow fever was sometimes called, had plagued the United States from its earliest days. An outbreak in Philadelphia in 1793 had nearly stopped the new nation in its tracks as Washington, Jefferson and Adams fled the city to avoid the disease. Alexander Hamilton, who had contracted the disease, was banned from entering New York City out of fear that he would trigger an epidemic there.

Yellow fever is a virus spread by the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito. The virus operates by entering healthy cells and then using the cell’s components to replicate until the cell bursts. The process is repeated until the host either begins to recover or dies. The first symptom is usually a severe headache followed by a fever that can climb to 105 degrees. The pulse slows and the intestines and kidneys begin to shut down. Stomach cramps and body aches from severe dehydration come next. Many patients then seem to recover and ask for food. Strangely, those cases are almost always fatal. The cramps return and then become convulsions. As patients die, their livers release bile which turns their skin and the whites of their eyes yellow and gives the disease its name. Yellow fever emerged as a killer of humans in the steamy jungles of West Africa. Over thousands of years, people living in West Africa developed some immunity to the disease, by enduring repeated outbreaks. However, Europeans had no such immunity.

The slave trade brought yellow fever to North America where it found an abundance of potential victims among both Native Americans and Europeans. In the 1700’s it was the port cities of New York, Boston and Philadelphia that suffered the worst outbreaks. But as the slave trade shifted south, so too did Yellow Jack. He would make a new home for himself in Memphis.

Memphis was created following the Jackson Purchase in 1819. The city grew slowly until 1832 when the further land cessions by the Chickasaw opened up thousands of acres of prime cotton land in northern Mississippi. Memphis became the cotton capital of the south. During the Civil War, Memphis fell under Union control but the enterprising businessmen of Memphis did not allow that to interfere with commerce. Many of the Northerners who passed through Memphis during the war returned there after the war to take advantage of business opportunities. They were joined by thousands of immigrants, many of them Irish. By 1870, Memphis was the second largest city in the South.

The 1878 outbreak began in Havana, Cuba where ships from West Africa transported mosquitoes along with their cargo. It is thought that the virus of 1878 was a new strain, not seen

in North America before. The crew of the *Emily B. Souder* became infected in Havana and brought the virus to New Orleans. Ships were regularly inspected by quarantine officers before being allowed to make port. However, the captain of the *Souder* convinced the quarantine officer that his men were suffering from hangovers, not yellow fever. The ship was allowed to pass bringing its deadly cargo into the United States.

Effective quarantine was Memphis' most important defense against yellow fever. It failed in 1878 because yellow fever and quarantine were bad for business. When the Memphis Board of Health met to discuss the possibility of quarantine, they were hampered by the lack of reliable evidence from New Orleans. Officials there were keeping the outbreak quiet so that trade was not interrupted. In Memphis, the decision to quarantine the city was overturned by public outcry to keep the river trade flowing. By the time the decision was reversed on July 27, Yellow Jack had already made his appearance.

Once the outbreak became public knowledge, the wealthy fled the city in droves leaving the poor to survive however they could. As the fever spread, the doctors and nurses that remained in Memphis were overwhelmed by the numbers of patients. With no effective treatment for the disease, doctors and nurses could do little for their patients. Entire families perished as the fever swept through the city. At the height of the epidemic, 17,000 of the 19,000 people in the city were sick. Despite President Hayes' estimation of the crisis as "greatly exaggerated," hundreds of doctors, nurses and ministers bravely volunteered to care for the sick. Many of them also contracted the illness and died. The sisters of St. Mary's Cathedral worked tirelessly to care for the sick during the epidemic. The nuns and priests of St. Mary's who died during the epidemic are known as the Martyrs of Memphis.

The epidemic finally ended in October when a hard frost finally broke the breeding cycle of the mosquitoes. By then over 5,000 people had died in Memphis. The mortality rates for yellow fever varied widely according to race. Among African Americans the mortality rate was 8 percent, but among whites 70 percent of the people who fell sick died. Among the Irish immigrant community, the mortality rate was even higher.

The 1878 yellow fever epidemic had long lasting effects on Memphis. Families were fractured by the epidemic. Ida B. Wells became head of her family after losing her parents to the epidemic. Many of Memphis' intellectual and cultural elite decided not to return. Immigrants, who had suffered so terribly during the epidemic, also did not return. Increasingly, Memphis was populated by African Americans and poor whites from rural areas. The epidemic also led the city fathers to build an innovative sewer system that reduced the number of ditches and privies in which the mosquitoes could breed. Memphis would never again suffer through a visit from Yellow Jack.

Source: Crosby, Molly Caldwell. *The American Plague: The Untold Story of Yellow Fever, The Epidemic That Shaped Our History*. New York: Berkley Books. 2006. Print.

George Jordan, Pap Singleton and Westward Migration

Standards: 5.32, 8.89, 8.92, U.S. 3

Essential Question: What factors led African-Americans including George Jordan and Pap Singleton to migrate west following the Civil War?

The end of Civil War and the passage of the 13th, 14th and 15th amendments meant increase opportunities for African-Americans in the South. However, the rise of Jim Crow laws such as Tennessee's Chapter 130, made it increasingly difficult for African-Americans to achieve economic or social equality with their white neighbors. As a result, many African-Americans sought better opportunities in the West. Tennessean Benjamin "Pap" Singleton encouraged so many African Americans to move west that he is known as "Father of the Exodus."

Singleton was born a slave in Nashville in 1809. He worked as a cabinet maker until he was sold into the Deep South. He escaped slavery and went to Canada and then moved to Detroit. In Detroit, he ran a boarding house that provided shelter to fugitive slaves. Following the Civil War, Singleton returned to Nashville and again worked as a carpenter.

Singleton believed that land ownership was the key to the economic, political and social independence. Singleton tried and failed to buy land in Tennessee in the 1860's. Singleton encountered many African-American families who lost their homes when their landlords turned them out. African Americans also faced violence from the Ku Klux Klan as well as discrimination institutionalized by the black codes. Singleton began to encourage families to form independent communities in the west. The people who moved west were called "Exodusters" because they believed that the dusty lands of the west would be their promised land. The term is a play on the biblical term Exodus which described the journey of the Jews after they were freed from slavery in Egypt.

Singleton began to investigate the possibility of forming a colony in Kansas. Singleton sent men to study the possibility and determined that for African American families to relocate to Kansas it would cost about \$1000. Most southern blacks were very poor and could not afford the journey. A few did relocate to Cherokee County, Kansas, but were mostly unsuccessful. Land was just too expensive. Many of the settlers were forced to become sharecroppers or day laborers.

Singleton learned from his mistakes and formed the Freedman's Aid Association to provide educational opportunities for African Americans. In 1878, Singleton turned his attention to central Kansas. The 1862 Homestead Act had made land in that part of the territory much more affordable. In 1877, African Americans founded the Nicodemus Colony in central Kansas. Singleton is credited with bringing over 20,000 African American migrants to Kansas. Later,

Singleton backed plans for African American emigration to Cyprus and Africa that did not succeed. Singleton died in Kansas City, Missouri on February 17, 1900.

Another Tennessean who sought opportunities in the West was George Jordan. Jordan was born into slavery in Williamson County Tennessee around 1849. After emancipation, Jordan traveled to Nashville and enlisted in the U.S. Army on Christmas Day, 1866. The army offered African Americans food, shelter and some medical benefits. Jordan transferred to the 9th Cavalry in 1870 and served for 26 years. He was promoted to corporal in 1874 and sergeant in 1879. He also learned to read and write during this time period.

The 9th Cavalry was one of four segregated units formed after the Civil War. The 10th Cavalry, 24th and 25th infantry were also units made up of African American soldiers commanded by white officers. These units came to be known as “The Buffalo Soldiers.” The nickname was probably given by the Cheyenne who thought that the soldiers’ hair looked like the fur between the horns of a buffalo. The nickname was a term of praise and respect because buffalo were highly revered by Native Americans on the Great Plains. It also referred to the fighting ability of the soldiers. The term first appeared in print in 1873 in a letter from a frontier army wife to magazine. Describing the 10th Cavalry she wrote, “*The officers say that the Negroes make good soldiers and fight like fiends ... the Indians call them 'buffalo soldiers' because their woolly heads are so much like the matted cushion that is between the horns of the buffalo.*”

On May 14, 1880, Jordan was in command of a group of 25 men who stopped an attack on Fort Tularosa by a force of more than 100 Apaches. In 1881, Jordan and a group of 19 men held back an attack from an extremely exposed position in Carrizo Canyon. Their bravery prevented the enemy from surrounding the command. On May 7, 1890, George Jordan was awarded the Medal of Honor for his bravery at Fort Tularosa. He also received a Certificate of Merit for Carrizo Canyon.

In 1896 at Fort Robinson, Jordan retired and joined a community of other buffalo soldier veterans in Crawford, Nebraska. Jordan became a successful land owner. However, Jordan’s success as a soldier and landowner did not spare him from the injustices of a segregated America. Jordan was denied the right to vote. In 1904, Jordan became ill and tried to seek medical care at the Fort Robinson’s hospital. Jordan, the Medal of Honor Recipient, was denied care. He was told to try the Soldier’s Hospital in Washington D.C. George Jordan died on October 19, 1904. The chaplain for Fort Robinson filed an official complaint stating that he died “died for the want of proper attention.” Jordan was buried in the Fort Robinson cemetery with full military honors.

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Mining, Railroads and Industrialization

Standard: 5.27

Essential Questions: What industries were important in Tennessee's industrialization after the Civil War?

Following the Civil War, Tennessee entered into a period of industrialization. This was due in part to the damage the war had done to Tennessee's economy. It was also due to investments from people outside of Tennessee. Many Northerners had been in Tennessee during the Civil War and saw opportunities for investing after the war was over. Northerners who moved South after the war to take advantage of business opportunities were called "carpetbaggers." Many of the investors carried their belongings in satchels made from heavy weight carpet like fabric.

One of the first industries to be developed after the war was railroads. A number of important railroad lines ran through Tennessee before the war. Because of the strategic importance of railroads, many of them had been either deliberately or accidentally damaged during the war. After the war, Tennessee's railroads were repaired and new ones were built. The growth of railroads was a key factor in the growth of other industries, especially coal mining.

Coal had been mined in the Cumberland Plateau region before the Civil War. By the 1850's coal was replacing wood as the fuel of choice in homes and industries. After the war, Tennessee's railroads expanded and so did coal production. Another factor that helped Tennessee's coal mining industry grow was the convict labor system. Though the 13th amendment outlawed slavery, a clause in the amendment allowed people convicted of crimes or convicts to be forced to work during their prison term. Tennessee, like many other states, rented out convicts to mining companies and other industries. The state earned revenue from the rental and the mining company gained a cheap source of labor. Many of the convict laborers were African Americans who were often accused of crimes and unfairly convicted just to add laborers to the system. Convict laborers were treated horribly and many died due to dangerous conditions in the mines. The low cost of labor allowed mining companies to sell their coal more cheaply than coal from the North. The era of convict labor ended in Tennessee in response to the actions of free miners in an event known as the Coal Creek War.

Mining companies set up company towns for their workers. Most miners and their families lived in company owned houses, worshipped in company owned churches and shopped in the overpriced company store. Many companies did not pay their miners using American currency. The company created its own money called script. Script was only accepted in the company store, so miners were forced to pay high prices for goods. These conditions, along with dangerous working conditions in the mines, eventually led to strikes and the introduction of labor unions.

The increase in railroads also helped other industries grow. Coke, a byproduct of coal, was used as fuel in the iron smelting process. The railroads provided easy access to coke which allowed the iron industry to grow as well. Railroads made transportation easier for people as well as products.

Tennessee's cities also began to grow during this time period. As cities grew, people had more money to spend on luxury products.

One product that benefited from increased luxury spending was Coca-Cola. Coca-Cola was invented in 1882 by an Atlanta pharmacist named Dr. John S. Pemberton. Pemberton sold the rights to Coca-Cola to Asa Chandler who expanded the product to soda fountains outside Atlanta. In 1899, three young lawyers from Chattanooga, Benjamin Thomas, Joseph Whitehead and John Lupton bought the rights to bottle Coca-Cola for one dollar. The three men divided up the country into regions and sold bottling rights to local businessmen. By 1909, there were more than 400 Coca-Cola bottling plants around the country.

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1897 Centennial Exposition

Standard: 5.38

*Essential Questions: What was the purpose of the 1897 Centennial Exposition?
How did it impact the state?*

Following the Civil War, the United States experienced a period of industrialization and modernization. New technologies, including motion pictures were created. Americans were eager to show off their achievements to the rest of the world. The 1889 Exposition Universelle in Paris demonstrated to the world that a world's fair could serve as both an expression of national pride and as source of income for the host city. In the United States, World's Fairs were held in Chicago in 1893 and St. Louis in 1904. Those fairs drew millions of visitors to the host cities and were the model for Tennessee's Exposition.

The Centennial Exposition was planned as a celebration of Tennessee's first 100 years of statehood which occurred in 1796. However, due to a recession and disagreements among the divisions of the state, the fair was held a year late. Railroad companies were enthusiastic supporters of the fair. They sponsored special exhibits, offered discount fares and promoted the fair in advertising. The companies viewed the fair as an opportunity to bring potential investors to the state.

The fair followed the model set by the Chicago World's Fair. The event was held in a park like setting which was created for the event. Temporary buildings built in the classical style of ancient Greece held the exhibits. Nashville was known as the "Athens of the South" so a full scale replica of the Parthenon was built to serve as the exhibit hall for the arts. Memphis contributed a replica of the Great Pyramid of Cheops. Other classically styled buildings housed exhibits on agriculture, industry and education. A separate building called the Negro Building housed exhibits relating to African-American history. The log building known as the State Capitol of the State of Franklin was also dismantled, transported to Nashville and reassembled as an exhibit.

The fair also had a section called Vanity Fair which featured rides and games. The centerpiece was a giant see-saw. The see-saw was 75 feet long and lifted 20 passenger cars into the air for a view of the city. The see-saw did not capture the imagination of fairgoers the way the Eiffel Tower or Ferris Wheel had and therefore did not become the symbol of the fair. The full- scale replica of the Parthenon became the image of the fair.

The Centennial Exposition did not meet the expectations of the fair's creators. The fair ran for six months and had over 7.1 million people attend. However, this was much smaller than the expected attendance. The fairs in St. Louis and Chicago had crowds of 20-30 million. The smaller crowds may have been caused by lingering economic worries and an outbreak of yellow

fever along the southeast coast. For whatever reason, Tennessee's Centennial Exposition did not capture the national imagination the way that previous fairs had. Following the close of the fair, the temporary buildings were dismantled and the area returned to being parkland. Interestingly, the State of Franklin capital building was somehow lost and never returned to its original site in Greeneville. However, the fair remained a source of pride for Nashvillians. The Parthenon, the most popular building of the fair, was rebuilt in the 1920's using permanent materials. It remains the centerpiece of Centennial Park and continues to draw visitors from around the country and around the world.

Source: "Tennessee Centennial Exposition." *Tennessee Virtual Archive*. Tennessee State Library and Archives, n.d. Web. 21 July 2014.

<http://teva.contentdm.oclc.org/cdm/landingpage/collection/Centennial>

Coal Creek War

Standards: US. 15

Essential Questions: What factors led to the Cold Creek War? What was the outcome of the Cold Creek War?

After the Civil War southern states found themselves in debt. Several states decided to raise funds by leasing convicts as workers to industrialists and mining companies. The revenue from convict leasing programs became a significant part of southern state budgets. The state of Tennessee took full advantage of the convict leasing system.

A labor dispute erupted in 1891 at the Tennessee Coal Mining company in Briceville. Coal miners in Tennessee at this time were usually not union members but they would strike if conditions warranted. At first it seemed the miners and the company worked out their differences. The miners went back to work, but problems still existed. Again the miners walked out; this time a compromise could not be reached causing the miners to go on strike.

Mine owners leased convicts from the state to replace the striking miners. Mine owners said the convicts were “a class of labor that could be depended upon”. Also if a convict was injured or died the state would send a replacement at no cost to the mining company. Everyone seemed satisfied except the striking miners. The first action by the miners was not violent. A large number of miners surrounded the convicts stockade and forced the guards to surrender. The miners marched the guards and convicts to the train station, put them on the train, and sent them to Knoxville.

Governor John Buchanan called out the state militia and led the convicts back to Briceville. The governor met with the miners in Coal Creek and Briceville but nothing was settled. The governor returned to Nashville leaving the militia behind with the convicts. There were more negotiations, but no compromise was reached. The miners took up arms and once again surrounded the stockade, trapping the convicts along with the state militia. The state militia found themselves outnumbered so they surrendered. Once again the miners took the convicts and the militia to the train and sent them to Knoxville.

The conflict escalated and in 1892 the governor sent the Tennessee National Guard in substantial numbers. The troops built a defensive structure named it Fort Anderson complete with cannon. Construction of the fort made it possible for the troops to fire into the town of Coal Creek. The miners escalated their efforts against the troops. The strike spread to Oliver Springs, Tracy City, and Inman.

At the beginning of this conflict, most of the general public in Tennessee was against the miners or at least indifferent to their plight. But as time passed and people learned of the miners' conditions and the situation they faced, public sentiment changed. One message sent by the miners to the governor stated, “We struggle for the right to earn bread by honest labor, and...we are opposed to that system of labor that may be involved to our degradation”. Governor Buchanan seemed to have difficulties handling the situation causing members of his own party to

turn against him. Buchanan lost his party's nomination for governor. The new governor, Peter Turney, along with the state legislature abolished Tennessee's convict lease system in 1893.

Several miners were arrested and put on trial but only two; P B Monroe and S A Moore were convicted. Neither Monroe nor Moore served over a year in prison. The Coal Creek War was over. Because of the actions of the miners in the Coal Creek area, the convict leasing system was abolished in Tennessee and other southern states followed Tennessee's lead.

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<<http://www.coalcreekaml.com/Legacy.htm>>

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Ida B. Wells

Standards: 5.41, U.S. 36

Essential Question: How did Ida B. Wells bring attention to the injustices of segregation and lynching?

Ida B. Wells was born a slave in Holly Springs Mississippi on July 16, 1862. Following emancipation, Wells' father, James, worked as a skilled carpenter in the Holly Spring Community. He and his wife Elizabeth had a total of eight children. James and Elizabeth encouraged all their children to attend school. In 1878, yellow fever swept through the Holly Springs community. James, Elizabeth and their youngest child died from the disease. Wells, the eldest, was only sixteen. She refused to allow her siblings to be separated. Instead, she found work teaching in a rural school to support her family. Ida was also able to attend college during this period.

In 1884, Wells accepted a position as a teacher in the community of Woodstock. Wells purchased a ticket for the ladies car of the Chesapeake, Ohio and Southwestern Railroad in order to make the journey to her new job. Once on the train the conductor demanded that she give up her seat in the first class car and move to the smokers' car. Wells refused and eventually authorities forcibly removed her from the train.

Wells filed a lawsuit against the railroad based on the Civil Rights Act of 1875. She won her case and was awarded \$500, but the ruling was reversed by the Tennessee State Supreme Court. The failure of the lawsuit inspired Wells to begin a career in journalism.

Wells began her career as a journalist by writing articles for local African American newspapers. Eventually she was able to purchase a share of a local paper called *Free Speech and Headlight*. After writing an article critical of the Memphis school board's unequal funding for African American schools, Wells lost her teaching job. She then became a full time journalist.

In 1892, an incident occurred in Memphis that changed the course of Wells life. A white man attempted to disrupt the business of a grocery store owned by three African American men, Thomas Moss, Calvin McDowell and Henry Stewart. When the men attempted to protect their business, a fight broke out in which a white deputy sheriff was killed. The three men were arrested, but before a trial could be held a mob dragged them from jail and lynched them. Wells was outraged by the incident and bought a gun for protection stating that "one had better die fighting against injustice than to die like a dog or a rat in a trap." Wells urged African Americans to leave Memphis and took on the issue of lynching in hard hitting editorials. She argued lynching was a way to get rid of successful and politically active African Americans. She further argued that the "thread-bare lie" of rape of a white woman was simply an excuse used to justify violence against African American men. Wells' suggestion that white women were sexually

attracted to African American men outraged white Memphians and led to the destruction of her newspaper office. Wells was not in Memphis at the time and decided to relocate to New York.

In New York, she intensified her anti-lynching campaign her lecturing and publishing a number of articles and pamphlets including *Southern Horrors: Lynch Law in All Its Phases* in 1892. Wells traveled extensively during this period.

In 1895, Wells married Ferdinand Barnett a prominent Chicago attorney. She continued her career as a journalist writing a number of articles critical of Booker T. Washington and W.E.B DuBois. Wells was also a supporter of Marcus Garvey and the Black Nationalist movement. As Wells views became increasingly militant, she was branded a radical by the Secret Service.

Wells was active in many social and political causes. She supported the suffrage movement and desegregated the National American Woman Suffrage Association's parade in Washington D.C. when she refused to join the African American delegates who were told to march in the back of the parade. She also worked with Jane Addams to prevent segregation in Chicago's public schools.

However, stopping lynching remained the focus of her life's work. She covered the 1918 race riots in East St, Louis for the *Chicago Defender*. In 1922, Wells investigated the murder of twelve African American farmers in Elaine Arkansas. She raised money to publish and distribute the results of her investigation.

Wells continued her work for social justice into the last years of her life. Wells began her autobiography *Crusade for Justice: The Autobiography of Ida B. Wells* in 1928. Ida B. Wells died on March 25, 1931 at the age of sixty-nine.

Sources: Black, Patti. "Ida B. Wells: A Courageous Voice for Civil Rights." *History Now*. Mississippi Historical Society, 2014. Web. 21 July 2014.
<<http://mshistorynow.mdah.state.ms.us/articles/49/ida-b-wells-a-courageous-voice-for-civil-rights>>

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Randolph Miller

Standards: 5.41

Essential Question: How did Randolph Miller bring attention to the inequalities of segregation?

Randolph Miller was born into slavery in Georgia. He was emancipated On June 9, 1864 when General Sherman's army entered Newton County, Georgia. Miller moved to Chattanooga and found a job operating the printing press for the Chattanooga Gazette. Miller moved to Virginia for a while, but returned to Chattanooga and took a job with the Chattanooga Times. In 1898, Miller started his own newspaper called the Weekly Blade.

As editor, Miller was an outspoken opponent of segregation in Tennessee. In 1905, Tennessee passed a law that segregated public transportation in Tennessee. In response, Miller and other African American leaders in Chattanooga organized a boycott of streetcars. In one of his 1905 editorials Miller said, "*They have taken our part of the library; they have moved our school to the frog pond; they have passed the Jim Crow law; they have knocked us out of the jury box; they have played the devil generally; and what in thunder will they do no one knows.*"

After years of struggle, Miller suffered from poor health which forced him to stop publication of the Weekly Blade. Miller was reported to be eighty-six when he died in 1916.

Source: "Randolph Miller." *Tennessee Encyclopedia and History and Culture* 1st edition. 1998. Print.

Clarence Saunders

Standard: U. S. 32

Essential Question: What influence did Clarence Saunders have on food purchasing and retail marketing?

Clarence Saunders was born in 1881 in Virginia. His parents were very poor. The Saunders family soon moved to Montgomery County, Tennessee where Saunders grew up. He took a job working for a wholesale grocer in Clarksville. In his early 20's Clarence Saunders moved to Memphis and took a sales position in a Memphis grocery. He enjoyed the work, but disliked the inefficiency of the sales methods used in grocery stores of the day.

Grocery stores placed items on shelves with counters between the customers and the sales items. Shoppers would tell store clerks standing behind the counters what they wanted and the clerks would pull it off the shelves. The process took a long time and led Saunders to develop the idea of self-service. The idea of self-service was not entirely new but Clarence Saunders was the man who was instrumental in selling the idea to the consumer. With his more modern approach to grocery sales Clarence Saunders opened his first store September 11, 1916.

Piggly Wiggly stores opened with the idea of self-service and lower costs for the consumer. When asked where he got the name for the store, Saunders told people he chose the name so that people would ask that very question. It was a marketing tool to build interest. By 1917, Saunders was selling franchises and in 1923 the Piggly Wiggly chain was the 3rd largest retail grocery in the nation with 1,268 stores. Soon, Piggly Wiggly stock was being traded on the New York Stock Exchange.

Later Saunders tried to corner Piggly Wiggly stock by setting up a shell company and buying as much Piggly Wiggly stock as possible. When this was discovered, Saunders was forced out of Piggly Wiggly and had to reimburse stockholders. This caused Saunders to lose millions and he declared bankruptcy. But soon Saunders was reinventing the wheel again.

Clarence Saunders saw the need for more innovation in grocery sales. He soon opened a chain of stores called Sole Owner Stores. Clarence Saunders now added meat departments, delis, and bakeries to his stores. The Sole Owner Stores did well until the Great Depression when Saunders lost the stores due to the economy. Clarence Saunders is truly the Father of the modern supermarket.

Again Clarence Saunders made an attempt to innovate grocery sales by developing his Keedoozle Stores. The Keedoozle was an attempt to have groceries sold entirely by automation. The Keedoozle was like a large vending machine where customers would insert keys into slots to have the product dropped to a conveyer belt. The product would then be moved to a checkout center. Often the products would be damaged upon arrival at the check-out counter. The Keedoozle never operated profitably. Saunders's ideas were ahead of his time.

Clarence Saunders died October 15, 1953 having made and lost two fortunes. Through his ideas and innovations Clarence Saunders influenced the way the American public purchases groceries and there are still Piggly Wiggly stores open and selling groceries today.

Sources: "Clarence Saunders." *Tennessee Encyclopedia and History and Culture* 1st edition. 1998. Print.

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<http://www.newhaven.edu/98630.pdf>>

Radio, WSM and the Grand Ole Opry

Standards: 5.47, U.S. 44

Essential Questions: Why was WSM created? What factors led to the popularity of the Grand Ole Opry?

The history of WSM and the Grand Ole Opry starts in the early days of radio. Nikola Tesla realized that the key to making radio waves work as a form of communication was individualization. In other words, you needed to be able to select the signal you wanted to hear and cancel out the rest. Italian Guglielmo Marconi used Tesla's ideas to create and market his Wireless Telegraph Company. At first, the U.S. Patent Office rejected Marconi's patent claims, but later reversed that decision and granted the patents to Marconi in 1904. This set the stage for American corporations to start building and selling radio to the public.

In order to boost sales of radios, Westinghouse set up the first commercial radio station, KDKA in 1920. Department stores soon followed suite, setting up their own stations to boost sales of radios. However, everyone who could afford a radio would eventually buy one. The radio stations' only response to this economic blow was to sell advertising. The first radio advertisement was broadcast on August 28th, 1922. The idea of using radio to advertise other products and services revolutionized the medium and led to the creation of WSM and the Grand Ole Opry.

In 1925, the National Life and Accident Insurance Company in Nashville began operating a radio station. Edwin Craig, the executive in charge of the project, believed that station would reach new customers and enhance the company's image. The call letters WSM were based on the company's motto: "We Shield Millions." The station began broadcasting on October 5, 1925 from the National Life building in Nashville. At first, the station played mostly classical music. However, that would change on November 28, 1925.

On that date, George Hay, announcer and program director, launched a new show called the WSM Barn Dance. The show starred championship fiddler Uncle Jimmy Thompson playing the traditional music of Southern Appalachia. The show was a huge hit, but people wanted the opportunity to see their favorite musicians perform as well. Crowds begun coming to the offices to see the musicians play. This led the National Life Company to build an auditorium for the show. Hayes renamed the show The Grand Ole Opry in 1927.

As it grew, the Opry moved to various locations around Nashville until finally moving to the Ryman Auditorium on June 5, 1943. By that time, WSM had become one of the nation's most powerful broadcasters. Using an 875 foot antenna, WSM could broadcast nationwide. As a result of the station's broadcasting power, the "hillbilly" music played on the Opry became popular nationwide.

Musicians who played the Opry quickly became stars. On December 8, 1945, Bill Monroe brought to the Opry stage a group of musicians who invented a new musical style called “bluegrass.” “The Original Bluegrass Band,” as the musicians called themselves, were Bill Monroe on mandolin, Earl Scruggs on the banjo, and Lester Flatt on the guitar. Other stars who found fame on the Opry stage include Minnie Pearl, Hank Williams Sr., Patsy Cline, Loretta Lynn, Johnny Cash and Mother Maybelle & The Carter Sisters. In 1974, The Grand Ole Opry moved from the Ryman Auditorium to a new facility on the grounds of Opryland. Performing at the Opry continues to be a career defining moment for country and bluegrass musicians.

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William Christopher W.C. Handy and the Birth of Memphis Blues

Standards 5.47, U.S. 44

Essential Question: How did W.C. Handy contribute to the growth of the Blues?

William Christopher Handy was born in Florence, Alabama on November 16, 1873. Handy was born with a talent for music. In his 1941, memoir *Father of the Blues*, Handy said that from the age of ten he could identify and remember any sound that came to his ear. He would later reproduce some of those sounds in his music. However, Handy's middle class, religious family did not approve of his interest in music. When Handy brought home a guitar that he had purchased, his father made him return it for a dictionary. Handy wrote that to his parents "becoming a musician would be like selling my soul to the devil."

Handy did become a musician. In 1893 he organized a quartet to play at the Chicago World's Fair. After the fair, Handy worked as a traveling musician for a number of years before taking a teaching job at Alabama A&M. Handy soon discovered that teaching did not pay well and in 1896 he joined Mahara's Minstrels. By 1903, he was directing the Colored Knights of Pythias, a group that played for both African American and white audiences.

It was during a performance for a white audience that Handy's musical career began to change. A member of the audience asked Handy to "play some of your own (African American) music". Handy and his group continued playing the popular music they were familiar with, but the crowd was not pleased. Then three local African American men came on stage and played some blues. Handy saw the positive response the blues songs received and considered adding some blues to the group's repertoire. While waiting for a train in Tutwiler, Mississippi in 1903 Handy had another encounter with the blues. An African American musician at the train station was playing his guitar with a knife and singing about going "where the Southern Crosses the Dog." Handy said that "it was the weirdest music I'd ever heard."

Blues are a distinctly African American folk music that developed in the rural south. Like all folk music, blues songs were passed from musician to musician and changed to suit the needs or intentions of the individual artist. Handy's remarkable ear for music and his boyhood training in musical notation allowed him to transform the songs he heard into sheet music that other musicians could play. Handy did not invent the blues, but he did bring it to the masses.

Handy's first blues hit was written in 1909. Handy was living in Memphis and wrote a campaign song for E.H. Crump, who was running for mayor. The song remained popular even after the election and in 1912 Handy gave the tune new lyrics and published it as "The Memphis Blues." Handy and his partner, Harry Pace operated a music publishing house on Beale Street from 1913-1918. It was during this period that Handy published "St. Louis Blues" which became

famous worldwide. In 1918, Handy and Pace moved to New York City. Handy continued to write blues songs, but none were as popular as his earlier hits. In 1931, Memphis honored Handy by creating the W.C. Handy Park on Beale Street. Handy died in New York City on March 28, 1958. The self-proclaimed “Father of the Blues” left behind a musical legacy that can be heard in the works of musicians as diverse as Keith Richards and George Gershwin.

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Scopes Trial

Standard: U.S. 38

Essential Questions: What two points of view were debated in the Scopes Trial? What was the legacy of the Scopes Trial for Tennessee and the nation?

The State of Tennessee v. John Thomas Scopes, also known as the Scopes Trial or Scopes Monkey Trial, took place in 1925 in the small town of Dayton, Tennessee. The central issue of the case surrounded the Butler Act, a law passed that same year which outlawed the teaching of Charles Darwin's Theory of Evolution and "any theory that denies the story of the Divine Creation of man as taught in the Bible."¹ After the American Civil Liberties Union promised to fund anyone who challenged the Act, community leaders in Dayton banded together and charged high school teacher John Thomas Scopes, who may or may not have actually taught evolution. After famous attorneys, Clarence Darrow and William Jennings Bryan, agreed to argue the case, the trial, and Dayton in general, gained national attention and brought the clash between science and religion to the American forefront.

Charles Darwin laid out his Theory of Evolution by publishing *The Origin of Species* in 1859. The book caused a firestorm among religious denominations in the United States. Some churches denounced the theory outright while others attempted to adjust their doctrine around it. By the 1920s, most mainstream northern Protestant churches had accepted the theory and chose to view the Bible as a symbolic work only, as opposed to the literal truth. Some church leaders even went as far to say that evolution was just how God worked.² Most Southern religious leaders, however, would have none of it. The Bible, to them, was the literal truth and anything deviating from it and subsequently taught in schools threatened to corrupt the youth. These leaders also believed that there should be consequences for those who taught such subjects. In 1878, for example, eminent naturalist Alexander Winchell was dismissed from Vanderbilt University for promoting the idea that civilizations of man existed before those mentioned in the Bible. Organizations called the Anti-Evolution League and Bible Crusaders of America paraded throughout Tennessee spreading anti-Darwin ideas. The famed orator William Jennings Bryan gave a speech in Nashville in 1924 entitled "Is the Bible True?," in which he rebuked Darwinism before thousands of cheering listeners.

With a majority of Tennesseans firmly opposed to evolutionary theory, the General Assembly took up the matter in 1925. State Representative George Washington Butler presented for debate House Bill 185, which made it illegal to teach any theory "that man has descended from a lower order of animals."³ The so-called Butler Act passed both houses of the legislature with ease, and with some reluctance, Governor Austin Peay signed the measure into law.

In reaction, the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) promised to fund anyone brave enough in Tennessee to break the law and stand trial. Enter John Thomas Scopes. Scopes was listening

¹ Paul H. Bergeron, Stephen V. Ash, and Jeanette Keith, *Tennesseans and their History* (Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Press, 1999), 250.

² *Ibid.*, 249.

³ Robert E. Corlew, *Tennessee: A Short History*, 2nd ed., (Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Press, 1981), 540-41.

to local men debate whether or not biology could be taught effectively without Darwin's theory. Scopes entered the conversation and, when questioned said that he had discussed the topic with his students. Truthfully, Scopes could not remember if he had actually taught Darwin at all, and he secretly hoped that no students would come forward to challenge the claim that he had. Dayton's town leaders, on hearing of the exchange at the drug-store, decided to take up the ACLU's offer, and they charged Scopes for breaking the Butler Act. The community leaders believed that such controversy would bring national attention to Dayton and put the town "on the map."⁴ The stage was set for *The State of Tennessee v. John Thomas Scopes*.

John T. Scopes was born on August 30, 1900 the son of a railroad machinist. After a brief stint at the University of Illinois, Scopes earned a bachelor's degree from the University of Kentucky in 1924. He majored in law but studied with a variety of teachers in a variety of subjects. As a forerunner of things to come, a battle between evolution and religion had been fought at Kentucky during Scopes' time there. In that case, progressive school officials triumphed over the anti-evolutionists. At twenty-four, Scopes became a teacher of algebra, physics, and chemistry at Central High School in Dayton, Tennessee, which lies about forty miles from Chattanooga. He was also the football coach at the school. He proved a popular figure in town, and incidentally, attended church every Sunday.⁵ But when he stood trial in 1925, his popularity was overshadowed tenfold, as Dayton became the staging ground for one of the twentieth century's most famous courtroom dramas.

Volunteering to try the case for the prosecution was none other than William Jennings Bryan. Bryan's had lived a successful life up to the trial. He had been a lawyer, a Populist politician, a congressman, a journalist, a three-time nominee for U.S. President, and, most importantly for the Scopes Trial, an ardent anti-evolutionist. He believed that Darwin's work undermined religion and threatened the basic fabric of society. He spoke out across the country and, in his effective but simple-minded style, questioned the scientific community. "It is better to trust in the Rock of Ages," he is noted for saying, "than to know the age of rocks."⁶ For the Scopes Trial, Bryan assisted state Attorney General A. Tom Stewart to try the defendant.

Opposing Bryan and representing Scopes was the most well-known trial lawyer in America, Clarence Darrow. Darrow graduated from public school, taught local students, and enrolled in the law department at the University of Michigan. Afterward, he apprenticed in Youngstown, Ohio, and was formally admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-one. Darrow spent years on the law circuit, first in Chicago and then all over the nation. He became a friend to organized labor until a bribery scandal damaged his reputation in 1911. After serving as a war propagandist for the Allies in World War I, Darrow defended the infamous murders Leopold and Loeb and urged them to plead guilty so as to avoid the death penalty. The public's attention focused on the trial, and by the end, Darrow was able to spare the two young murderers' capital punishment. In Dayton, Darrow's task was primarily to face off

⁴ Bergeron, Ash, Keith, *Tennesseans and their History*, 252-53.

⁵ Kathleen S. Brown, "Scopes, John Thomas," from *American National Biography*, Vol. 19 (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999), 263-64.

⁶ Robert W. Cherney, "Bryan, William Jennings," from *American National Biography*, Vol. 3 (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999), 815.

against his longtime-foe, Bryan.⁷ Darrow was joined by Dudley Field Malone and Arthur Garfield Hayes in their defense of Scopes.

The trial itself, taking place at the Rhea County Courthouse, resembled a festival more than a trial. Journalists and newspaper-men from all corners of the country descended upon the little town. Writers sent their publishers colorful descriptions of “Monkey State” Tennesseans, whom they ridiculed incessantly.⁸ The *New York Times* described the proceeding as “the first case of its kind since we stopped trying people for witchcraft.”⁹ H.L. Mencken, the most renowned journalist of the age, wrote several articles for the *Baltimore Sun*. He gave the event the title “Monkey Trial” and described Dayton as “the bunghole of the United States, a cesspool of Baptists, a miasma of Methodism, snake-charmers, phony real estate operators, and syphilitic evangelists.”¹⁰

When the trial began, Darrow attempted to bring in witnesses from many different fields. The experts included Christian theologians, Hebrew scholars, geologists, biologists, and others. Instead of simply a trial about Scopes, Darrow and the defense team wanted to put not only the Butler Act but conservative Christianity on trial. The judge, John T. Raulston, refused to allow Darrow’s witnesses and shot down the notion that the trial was about more than Scopes’s violation of the law. Raulston did, however, admit that some examination of the Book of Genesis was necessary to determine whether Scopes was guilty.¹¹

For days, the two sides battled. Contrary to Judge Raulston’s wishes, the overarching themes of Darwinism and Creationism were discussed. Bryan, as expected, ridiculed Darwin and attempted to poke holes in his theory. His speeches were directed at homespun Tennesseans and other Southern American Christians as he tried to win them to his side. He found the notion that man evolved from apes to be not only factually wrong but insulting as well. He complained that according the theory of evolution American men were not even descended “from American monkeys, but from old world monkeys.” This remark caused the courtroom to erupt in approving laughter.¹²

On the seventh day of the trial, Darrow called Bryan himself to the stand in order to question his defense of anti-evolutionism. Judge Raulston, fearing that the building would not support the crowds of people who had gathered to hear the examination, called a recess to escape to the courthouse lawn.¹³ When the recess ended, Darrow and Bryan had their confrontation. The two argued about everything from the age of the Earth to Adam and Eve to Confucianism to whether Bryan had any respect at all for scientists. “We have the purpose,” Darrow declared, “of preventing bigots and ignoramuses from controlling the education of the United States.” Bryan, however, presented himself as a Christian martyr. “I am simply trying to protect the word of God,” he said, “against the greatest atheist or agnostic in the United States. I want the papers to know I am not afraid to get on the stand in

⁷ Kevin Tierney, “Darrow, Clarence,” from *American National Biography*, Vol. 6 (New York: Oxford University Press), 1999, 114-15.

⁸ Corlew, *Tennessee: A Short History*, 542.

⁹ *New York Times*, July 21, 1925.

¹⁰ Bergeron, Ash, Keith, *Tennesseans and their History*, 253.

¹¹ Bergeron, Ash, Keith, *Tennesseans and their History*, 252.

¹² *The World’s Most Famous Court Trial: Tennessee Evolution Case: a word-for-word report of the famous court test of the Tennessee anti-evolution act, at Dayton, July 10 to 21, 1925, including speeches and arguments of attorneys, testimony of noted scientists, and Bryan’s last speech*, Reprint, (Dayton, Tennessee: Rhea County Historical Society, 1978), 176.

¹³ *Ibid.*, 227.

front of him and let him do his worst.” Bryan’s statement was followed by prolonged applause.¹⁴ Finally, after another heated exchange between the two rivals, Raulston banged his gavel and adjourned for the day.

The debate between Darrow and Bryan did nothing to affect the outcome. Scopes had defied the Butler Act, and as a result, he was found guilty and fined \$100. An appeals court later upheld the law but overturned Scopes’ conviction on a technicality. Scopes received donations from admirers, which he used to attend graduate school. Darrow went on trying cases for another decade while Bryan died in Dayton shortly after the Scopes Trial.

However much the trial brought evolution to the forefront of American thought, the Butler Act remained in place in Tennessee until 1967. Darwin was excluded from state textbooks until the 1960s. So while Darrow believed that he had won a moral victory for science, and media portraying the event (most notably the film *Inherit the Wind*) claimed the same, anti-evolutionism won the day in Tennessee. The outcome and the trial, as described through northern newspapers, contributed to the national image of backward, uneducated Tennesseans who shun science and adhere to an outdated rural existence. The battle between religion and science persisted. The Scopes Trial only intensified the conflict.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, 299.

Josephine Pearson

Standards: 5.46, U.S. 18

Essential Question: What role did Josephine Pearson play in Tennessee during the suffrage movement in 1920?

Josephine Pearson was born in 1868 in Gallatin, Tennessee. Her father was a minister. Both her parents believed in education so Josephine Pearson was a well-educated woman for her time. Pearson graduated from Irving College in 1890 and received her Master's degree in 1896 from Cumberland College. In the next few years she worked as a teacher and administrator at several schools. She served as dean and chair of philosophy at Christian College in Columbia, Missouri for 5 years before returning to Tennessee in 1914 to care for her aging parents.

The suffrage movement had already begun and there was growing interest in the country for women to gain the right to vote. Apparently, the Pearson family was against women's suffrage because Josephine Pearson wrote in her book, *My Story*, that she had promised her dying mother she would fight women's suffrage if it came to Tennessee for ratification.

John Vertrees, a Nashville attorney and a leader in Middle Tennessee in the anti-women's suffrage movement, asked Josephine Pearson to replace his late wife as President of the Tennessee State Association Opposed to Women Suffrage. Pearson also achieved a leadership position in the Southern Woman's League for the Rejection of the Susan B Anthony Amendment. She became well known as a speaker and leader in these organizations.

The basic position Pearson and these organizations took was that if women received the right to vote, southern traditions and their way of life would be lost. Broadsides such as "Declaration of Principles" and "Why We Oppose Votes for Women" also stated that voting would be a burden on women. Anti-suffragists believed voting would add just one more burden or duty to all that women had to do at home. At that time many men and women believed a woman's place was at home, but voting was done outside the home. Anti-suffragists believed women's suffrage would lead to Socialism, Bolshevism or Radicalism. They also believed that women's suffrage was a threat to the continuation of Anglo-Saxon domination of social and political affairs.

When Governor Albert Roberts called a special session of the Tennessee General Assembly to vote on ratification of the Nineteenth Amendment in 1920, Pearson went to Nashville. The anti-ratification group set up headquarters in the Hermitage Hotel near the capitol. From there Pearson led her followers in talking to members of the General Assembly, handing out flyers, and leading peaceful rallies. Pearson and the antis worked actively but in the end Tennessee became the 36th state to vote for ratification. The Nineteenth Amendment became law and women could legally vote.

When the fight was over Pearson went back to Monteagle, Tennessee. She accepted a deanship at Southern Seminary of Virginia. Josephine Pearson continued to lecture throughout the south and write articles. She died in 1944.

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Anne Dallas Dudley

Standards: 5.46, US.18

Essential Question: What role did Anne Dallas Dudley play in the women's suffrage movement?

Anne Dallas Dudley was beautiful, articulate, and privileged; a wife and the mother of two daughters, she enlisted in the crusade for women's rights, laboring for nearly ten years in a hard fought campaign to achieve women's suffrage. Unlike the pioneers of woman suffrage, Dudley embodied a new generation of feminist leaders that emerged in the progressive era. Dudley represented a living retraction of the negative anti-suffrage argument that women's rights advocates were both unattractive male-haters and childless radicals bent on destroying the idea of the traditional American family.

Born into a wealthy Middle Tennessee family, Dudley was raised and educated at Ward Seminary and Price's College in Nashville as a belle of the post-Civil War New South. Her father, Trevanion B. Dallas, prospered as he joined a leading mercantile firm and began to build and buy cotton mills in Nashville and southward in Huntsville, Alabama. His support of the Confederacy during the Civil War helped open doors to him upon his arrival in Tennessee's statecapital in 1869.

His daughter created a buzz in social circles as her gowns, parties, and her suitors became material for the gossip columns. In 1902, she married widower Guilford Dudley, a prominent local banker and insurance broker (one of the founders of the Life and Casualty Insurance Company) and maintained a country estate in West Nashville.

Proper Victorian notions of a woman's sphere were instilled in her as part of an unspoken education. Dudley later acknowledged that prior to her involvement in the women's suffrage campaign, she had once been an anti-suffragist. "But reading and studying showed me that it was the only way that women could come into their own.... Not only does the world need women's votes, but woman needs the ballot for her own development."

Like several other middle and upper class women, Dudley joined local groups in which women met for self-improvement. Typically, these groups of women discussed art, books, music, and drama. Later, the meetings evolved into discussions concerning problems of urban living that were consequences of industrialization. They concerned themselves with the education of children, poverty, political corruption, and working conditions of women and children. The late nineteenth and early twentieth century's progressive female leaders originated within these societies. They began to argue that women needed the vote in order to cure and purify the ills of American society.

This notion reflected a subtle but important change in the thrust of the women's suffrage movement that Dudley and other middle and upper class would enlist in. Earlier generations had insisted that women were fundamentally equal to men; however, a new generation of Progressive era suffragists argued that women were different from men. Many of the movement's new leaders began to couch their language and justification for suffrage in less threatening ways that did not overtly challenge the separate spheres in which men and women resided in late nineteenth-century American society. By doing so, they ignored the natural constraints of their position to speak with great force and persuasion. Women, they stressed, possessed a moral sense and a nurturing quality that men

naturally lacked. Consequently, they understood the civic obligations implied by the franchise and could be trusted to vote virtuously. Their votes would hasten to completion the progressive task of cleansing the political process of corruption. Moreover, their experience as mothers and household managers would enable them to guide local and state governments in efforts to improve education, sanitation, family wholesomeness, and the condition of women and children in the workforce.

In September 1911, Dudley enlisted in the women's suffrage cause when she and a handful of other Nashville women formed the Nashville Equal Suffrage League. The League nominated Dudley as its president, who set about to link up with other equally committed women throughout the state to organize similar local organizations. Between 1911 and 1919, they helped found suffrage organizations in 78 towns in Tennessee. The suffragists throughout the state followed Dudley's lead to institute May Day parades throughout their cities and towns. Dudley often led these parades with her two young daughters. She was also photographed reading to her children, which was widely distributed among other women's suffrage materials, all in an effort to rebuke negative stereotypes created by anti-suffragists that all suffragists were mannish and disregarded their children.

In 1915, Dudley was elected as the president of the Tennessee Equal Suffrage Association. She was instrumental in arranging for some of the nation's most prominent women's rights advocates to visit and speak in Nashville, which rallied support throughout the state for their cause. When a suffrage amendment to the state constitution failed, Dudley introduced a second measure to give women the right to vote in presidential and municipal elections. However, when her second attempt to secure woman suffrage (albeit on a limited scale) failed to pass the state Senate, she proclaimed "We are not cry-babies," and pressed her foot soldiers to push onward. In fact, the alternate bill did pass the General Assembly in 1919; however, at this time, Dudley and other women's rights advocates were consumed with the passage and ratification of the 19th Amendment.

Dudley was vitally important to the campaign for women's suffrage primarily for two reasons: she embodied a new (and attractive) generation of progressive era reformers and was an outspoken southern proponent of women's suffrage (a region in which the prospect of women's suffrage was very unpopular). To her southern male (and female) detractors, Dudley countered their hysterical, anxious, and racist arguments that enfranchisement of women would lead to "Negro" domination of the region, with a racist pro-suffrage argument designed to allay their fears: there were more white women than black women. Interestingly, white suffragists, including Dudley and her southern counterparts, crossed the South's Jim Crow racial barricades to enlist black women to join them. One black woman later observed, "a little patience, trust, vision, and the universal ties of motherhood and sisterhood could overcome the prejudice against them as voters."

As Dudley became nationally known for her activities, the National American Woman Suffrage Association elected her as its third vice-president in 1917. As a national spokesperson, Dudley addressed congressional committees and traveled across the nation urging the passage of the Anthony resolution, a federal women's suffrage bill that had been introduced in each session of Congress since 1878. She was a popular speaker who often held her own as she clashed with anti-suffragists on her tours. When the antis noted that since only men could bear arms for their country, only men should vote, Dudley countered, "Yes, but women bear armies."

In 1920, Dudley's public role in national affairs was highlighted as she attended the Democratic National Convention in San Francisco as a delegate-at large where she made a speech for one of the party's candidates. As she walked across the stage, on her way to the podium to make her speech, the band struck up "Oh, You Beautiful Doll."

In August of that same year, Dudley successfully worked to achieve the ratification of the 19th Amendment by the Tennessee General Assembly. She continued her political involvement through the fall of 1920 as a volunteer in the unsuccessful reelection campaign of Democratic Governor Albert H. Roberts, who later blamed his support of women's suffrage for his defeat.

Though she was never active in the newly created League of Women Voters, Dudley helped organize the Woman's Civic League of Nashville to assist elected officials in a needed "municipal house-cleaning." More than thirty-five years before the passage of metropolitan government in Nashville, this group fought for an end to overlapping city efforts and public education on health issues. In the 1930s Dudley served as president of the Maternal Welfare Organization of Tennessee, which brought Margaret Sanger to Nashville in 1938 to increase public awareness on the importance of birth control.

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Harry T. Burn and the Perfect 36

Standards: 5.46, US.18

Essential Questions: What role did Harry T. Burn play in the women's suffrage movement? What role did Tennessee play in the women's suffrage movement?

On a hot and muggy summer morning in the month of August 1920, a young 24 year-old Republican lawmaker from Niota (McMinn County), in the southern valley of East Tennessee, changed his “Nay” vote to an “Aye” during a critical final ballot to decide the fate on ratification of the 19th Amendment to the United States Constitution. Burn’s momentous decision to vote in favor of women’s suffrage not only secured the elusive victory that suffragists had sought since the Seneca Falls Convention of 1848. It also secured a place for both Burn and his widowed mother, Febb Ensminger Burn, in American history as they delivered Tennessee as the “Perfect 36” state to ratify the 19th Amendment.

On Friday, August 18, the Tennessee House deliberated a joint resolution for ratification of the 19th Amendment that had recently passed in the state Senate. Thirty-five states had already ratified the amendment. If Tennessee became the thirty-sixth state to ratify, the amendment would become law. It was in a tense atmosphere that several legislators rose from their desks to deliver impassioned speeches that merely recounted the age-old arguments waged by “suffs” (suffragists) and “antis” (anti-suffragists) for and against women’s suffrage. After a lengthy debate, House Speaker Seth Walker, a proclaimed “anti,” boldly proclaimed, “The hour has come. The battle has been fought and won, and I move . . . that the motion to concur in the Senate action goes where it belongs—to the table.”

A deaf silence blanketed the chamber as the motion was put forth on the House floor to table the amendment—tantamount to its death as the bill would be held over until the next legislative session convened after the fall elections. In the midst of the excitement, no one could discern the inner turmoil that waged within Harry Burn’s mind. Sitting in his chair in the third row to the right of the rostrum, Burn wore a red rose (the symbol of the antis) on his jacket lapel. His constituents back home in McMinn County were bitterly divided—an ever-increasing majority of public opinion in the county was turning against women’s suffrage. He also faced reelection in the upcoming fall election and a deciding vote either way might cost him the votes needed to secure his seat in the next session of the General Assembly. Therefore, Burn was content to vote in favor of tabling the amendment. When the House clerk reached his name, the seventh on the list of 96 in attendance, Burn voted with the antis to table the amendment. “I had voted to table the amendment,” he later explained, “not in opposition but in hopes that it would come up again at the next session.” The vote was 48 to 48. Speaker Wallace demanded a recount. Again, the vote was deadlocked at 48 to 48. Therefore, the amendment remained alive on the House floor.

Speaker Wallace then moved to reconsider the original motion—a vote on the 19th Amendment. Now Burn was faced with a decision he had hoped he would not have to confront as the deciding vote on whether or not the 19th Amendment became the law of the land.

Unbeknownst to his fellow colleagues, Burn carried a letter from his mother in his breast pocket that admonished him to vote in favor of the amendment.

Burn's mother, a strong-willed widow of a farmer covered the woman suffrage debate from their Niota home when not milking cows, churning butter, cleaning and mending for her family, by reading four newspapers and a dozen magazines that she subscribed to. Febb Burn would later tell a reporter, "Suffrage has interested me for years. I like the suffrage militants as well as the others." But after having read a barrage of bitter "anti" speeches published in the papers and realizing that her son's constituents in McMinn County were fiercely in opposition to women's suffrage, Mrs. Burn maintained that she felt compelled to force the issue. "I sat down on [my] little chair on the front porch and penned a few lines to my son."

In fact, Febb Burn wrote more than a few lines in regards to supporting ratification, which were interspersed among other family matters, in a seven-page letter to Harry.

"Dear Son, ... Hurray and vote for Suffrage and don't keep them in doubt. I noticed Chandlers' speech, it was very bitter. I've been waiting to see how you stood but have not seen anything yet.... Don't forget to be a godd boy and help Mrs. Catt with her "Rats." Is she the one that put rat in ratification, Ha! No more from mama this time. With lots of love, Mama."

Burn had read and re-read the words from his mother that he had just received and he hoped that he would not have to take a definitive stand on the measure until after the election. In fact, Burn had earlier told a prominent suffragist lobbyist that his vote would never hurt their cause, which led many to believe he was in fact a supporter of women's suffrage, but a legislator conflicted by the will of his constituents. Despite his pledge to the suffragist, Burn did not believe he would ever have to take a decisive stand on the issue at this point in time. Nevertheless, when the "antis" made a move to kill the bill by calling for a vote on the amendment itself, Burn faced a moral dilemma—to vote against the amendment and remain faithful to his "anti" constituents in light of his upcoming re-election campaign or remain faithful to the wishes of his mother.

The House clerk proceeded to call the roll for the third time, this time, a vote to decide the fate of the 19th Amendment in Tennessee. When the clerk called his name, Burn voted "Aye." His vote came so quickly, so unexpectedly, that many in the galleries and on the House floor were caught off guard. Several thought that the young Republican freshman had innocently become confused by the prior two votes and meant to vote "Nay" instead of "Aye." Indeed, Burn had made no mistake. He had cast his ballot for women's suffrage, and thus, cast the key ballot in the 49-47 vote that made the 19th Amendment the supreme law of the land.

"Antis" in the galleries and on the House floor began shouting absurdities at Burn. Josephine Pearson, the most vocal Tennessee anti-suffragist labeled Burn a "traitor to manhood's honor." "Anti" supporting newspapers reported that Joe Hanover, a Jewish immigrant legislator targeted by the anti-suffragists for his ardent defense of women's suffrage, had paid Burn \$10,000 to change his vote. He was also accused of accepting a bribe from Governor Robert's personal secretary. The charges of bribery did not stick to the East Tennessean. Unfazed by the

intimidation tactics, Burn responded to the anti-attacks on his integrity and honor by inserting a personal statement in the *House Journal*, explaining his decision to cast his vote for the suffragists based on morality, justice, his mother, and the glory of the Republican party:

“I desire to resent in the name of honesty and justice the veiled intimidation and accusation regarding my vote on the Suffrage Amendment as indicated in certain statements, and it is my sincere belief that those responsible for their existence know that there is not a scintilla of truth in them. I want to state that I changed my vote in favor of ratification first because I believe in full suffrage as a right; second, I believe we had a moral and legal right to ratify; third, I knew that a mother’s advice is always safest for a boy to follow and my mother wanted me to vote for ratification; fourth, I appreciated the fact that an opportunity such as seldom comes to a mortal man to free seventeen million women from political slavery was mine; fifth, I desired that my party in both State and nation might say that it was a republican from the East mountains of Tennessee, the purest Anglo- Saxon section in the world, who made national woman suffrage possible at this date, not for personal glory but for the glory of his party.”

With the state of suffrage nerves already running at a fever pitch, they reached a further boiling point when Harry Burn was reported as having left the capital. The clerks at the hotel that Burn was registered at said he had left but they had no idea of his current whereabouts. The pro-suffrage forces throughout Tennessee feared that he may have deserted, or worse, been kidnapped. Not long thereafter Burn’s name appeared on the register book of another Nashville hotel where he had relocated to escape anti-attacks and public scrutiny.

The anti-attacks on Burn did not cease following the momentous vote. His enemies poured into McMinn County during Burn’s fall re-election campaign. “People from all over the country went into my county,” he recalled. “They held indignation meetings, passed resolutions.... When I went home for a weekend I would generally keep a bodyguard around so that no one would attack me.” His political enemies even accosted his mother at their farm when he was away from home. They urged her to disavow her “infamous” letter, but she remained steadfast. In the end, Burn managed to survive and win re-election to a second term; however, Tennessee’s Democratic Governor Albert H. Roberts, a Johnny-come-lately supporter to the suffragist camp, did not fare so well, suffering defeat to Republican Alfred A. Taylor.

Years later, Burn proudly reflected on his deciding vote: *“I had always believed that women had an inherent right to vote. It was a logical attitude from my standpoint. My mother was a college woman, a student of national and international affairs who took an interest in all public issues. She could not vote. Yet the tenant farmers on our farm, some of whom were illiterate, could vote. On that roll call, confronted with the fact that I was going to go on record for time and eternity on the merits of the question, I had to vote for ratification.*

Sources: Wheeler, Marjorie Spruill, ed. *Votes for Women: The Woman Suffrage Movement in Tennessee, the South, and the Nation* (Knoxville, 1995)
Yellin, Carol Lynn and Janann Sherman, *The Perfect 36: Tennessee Delivers Woman Suffrage* ed. By Ilene Jones- Cornwell (Oak Ridge, Tennessee, 1998)

Lawrence Tyson

Standards: 5.44

Essential Question: What role did Lawrence Tyson play in World War I?

Lawrence Tyson was born in North Carolina on July, 4, 1861. Tyson graduated from West Point in 1883 and served in various western territories while fighting Geronimo. Tyson married Bettie McGhee of Knoxville, TN and took a position as a professor of military science at the University of Tennessee. In 1895, Tyson resigned his position and became an attorney in Knoxville.

During the Spanish-American war, Tyson served as colonel of the Sixth Regiment U.S. Volunteer Infantry. Tyson recruited men from Tennessee and Kentucky to serve in Puerto Rico. Tyson was mustered out of service in 1899 with the rank of brigadier general.

In 1917, at the age of fifty, Tyson once again volunteered for service in World War I. Tyson was given command of the 59th Brigade of the 13th National Guard Division at Calais. They were the first American troops to enter Belgium in July 1918. In September, the 13th Division was at the Somme and with help from British troops attacked the Hindenburg line of defenses. The Americans managed to move across three trench lines despite a heavy fog. They captured 1500 enemy soldiers. The Nashville Banner claimed that the 59th Brigade, commanded by Tyson, were the first to cross and therefore the first to break the Hindenburg line. The brigade suffered 1,879 casualties. Nine men from the brigade received Medals of Honor and Tyson received the Distinguished Service Medal. However, Tyson also lost his son, Charles McGhee Tyson in air combat over the English Channel.

Following the war, Tyson returned to Knoxville to pursue various business interests. Tyson was president of the Knoxville Cotton Mills and the Knoxville Spinning Company. He was also president of the Poplar Creek Coal and Iron Company and vice-president of the Coal Creek Mining and Manufacturing Company. After his return from World War I, Tyson purchased the Knoxville News Sentinel to further his political career.

Before World War I, Tyson had served as a Democratic Representative in the Tennessee General Assembly and as Speaker of the House. In 1924, Tyson ran for the United States Senate and won. He served in the Senate until his death in 1929. As a senator, Tyson is best remembered for co-sponsoring a bill to give full pay to temporary officers disabled in World War I. Knowing the horrors of war firsthand, Tyson also advocated for peace by urging U.S. involvement in the World Court. Tyson never regained his full health after serving in World War I and died on August 4, 1929.

Source: "Lawrence Tyson." *Tennessee Encyclopedia and History and Culture*. 1st edition. 1998. Print.

“Lawrence D. Tyson: Philanthropist.” *Utk.edu*. University of Tennessee, n.d. Web. 30 July, 2014. < <http://web.utk.edu/~mklein/tyson1.html> >

Alvin C. York

Standard: 5.44

This essay was adapted from an essay prepared by Lauren Grisham for a project created in association with the Fentress County Chamber of Commerce by the Center for Historic Preservation at Middle Tennessee State University in Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Alvin C. York was born in Pall Mall, Tennessee on December 13, 1887. He spent all of his life in this area, except for the eighteen months he served with the United States Army during World War I. The third son of William and Mary Brooks York, Alvin had seven brothers and three sisters. He received the equivalent of a third-grade education within the community, went to work at his father's blacksmith shop, and later worked as a farm hand. When York was a young man his father died, and he assumed the role of sole provider for his mother and younger siblings.

During his early years, it was reported that York was considered a bit on the wild side. When the United States entered World War I in April 1917, he was working on a highway construction project for \$1.65 a day. It was around this time that a close friend of York's died. During a revival conducted by H.H. Russell of the Church of Christ in Christian Union, York had a life-changing religious experience. Following biblical teachings, York became opposed to violence and war. He initially considered becoming a conscientious objector when he was drafted. Later he reflected in a speech:

"I loved and trusted old Uncle Sam and I have always believed he did the right thing. But I was worried clean through. I didn't want to go and kill. I believed in my bible. And it distinctly said "THOU SHALL NOT KILL." And yet old Uncle Sam wanted me. And he said he wanted me most awfull bad. And I jest didn't know what to do. I was worried and worried. I couldn't think of anything else. My thoughts just wouldn't stay hitched" (Lee, 17).

While at Camp Gordon, Georgia, York received permission to go home for a couple of days to consider whether or not he wanted to apply for conscientious objector status. Upon his return, he determined that he was, in fact, going to be a soldier.

York traveled to France with the American Expeditionary Force in 1918. On October 8, 1918 during the Battle of the Argonne Forest, York's life took another extraordinary turn. York was part of a seventeen-man detail whose mission was to conquer German machine guns. Nearly single-handedly, he knocked out the German machine gun nests, killed 25 men, captured 132 prisoners, and gathered 35 machine guns. Nine of Alvin's comrades were injured or killed during this battle, including the sergeant in charge. It is reported that eight Germans were shot with exactly eight rifle shots and a seven-man patrol was killed with his automatic pistol.

On November 10, 1918, only ten days before the war ended, Alvin was promoted to sergeant. Then on April 11, 1919, he received the Congressional Medal of Honor for his actions on October 8. York also received the Croix de Guerre from France. He received numerous other awards throughout his life.

On May 10, 1919, Alvin began his journey back home to Pall Mall, Tennessee. When he arrived in New York, he was met by representatives of the Tennessee Society. York was given a hero's welcome and a ticker-tape parade. Although York was very grateful, he wrote, "I wanted to get back to my people where I belonged and the little old mother and the little mountain girl who were waiting" (qtd. in Alvin C. York Biography).

One week and one day after his return, Alvin and his "little mountain girl," Gracie Williams, were married in a ceremony performed by the Governor of Tennessee, A.H. Roberts. After a two day honeymoon in Nashville, they moved onto a 385-acre farm which grateful Tennesseans had helped purchase.

However, the peaceful valley Alvin called home was not the same upon his return. People came from all over the country in order to meet him and to offer him business propositions, ranging from Broadway and Hollywood producers to advertisers wanting to commercialize and profit from his war efforts. He wrote at this time:

"I knew if I hadn't been to war and hadn't been a doughboy they never would have offered me anything. I also knew I didn't go to war to make a heap or to go on the stage or in the movies. I went over there to help make peace. And there was peace now, so I didn't take their thirty pieces of silver and betray that their old uniform of mine. I just wanted to be left alone to go back to my beginnings. The war was over. I had done my job and I had done it the best I could. So I figured I ought to be left alone and allowed to go back to the mountains where I belonged." (qtd. in Alvin C. York Biography).

A changed person, he realized the need for improved education in his secluded hometown community and decided to dedicate himself to improving educational opportunities. During the 1920s, York went on speaking tours in order to call attention to his mission for educational improvements for children in rural Fentress County, and to raise money for a school, the York Institute. York also showed an interest in politics in order to obtain funding for better roads, local employment opportunities, and for education. During the presidential election of 1932, he changed his political party in order to support Herbert Hoover and to protest Franklin D. Roosevelt's promise to repeal prohibition. However, once York saw the positive effects of the New Deal, he decided to support the president's relief efforts. In 1939, he was elected superintendent of the Cumberland Homesteads near Crossville.

In 1925, the Tennessee General Assembly set aside \$50,000 for the construction of the York Agricultural and Industrial Institute. Its mission was to train the students of Fentress County for a technological future. York, a Democrat, was at odds with the local Republican

county executives over where the school should be located. When the local officials threatened eviction from the site in 1927, he went directly to the state legislature and turned to the media for support. As a result, the Tennessee Department of Education was given control over the York Institute.

The school officially opened in 1929, but even with the state's backing, it lacked funding. Fentress County refused to give the school any money. York mortgaged his house twice to pay teachers' salaries, paying them out of his own pocket. He even purchased school buses. Although the investigation ultimately uncovered no wrong doings, Alvin faced charges by the Department of Education for incompetence; negligence, nepotism, and bringing in outsiders in 1933. Many felt that this was an accusation brought on by York's antagonists. Regardless, York was unable to continue funding the school the way he had been. York was appointed President Emeritus and led the school's ceremonial activities. With this change of administration, the Department of Education required that all teachers have a bachelor's degree, along with other mandatory criteria.

Throughout the 1930's York refused offers to make a film based on his service in World War I. York did not want his life to be used to glorify war. York was ultimately swayed by Hollywood filmmaker Jesse L Lasky's promise that the film would not glorify war and his need for funding for an interdenominational Bible school. After much negotiation, York settled on a contract that gave him fifty thousand dollars plus two percent of the gross sales. The film, "Sergeant York," was the highest grossing film of 1941. Following Pearl Harbor, it also served as an unofficial recruitment film. Gary Cooper won the Academy Award for Best Actor for his portrayal of York.

In 1951, the IRS accused York of not paying taxes on the movie profits that had been given to the school. York spent ten years resolving the issue with the help of Speaker of the U.S. House of Representatives Sam Rayburn and Congressman Joe L. Evins. Additionally, citizens nationwide came to his aide with a York relief fund.

In the midst of this controversy, York suffered a stroke in 1954 that left him bedridden until his death on September 2, 1964. Alvin C. York was buried with full military honors in Wolf River Methodist Church Cemetery. An estimated 7,000 people attended his funeral.

Source: Grisham, Lauren. "Biography of Alvin C. York." *Alvin C. York and World War I Teacher's Guide*. Sergeant York Patriotic Foundation, n.d. 21 July 2014, <
<http://www.sgyork.org/images/Teacher-Guide-AlvinCYork-WWI.pdf>>

Tennessee Valley Authority and the New Deal

Standards: 5.50, U.S. 49, U.S. 51

Essential Questions: What were the goals for the Tennessee Valley Authority? What were the successes and failures of TVA?

When Franklin Roosevelt was elected president in 1932, the nation was in the depths of the Great Depression. Nearly 25% of American workers were unemployed and people throughout the nation were struggling to survive. Roosevelt promised to implement a program of relief, recovery and reform called the New Deal. The Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) was one of the agencies created during the first one hundred days of the New Deal.

During the 1920's George Norris, Senator from Nebraska, had tried to secure support for a multipurpose development in Muscle Shoals, Alabama where the government owned a large fertilizer plant. Roosevelt expanded the scope and size of Norris proposal to encompass the entire watershed of the Tennessee River. TVA was given a number of goals: prevent flooding, improve navigation, help farmers, provide cheap electricity, and form a strategic plan for the region.

The Tennessee Valley Region was one of the most depressed parts of the nation. Soil erosion had left much of the farmland ruined. Families scratched out a living on subsistence farms and lived in much the same way as their ancestors a hundred years earlier. Only one percent of farm families had indoor plumbing and only eight percent owned radios. TVA's solution to those problems was building dams to both control flooding and generate cheap electrical power. Unfortunately, building dams would displace thousands of the very families that TVA was charged with helping.

The first dam project TVA undertook was on the Clinch River in Anderson County. It was named Norris in honor of Senator George Norris who had worked so tirelessly for development in the Tennessee Valley region. Dam construction began in October of 1933, and was completed in March 1936 with a cost of \$36 million dollars. Some of those funds were used to buy the land that would be flooded when the dam was completed.

Residents in the Clinch River Valley, like residents in other areas where TVA would subsequently build dams, had varying points of view on the dam. Some residents viewed the dam project as beneficial because it would provide construction jobs in the present and hopefully manufacturing jobs in the future. Other residents argued that the dam would flood the best farmland leaving only marginal land to be farmed. Lastly, many residents did not want to leave the land their families had lived on for generations.

TVA employed a carrot and stick approach to land acquisition. Farmers were offered payment for their lands and the first to accept the offer often received help with moving expenses as well. TVA agents also appealed to residents' sense of patriotism and duty. They told residents how much the entire community would benefit from their sacrifice. One sticking point for many residents was that cemeteries containing the graves of loved ones would be flooded. To remove this objection, TVA offered to relocate community and family cemeteries in a manner that most residents considered respectful and dignified.

Residents who resisted TVA's carrot approach found themselves being ordered off their land under the doctrine of eminent domain. Eminent domain is the power of the government to take private land and convert it for public use as long as the owners receive just compensation. Many of the residents resistant to moving argued that the price being offered for their land was too low. Others simply felt that the right of individuals to own property should not be violated by their government. Some residents fought the sale of their land in court; others simply ignored the notices and went on with their lives. Ultimately, the courts upheld the use of eminent domain to force the sale of land for TVA projects. People who remained on their land after the sale was finalized were forcibly removed by local authorities.

By 1945, TVA had built twelve dams, created 14 million acres of floodwater storage, improved navigation from Knoxville to Paducah, Kentucky and was generating electric power for 668, 752 households. In Oak Ridge, TVA generated power had helped to enrich the uranium used in the atomic bomb. TVA had also displaced thousands of people and dismantled entire communities. While many of the displaced people came to see the economic benefits that TVA brought to the region, including the unexpected benefit of tourism, that did not stop them from feeling a profound sense of loss for the communities that disappeared.

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Great Smoky Mountains National Park

Standards: 5.50, U.S. 49

Essential Questions: How did Roosevelt's New Deal contribute to the creation of the Great Smokey Mountains National Park? What were the short term and long term consequences of the park?

The Great Smoky Mountains National Park began as the idea of Mr. and Mrs. W.P. Davis of Knoxville, Tennessee. The Davis' had visited a number of national parks in the west and thought that Smoky Mountains were just as deserving of status as a national park. The Davis's did not know that the federal government was also looking for a location to designate as a national park in the eastern United States. W.P. Davis brought the idea to the attention of other prominent members of the Knoxville community. They formed the Great Smoky Mountains Conservation Association in December, 1923. The park would have a dual purpose. It would preserve the natural beauty of the area, while also promoting economic development of the region.

The Southern Appalachian National Park Committee, the government group responsible for choosing the location of the new park, toured potential sites in 1924. The group refused an invitation to come to Knoxville, but did allow members of the Great Smoky Mountains Conservation Association to make a presentation during their stop in Asheville. The group used excellent photographs taken by James (Jim) Thompson to present their case to the members of the committee. A week later some of the committee members hiked to Mt. LeConte and witnessed the beauty of the mountains firsthand. On December, 13, 1924, the government announced that the Great Smoky Mountains would be one of two national parks in the south.

Despite the good news there were still a number of obstacles standing in the way of the park. The first was control of the land itself. The western parks had been created out of lands that belonged to the federal government. The land in the proposed boundaries of the park was owned by private individuals and large timber corporations. Secondly, the federal government was not responsible for providing funds to purchase land. North Carolina and Tennessee both agreed to contribute two million of the ten million dollars required. Schoolchildren and citizens pledged one million dollars, but the members of the Conservation Association would have to raise the rest. They contacted Henry Ford and John D. Rockefeller as potential donors. Ford was not interested, but on March 6, 1928, Rockefeller agreed to donate five million dollars in memory of his mother.

The park's supporters soon found that many landowners in the park were not interested in selling. The largest landowners were timber companies who depended on the old-growth trees harvested in the mountains. The state took the five largest companies to court and was

eventually able to force them to sell. However, the combination of legal fees and unfulfilled pledges due the Great Depression meant the project no longer had enough funding.

President Roosevelt rescues the project by using some creative language to justify using federal funds to purchase land for the park despite a provision in the original law that forbade federal funds to be used. Roosevelt and Ickes, the Secretary of the Interior, justified the expense as necessary to enlarge and expand the effectiveness of the Civilian Conservation Corp. The Civilian Conservation Corp (CCC) was used as the labor to build roads, bridges, and trails throughout the park.

While some small families were eager to sell their farms and seek better opportunities elsewhere, other residents did not wish to leave. The small farms were not very economically valuable, but many of them had been in the same family for generations and represented important family and community connections. Some residents, like the Walker sisters, sold their land but were allowed to remain for their lifetime under a leasing agreement. Others were forced out under the law of eminent domain. Some of the buildings that represented the communities that existed before the park were preserved, but most were dismantled or burned.

On September 2, 1940, President Roosevelt dedicated the Great Smoky Mountains National Park. In the following years, the park has become a destination for nearly ten million visitors each year. Tourism has become the leading industry for some counties located near the park, while others have not benefitted as much. Development of land near the park's borders has also sparked controversy. Many citizens feel that beauty of the mountains is being obscured behind hotels, shopping malls and billboards. The dual purpose of the park to preserve natural beauty while encouraging development continues to create conflicts and opportunities for people who live and work near the park.

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Cumberland Homesteads

Standards: 5.50, U.S. 49

Essential Question: What were the successes and failures of the Cumberland Homesteads?

The Cumberland Homesteads were created from one of the lesser known New Deal programs, the Division of Subsistence Homesteads. The program was originally part of the National Industrial Recovery Act, but eventually became part of the Farm Security Administration. The program was based on the “back to the land” philosophy which said that rural living was better than city living for the poor. The movement was based on relief work begun by the American Friend’s Service Committee in mining areas of West Virginia, Maryland, Kentucky, Tennessee, Illinois, and Pennsylvania. Eleanor Roosevelt was an admirer of the group’s work. Her interest and support would prove vital to the success of the Subsistence Homesteads project.

The Subsistence Homesteads project targeted three groups of people for assistance. Part-time farmers near industrial sites, farmers resettled from poor farmlands and stranded communities. Stranded communities were isolated communities of miners or timber workers who had been out of work since the economic collapse in the 1920’s. This was the most controversial aspect of the program. Critics argued that the communities would never be self-supporting because they were too far from job opportunities. Cumberland Homesteads was one of four stranded communities in the program.

The idea behind the program was give families homes and land on which to raise vegetables, chickens, cows and hogs to provide for their basic needs and supplement their income while working at other jobs. Homesteaders were also expected to work for the good of the community. Women were strongly encouraged to their skills at handcrafts, especially weaving, to help support their families.

In 1934, the government purchased 11,600 acres of land in Cumberland County for the project. Relief workers from the Civil Works Administration (CWA) began clearing the land while the agency screened applications for homesteaders. Over 2,500 applications were received for 350 planned homesteads. Applicants had to be American citizens, over 21 years of age, have enough income to make payments on the homestead, but not enough income to receive a home loan from a bank. The homesteaders were also expected to have a strong work ethic and be willing to work not only on their own homes, but also on community projects.

The community and the buildings within it were planned by architect, William Macy Stanton. The community had fifteen different homes designs. The homes were made from sandstone and wood processed on the homestead site. The plans also called for the homes to have electricity and indoor plumbing. This proved controversial. Senator Byrd of Virginia thought that electricity, refrigerators and indoor toilets were too expensive for county people. Senator McKellar of Tennessee complained that homes were stone mansions and that the resettlement workers lived in nicer homes than he did. Support from Eleanor Roosevelt insured that the homes had both electricity and indoor plumbing. In

addition to the homes, there were a number of community buildings including an elementary school, high school, administration building and water tower, two factories, a cooperative store, and loom house.

On July 28, 1939 a ceremony was held to mark the completion of the project, though only 251 of the planned 350 had been completed. The government began transferring ownership of the homes to the homesteaders. In 1947, ownership of the schools, and administration building were transferred to the county when the last house transfer was completed.

Opinions differ as to the success of the project. Some sources claim that the project was a success because it gave the homesteaders a means of survival during difficult times as well as building a sense of kinship within the community. Others claim that the industrial and agricultural cooperatives failed due to mismanagement at the local and federal levels. Families were left with no jobs and poor farmland that was prone to erosion. It is claimed that many simply moved away. In either case, the project did generate much needed jobs for hundreds of people during the dark days of the Great Depression.

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Camp Forrest

Standards: U.S. 68

Essential Question: What was the importance of Camp Forrest during World War II?

Camp Forrest at Tullahoma, Tennessee was originally named Camp Peay in honor of Governor Austin Peay and served as a National Guard Camp. In 1940, the United States began limited preparations for war and expanded Camp Peay, as a training facility. The decision to rename it Camp Forrest in honor of Confederate General Nathan Bedford Forrest created controversy given his role in the Fort Pillow Massacre and leadership in the Ku Klux Klan.

The expanded camp cost \$36 million dollars and covered 78,000 acres. The camp served as an induction center where over 250,000 men received their physicals. The camp employed 12,000 civilians to repair equipment, run the laundry and perform numerous other jobs. The camp was also the site of numerous training maneuvers throughout the war. General Patton and his 2nd Armored “Hell on Wheel” Division performed maneuvers there. The Second Ranger Battalion also trained at the base and later played a key role on D-Day.

On May 12, 1942 Camp Forrest also began to house German and Italian POWs. Many of the POWs were alien civilians. They worked at the base hospitals or on local farms. The arrival of POWs was just one of many changes that residents of Tullahoma faced during the war. Roads were often blocked, stores were crowded and fences and crops were destroyed. By the end of the war, Tullahoma’s population had grown from 4,500 to 75,000 people.

Following D-Day, the camp was greatly reduced and in 1946 the buildings were sold for scrap. In 1951, the area was chosen for the Air Force’s new Air Engineering Development Center. It was later named Arnold Engineering Development Center and contains the largest and most complex test flight facilities in the world.

Source: *FactSheet: Camp Forrest*, Arnold Air Force Base. N.d. Web. 30 July, 2014.

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Cornelia Fort and the Changing Roles of Women during World War II

Standards: 5.56, U.S. 64

Essential Question: How did the roles of women change during World War II?

Prior to World War II, women who wished to enter the workforce faced a number of challenges. Many types of work such as construction and heavy manufacturing closed to women because it was assumed women were not strong enough to do the work. Women were routinely paid less than men for the same work. African American women faced even greater challenges. Often the only work they could find was as janitors or housekeepers. Few women were able to break out of these limited roles.

One woman who defied the accepted norms was Cornelia Fort. Fort was born to a wealthy Nashville family in 1919. She attended exclusive schools including Sarah Lawrence College where she excelled. After graduation, Fort reluctantly returned to a life of civic activities and social functions in Nashville. In 1940, Fort visited Nashville's airport and immediately fell in love with flying. Fort soloed in less than a month and went on to get commercial and instructor ratings. In 1941, she took a job in Honolulu, Hawaii. Fort was giving a flying lesson on the morning of December 7, 1941 when Japanese Zeros flew past her to begin the attack on Pearl Harbor. Fort returned to the mainland and traveled around the nation telling about her experiences to sell war bonds.

The bombing of Pearl Harbor pushed the nation into war and brought women new opportunities in the workforce. Men were volunteering or being drafted into military service at the same time that factories were being asked to double or even triple production. Women, once shunned in heavy industry, joined the workforce in record numbers. At the Vultee aircraft plant in Nashville one out of every three workers was female. These female factory workers were immortalized by Norman Rockwell as "Rosie the Riveter" on the cover of *The Saturday Evening Post*.

While thousands of women worked in aircraft factories, a few like Cornelia Fort, were uniquely qualified to contribute in other ways. In September 1942, a new organization called the Women's Auxilliary Ferrying Squadron (WAFS) was formed. The name would later be changed to Women's Air Service Pilots or WASPs. (Female pilots were recruited to ferry planes from factories to military bases. Their efforts would free pilots for combat. Fort was one of the first to report for duty. She was part of the pioneering group of female pilots who established a record of excellence despite substantial resistance. In January 1943, Fort was transferred to Long Beach, California. While ferrying a plane from Long Beach to Dallas, Fort was killed in a mid-air collision.

Following the war, some women were happy to return to their previous roles as wives and mothers. Other women wanted to remain in the workforce, but found themselves forced out in favor of returning soldiers. The so-called “glass ceiling” that kept women from rising in the workplace had returned.

During World War II, women entered the workforce in unprecedented numbers. They built airplanes, tanks and jeeps. They canned food, sewed uniforms and enriched uranium for the atom bomb. Some, like Cornelia Fort, served in branches of the military as WASPs, WACs (Women’s Army Corp) and WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service). All contributed to the war effort in substantial ways. Their service and sacrifices were essential to the United States’ victory in World War II.

Source: “Women Working.” *tn4me.org*. The Tennessee State Museum. n.d. Web. 27 July, 2014. <http://www.tn4me.org/article.cfm/era_id/7/major_id/9/minor_id/72/a_id/218>

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Oak Ridge and the Manhattan Project

Standards: 5.59, U.S. 68

Essential Question: What role did Oak Ridge and the Manhattan Project in World War II? What was the impact of the Manhattan Project on the war?

“Where in Tennessee would you like me to hide it?” This was Tennessee Senator Kenneth McKellar’s response when asked in 1942 to hide 2 billion dollars in the appropriations budget for a secret project to end the war. The secret project was the Manhattan Project. The place a good portion of the money was hidden was a town called Oak Ridge.

When Roosevelt approached McKellar in 1942, he was acting in part on a warning sent to him by Albert Einstein and other scientists that Hitler’s scientists were capable of constructing a weapon that used nuclear fission to create immense destructive power. The race was on for the United States to create such a weapon first. It would require not only massive amounts of money and manpower, but also total secrecy by those involved in the project.

The site of Oak Ridge was chosen for part of the Manhattan project for a number of reasons. First, it was close to several TVA dams that could generate the massive amounts of electrical power that was needed to enrich uranium. Second, it was divided into a series of small valleys separated from each other by ridges. By building the plants in separate sections, the engineers ensured that if one plant blew up the others would be safe. Third, there was good access to railroads for transportation and the land itself was cheap.

In the fall of 1942 residents in parts of Roane and Anderson counties began to receive notices that the government was taking their land. Local residents had likely heard of eminent domain because of TVA projects in the area, but never dreamed that the government would want their land too. Many left willingly, other tried to fight in the courts but found that they could not win. By February of 1943, 59,000 acres of land had been acquired for the Clinton Engineering Works (CEW) as the project was titled.

Because of the secrecy of the project as well as the need for urgency, it was necessary to build not just housing for workers, but an entire community complete with stores, churches and recreational facilities. Like everything else at CEW, the buildings were built in record time, though housing remained a problem throughout the war years as the number of workers climbed steadily. Workers for CEW came from all across the nation. Some were recruited for their specific skills in chemistry or mathematics. Others were chosen for their ability to perform routine tasks efficiently and trained on the job. Many of the workers in the plants were young women who sought wartime work out of a sense of patriotism and a desire to earn a good wage. Only a handful of people at the facility knew what the true purpose of the project was.

Security at CEW was tight. Checkpoints were established at all entry points and everyone had to wear a badge that identified the areas they could access. Workers were also encouraged to inform on each other if someone was asking too many questions about the project. People in the surrounding area openly speculated on the purpose of the project as well and tried to gain information from project workers if they ventured into nearby Knoxville.

Like many New Deal projects, racial discrimination was common at the site. Edward Teller, a leading scientist on the project, could not bring one of his mathematicians to Oak Ridge because the man was African- American. The only jobs available for African Americans at Oak Ridge were as construction workers or janitors. Restroom, dining halls and other facilities were all segregated. African American married couples were not allowed to live together, though housing was provided for white married couples.

The process for enriching uranium required massive facilities. The K-25 plant contained more than 44 acres of floor space and was the largest building in the world. Y-12 was not as large, but still massive. Each plant carried out a different process for enriching uranium. As Robert Oppenheimer's original estimate for the amount of fissionable material increased, so did the size of the plants and the number of workers at Oak Ridge. While the original plan called for a town of about 30,000 residents, nearly 75,000 would be living there by 1945.

On August 6th, 1945 the people of Oak Ridge learned what all the work and secrecy had created: a bomb more powerful than any seen before. President Roosevelt's announcement of the bombing of Hiroshima and Oak Ridge's role in its development brought the people of Oak Ridge shock which was soon replaced with great pride. A second bomb dropped on Nagasaki, convinced Japan to surrender. Many residents began to wonder about the future of Oak Ridge. Some were glad to return to their prewar homes, but others had made Oak Ridge their home and wanted to stay. The rise of the Cold War and the need for continued scientific research on nuclear power and a variety of other fields ensured the continued existence of Oak Ridge. Though much of its work has shifted away from nuclear research, Oak Ridge continues to be center for advanced scientific research in a number of fields.

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Cordell Hull

Standard: U. S. 72

Essential Question: What was Cordell Hull's role in the founding of the United Nations?

Cordell Hull was born in a log cabin in 1871. He was the only son out of five boys who wanted an education. He attended a one room school and his father hired private tutors. Hull attended college and received a law degree in 1891 at the age of 20. He worked a short time as a lawyer and then served as a captain during the Spanish-American War. When he returned to Tennessee, he was appointed as a judge. In 1907, he ran and was elected to a seat in the U S House of Representatives. He remained in public service until 1944.

While in Congress, Cordell Hull strongly shared President Woodrow Wilson's idealistic vision of international diplomacy and was one of the first vigorous supporters of the League of Nations. Hull also supported lower tariffs. By supporting lower tariffs Hull sent a message to other countries he felt there should be open trade and nations should be able to work together in solving problems that separated them.

In 1932 Franklin D. Roosevelt was elected president and very soon Cordell Hull was nominated and confirmed to be the U S Secretary of State. On December 7, 1941 the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor and the United States entered into a state of war. After the outbreak of war, Cordell Hull proposed the formation of a new world organization to offer avenues for countries to solve their problems in a peaceful manner. He envisioned the United States having a major role in this international organization.

Hull formed an Advisory Council on Postwar Foreign Policy and asked Democrats and Republicans to contribute because he remembered Wilson's failure with the League of Nations. Hull worked very hard to keep all discussion on postwar policy nonpartisan. In 1943 the State Department drafted a document titled "Charter of the United Nations". Also in 1943 at the Moscow Conference of Foreign Ministers, Hull obtained a pledge from the Soviet Union to agree to help create a postwar world organization.

Cordell Hull gave the opening address at the Dumbarton Oaks conference in Washington, D.C. in 1944. Representatives from the United States, Great Britian, China and the Soviet Union were in attendance. The first important steps in the movement to establish a postwar international organization were made at the conference.

Because of health problems Cordell Hull resigned his position as Secretary of State but was a member of the U S delegation at the San Francisco Conference on April 25, 1945. With 50 nations present the United Nations was officially organized and became an instrument for international cooperation and peace. Cordell Hull worked so vigorously and championed the cause of the United Nations with such effort that he was honored with the Nobel Peace Prize in 1954. On July 23, 1955 Cordell Hull, Father of the United Nations, died after a lifetime of service to his country and mankind.

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