

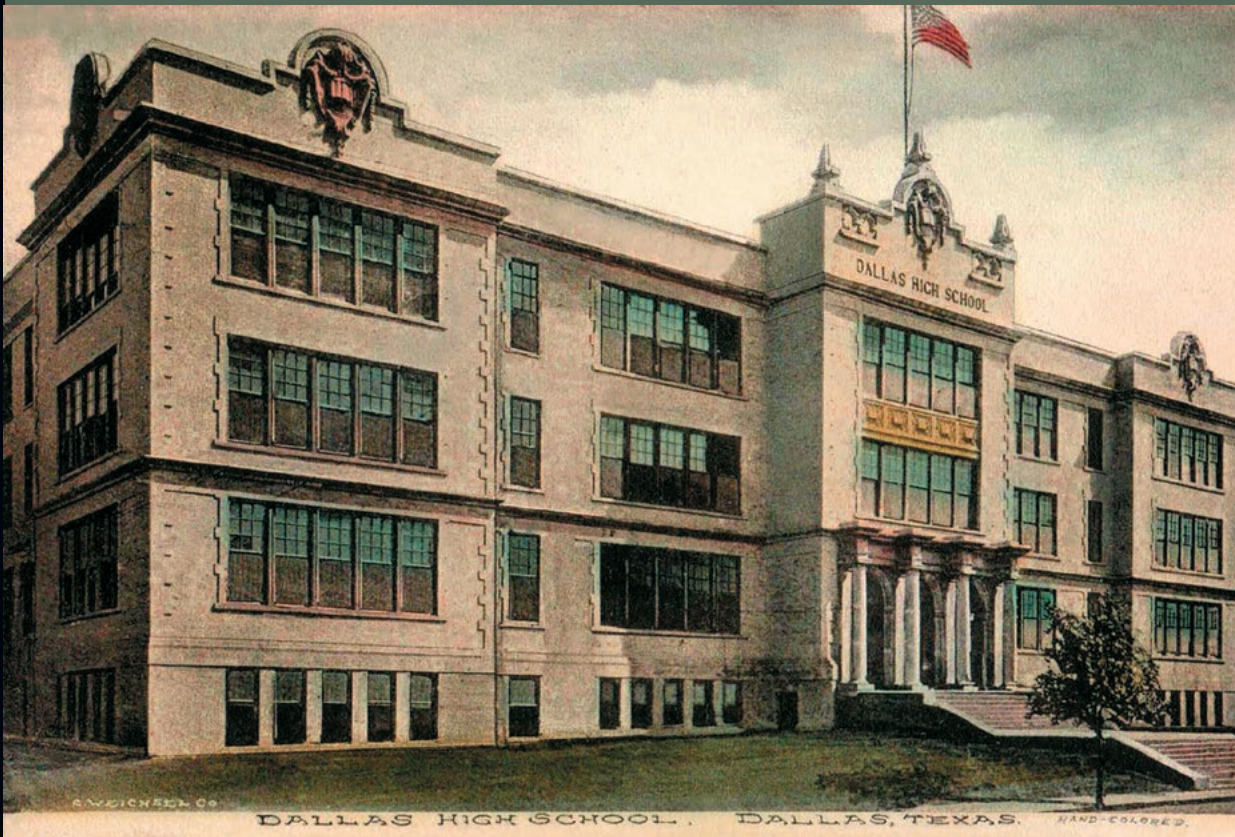
Spring
2019

LEGACIES

A History Journal for Dallas & North Central Texas

Struggle
and
Conflict

Charles Pryor: An Early Newspaper Editor of Dallas
J. L. Long: Bringing Dallas Schools into the 20th Century
Suffrage, War, and Dallas Women in 1918
The Love Field Noise Debate, 1960-1986



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Front cover: The opening of the new
Dallas High School in 1908 was a crowning
point for the fifteen-year administration of
Superintendent J. L. Long. See “J. L. Long:
Bringing Dallas Schools into the 20th Century,”
beginning on page 14.

Back cover: This aerial postcard of Love Field,
produced around 1960, shows how densely
residential neighborhoods had developed north
and east of the airport, creating conflicts with
homeowners protesting increased noise levels.
See “The Love Field Noise Debate, 1960-1986,”
beginning on page 38.



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Conflict**

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All previous issues of *Legacies* from 1989 through 2016 are online at the University of North Texas Portal to Texas History. The address is: <http://texashistory.unt.edu/explore/collections/LHJNT>



When the new Dallas High School opened in 1908, it included dedicated spaces in the basement for various vocational training programs, such as this molding class. Teacher O. A. Hanszen is standing at the far right, assisting a student. See “J. L. Long: Bringing Dallas Schools into the 20th Century,” beginning on page 14.

Struggle and conflict have been part of the human condition throughout history, whether it's basic struggle for survival, conflict with real or perceived enemies, or struggle for progress. The four articles in this issue deal in various ways with struggles and conflicts in Dallas, some of which involved participants in national issues. And all left a legacy that remains unresolved today.

For residents of frontier Dallas, sources for news beyond their immediate community were few. The editor of the town's weekly newspaper, therefore, wielded great influence, not only in selecting which news to publish but also in interpreting that news to his readers. As Horace Flatt describes, Charles Pryor used the columns of the *Dallas Herald* in 1859 and 1860 to support the pro-slavery cause in the growing conflict that soon led to the secession of Southern states and the outbreak of the Civil War. Ironically, Pryor's experiences with Confederate troops, which he served as a medical doctor, appear to have brought about a profound change in him, leading him to identify as a pacifist.

When James L. Long accepted the position of Superintendent of Dallas schools in 1893, the public school district was less than a decade old, and it was struggling. Long faced rampant truancy, underpaid teachers, and overcrowded schools with poor sanitary conditions. As Teresa Musgrove recounts, during his fifteen-year tenure, Long managed to bring vast improvements to the schools, culminating in construction of a new, modern high school. His decision to retire was widely lamented by the community.

Dallas women, meanwhile, were organizing in the struggle to secure the vote. Their

efforts succeeded in March 1918, when the Texas Legislature granted them the right to vote in primaries; at a time when Texas was effectively a one-party (Democratic) state, this was nearly equivalent to the right to vote in the general election. In the same month, as Melissa Prycer writes, clubwomen were also busy opening a canteen for men serving in the armed forces during World War I. As suffragists campaigned throughout the nation to secure the vote, and troops engaged in the conflict in Europe, Dallas women played an important role in both struggles.

When Love Field opened during World War I on acreage south of Bachman Lake, the site was distant from any residents except a few farm families. But as air traffic increased during the 1930s, '40s, and '50s, population growth pushed residential development farther north and west, gradually encircling the airport. Samuel Poer explains how the noise of aircraft became an issue for nearby residents, especially as modern jet engines grew louder. If homeowners hoped the opening of DFW Airport would alleviate their problem by reducing air traffic at Love Field, they were frustrated when Southwest Air increased operations at Love. Conflict between the economic growth associated with the airport and the rights of homeowners to protection from disruptive noise led to neighborhood organization and lawsuits.

Sadly, Dallas still struggles with issues of racial equality, public education, voting rights, and environmental pollution. While specific battles may be won, long-term conflict over fundamental issues often tends to continue.

—Michael V. Hazel

Charles R. Pryor

An Early Newspaper Editor of Dallas

BY HORACE P. FLATT

*I*n his study *Editors Make War*, Donald Reynolds described the work of a small group of newspaper editors and their influence on the decision for the states of the South to withdraw from the federal union in 1861.¹ Among those mentioned was Charles R. Pryor, editor of the *Dallas Herald*. Marilyn McAdams Sibley, in her study of Texas newspapers before the Civil War, also discussed Pryor among other editors as a “gatekeeper” for public information on happenings in Texas and elsewhere.² Today, surrounded by bounteous sources of information through newspapers, internet, radio, and television which can inform us of the impact of an earthquake in Alaska within a few moments of its occurrence, it may perhaps be difficult to project oneself back to a time when a single person might determine whether or not you learned in a timely manner of an event that might have affected your former neighbors in

Tennessee or even details of a significant event in your hometown. In the spring of 1858, the death of Alexander Cockrell, a very prominent citizen of Dallas, at the hands of A.M. Moore, the town marshal, was reported in a short paragraph in the *Dallas Herald*. Following what was apparently the custom the time, there was “no rash public discussion of what was considered a man’s private business.”³ The editor determined what information (other than by word of mouth) was made available to the public—there was no other source. As may be seen in a discussion of the life of Charles Pryor, the newspaper editor was a very prominent citizen of Dallas because of that role. But Pryor also proved to be a very complex individual.

Charles Richard Pryor has usually been described in histories of early Dallas as a physician and the younger brother of Dr. Samuel Bland

Pryor, the first mayor of Dallas. However, it was as an editor of the *Dallas Herald* that he brought some attention upon himself and was able to focus for the first time some national attention on the small frontier village of Dallas on the banks of the Trinity River.

The intended purpose of the present study is to outline a story of his life. That life took some unexpected turns and has not been well-documented, but Pryor's story is an intriguing one with some still unanswered questions. However, it is possible to shed some new light on his apparently much-conflicted career.

Charles R. Pryor was born in 1822 in Brunswick County, Virginia, the son of Phillip and Susanna Pryor, members of the affluent Pryor family of Virginia.⁴ His first cousin was Roger A. Pryor, who later attracted national attention as an editor, legislator, soldier, lawyer, and judge.⁵ Following the death of his father in 1825, Charles was reared by his mother in a large household, which by 1840 consisted of five whites and eighteen slaves.⁶ Little is presently known of precisely where Charles was educated early in life. However, it is to be assumed that he was well-educated for the times, for by 1847, there was a newspaper announcement that he would be conducting a school the following year near Macon, Powhatan County, Virginia.⁷

This is buttressed by a notation in the 1850 Federal Census of Amelia County, Virginia, listing him as resident (a schoolteacher, age 25) in the household of Robert E. Jones, a physician in the county.⁸ In 1853, it was noted that Charles Pryor of Amelia County, Virginia, received a medical degree from the University of Virginia in Charlottesville.⁹ Most likely in late 1853 or early 1854, Charles joined his brother in Dallas,¹⁰ and at least by the end of 1855, entered into a medical partnership with him.¹¹ He was among the earliest of Texas' scientists (as an entomologist), for in 1854 he shipped to a Philadelphia museum specimens of various insects he had found in Dallas County.¹²

However, it was not as a physician or a scientist that Pryor received his real measure of attention: it was as a newspaper editor.¹³ Life in Dal-



Charles Pryor's older brother, Samuel, was a medical doctor who was elected the first Mayor of Dallas in 1856. Unfortunately, no image of Charles Pryor has so far been discovered.

las around 1860 was not really remunerative for those not engaged in commerce or farming, even for those as educated as physicians or lawyers.¹⁴ Real money was scarce, and a doctor's fees were often paid (if paid at all) in livestock or grain. To help support his family, Samuel hunted, fished, and worked as a partner in a drug store with other lines of merchandise. For lawyers, county or state offices were a reward and a judgeship a prime reward.

It is not known exactly when Charles came under the tutelage of James W. Latimer, the editor of the *Dallas Herald*,¹⁵ but these were particularly difficult times in the history of the United States and of Texas: there were major social, political, and legal issues under debate, and in Kansas, for example, "troubles" between partisans on all sides of those issues. Pryor became an articulate participant in that debate from his remote post in Texas, and it is that particular thread that will be followed, rather than an exposition of the greater story of the times.¹⁶

Undoubtedly, Pryor's views were swayed by his upbringing in the South, with its heritage and



James Wellington Latimer established the first newspaper in Dallas, the *Dallas Herald*, in 1849. His death in 1859 propelled Charles Pryor, who had been writing editorials for the paper, into the editorship.

daily life in close contact with enslaved African Americans. Moreover, his views were undoubtedly reinforced by those of Latimer, known in Texas for his support of “states’ rights,” including the legal basis for slavery in the United States. For example, during the time of the famous Lincoln and Douglas debates, while differing with Douglas on some points that were “tolerated” among Democrats, Latimer lauded him for “standing up manfully for the Constitution and States Right Democracy and for the rights of the South in the Union.” Latimer deplored the “hordes of Abolitionists that are hounding him down.”¹⁷

Early in 1859, Latimer mentioned C. R. Pryor as one of six possible candidates for the county’s state representative.¹⁸ In turn, Pryor made a motion that Latimer be appointed President of a meeting of the Democrats of Dallas County (“Democracy of Dallas”). This was approved, and Pryor was first appointed to a committee to prepare resolutions for a coming convention in Houston of the Democrats of Texas. Among

those resolutions was an endorsement of a “cardinal principle” of the Democracy: States-rights and Democratic faith, one that was to be carefully observed by Pryor in succeeding years. Pryor was named as a delegate to the Houston convention.¹⁹

Latimer died unexpectedly on April 6, 1859.²⁰ It took almost three months to wind up the business affairs of Latimer & Swindells before the firm was dissolved July 1, 1859. At that time John Swindells noted that “[t]he editorial columns of the paper will be under the sole guidance of Dr. Charles R. Pryor, a gentleman who has frequently contributed to its columns and who has had theirs under entire control over the last several months. His ready and graceful pen has gained for him already a name among the editorial fraternity. . . .”²¹

Two weeks after Latimer’s death, Pryor wrote an editorial expressing some skepticism as to the usefulness of a meeting of the Southern Convention to be held in Vicksburg. He noted that in earlier years it had been titled “Southern Commercial Convention,” but its purpose had changed to one more political in nature, allowing those attending to exchange views of the relations of the Southern states to the federal government and to other states of the Union—a reflection of the changing times. Nonetheless, Pryor received an appointment (along with Dallasites J. C. McCoy and N. H. Darnell) by Gov. Hardin R. Runnels to attend the convention.²²

On April 22, 1859, there was another meeting of the “Democracy of Dallas,” this time chaired by Jefferson Peak, Sr. John J. Good was called upon to explain the object of the meeting, which was to appoint delegates to represent the county at a coming meeting of a Congressional Convention to be held shortly in Henderson. “He did so in a very short and appropriate manner.” A committee was then appointed to draw up resolutions “expressive of the meeting.” On the committee were John J. Good, George Wilson, W. K. Masten, William Sprowls, and Henry Grider. Among the resolutions approved was the following: “That we regard negro servitude as exists in the slave holding States of this government a great and signal



The *Dallas Herald* was published weekly, containing local news, advertisements, and articles selected from other newspapers in Texas and around the United States.

benefit to both the whites and black(s) – an institution wise and humane and fully defensible upon grounds religious, social, and moral. . . .” John J. Good, Charles Pryor, John M. Crockett, George Wilson, and E. P. Nicholson were appointed as delegates to the convention.²³

In a subsequent editorial, Pryor came out in opposition to the election of Sam Houston as Governor of Texas. Insisting on “Southern rights,” he said that Houston had not recanted any principles of the Know Nothing Party, which had not supported those rights over those of the Union. In a later editorial, Pryor went so far as to compare Houston to Benedict Arnold.²⁴

A little over a month later, Pryor wrote another editorial that was perhaps somewhat intemperate: “The preaching of abolition doctrines, or the tampering with slaves is a grave offense, and should meet with prompt action, and be remedied as soon as possible. . . . the matter has been suggested to us by a highly respected gentleman of the county.”²⁵ This editorial came at a turbulent time in Dallas history. It led quickly to a public meeting which shortly thereafter resulted in the horsewhipping by a mob of two Northern ministers, Solomon McKinney and William Blunt. This was a story which lent much support to William Lloyd Garrison’s 1858 charge

that some newspaper editors were irresponsible in their commentary on the news of the day.²⁶ However, the incident did bring Dallas to the attention of a rather broad audience in the United States for the first time.²⁷

The choice of which letters to print can often reflect an editor’s view: one to Pryor concerning the tampering with a slave in Collin County was printed in a subsequent issue in March 1860.²⁸ The following issue of the newspaper may be used as further commentary upon Pryor as an editor. He had four pages of paper to fill with information for his subscribers as well as with advertisements to help pay for the newspaper. There was no telegraph or telephone to obtain information, only a stage coach connection for arriving letters that might be published or newspapers sent in exchange for copies of the *Herald*. Pryor devoted the last page of each issue to agricultural topics of interest, accompanied by appropriate advertisements. While the front page was free of advertisements (but might well mention some of special interest for some reason or another), the other two pages contained both local information and information gleaned from letters or other newspapers, as well as advertisements.

The front page of this issue contained a story about Governor Bissell of Illinois, accused of aid-



John J. Good served with Charles Pryor as a delegate to a convention in East Texas that firmly supported the enslavement of African Americans.

ing in the escape of a fugitive Negro felon from jail, a letter from Jacksboro berating Governor Houston for inaction on the frontier problems with Indians, an editorial comment about “sub-missionists” to Union domination, and a quote from the Houston *Telegraph’s* editor Cushing in praise of Pryor and the *Herald*: “Our friend, Pryor of the *Herald*, is winning golden opinions of his paper, and doubtless golden eagles for it. He and Swindells deserve it. They print a paper that has no superior in the State.” In reply, Pryor thanked Cushing for his comments and said: “. . . we deserve less of commendation than does the noble cause of Democracy, which we try to advocate—a cause which has engaged the best intellects of the State, [and] of which our friend Cushing is the bright particular star.”²⁹ About six months later, there was another story concerning the tampering with slaves that again is strong

evidence of the imbalance of Pryor’s reporting on this particular subject.

However, it was Pryor’s description of the great fire that consumed Dallas’s business district on July 8, 1860, which once again attracted national attention to Dallas and Texas in the “Texas Troubles.” Pryor made unsupported charges that the “agents” of McKinney and Blunt had instigated the fire in Dallas as well as fires and attempted poisonings in other towns of Texas.³⁰

A little over a month later, it was noted that Pryor was chairman of the Democratic Association of Dallas County and that in their meeting in August, John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky was supported for the presidency of the United States.³¹ Another measure of Pryor’s popularity at the time was a hymn of praise written to him by an unknown poet, presumably of Dallas. The concluding stanzas of the long ode are used as an illustration:

Cease not! Oh, never, ‘till the North
And South shall quell their bickering,
And in one brotherhood stand forth
In arms united strong.

No, never let thy life grow dark,
Or genius pine before thy ey’s.
For thou art now the brightest spark
To light us to our heaven.³²

While Pryor was being hailed as an editor, he was still advertising his services as a physician.³³

Pryor opened the new year with an editorial which left no doubt as to where he stood: it was a time for action. “‘Othello’s occupation’s gone!’ and the Union shriekers and savers will now change their notes. The Union is broken into atoms and whey. The shriekers and savers have not been consulted! There [*sic*] occupation’s gone with a vengeance and South Carolina deigned not to confer with these officious politicians. It is no longer a question of how to save the Union: that is lost, and the only question that now concerns the people of Texas is shall we unite with the North or go with the South?”³⁴

He followed up his words with action: he volunteered for service as a surgeon in M. T. Walker’s

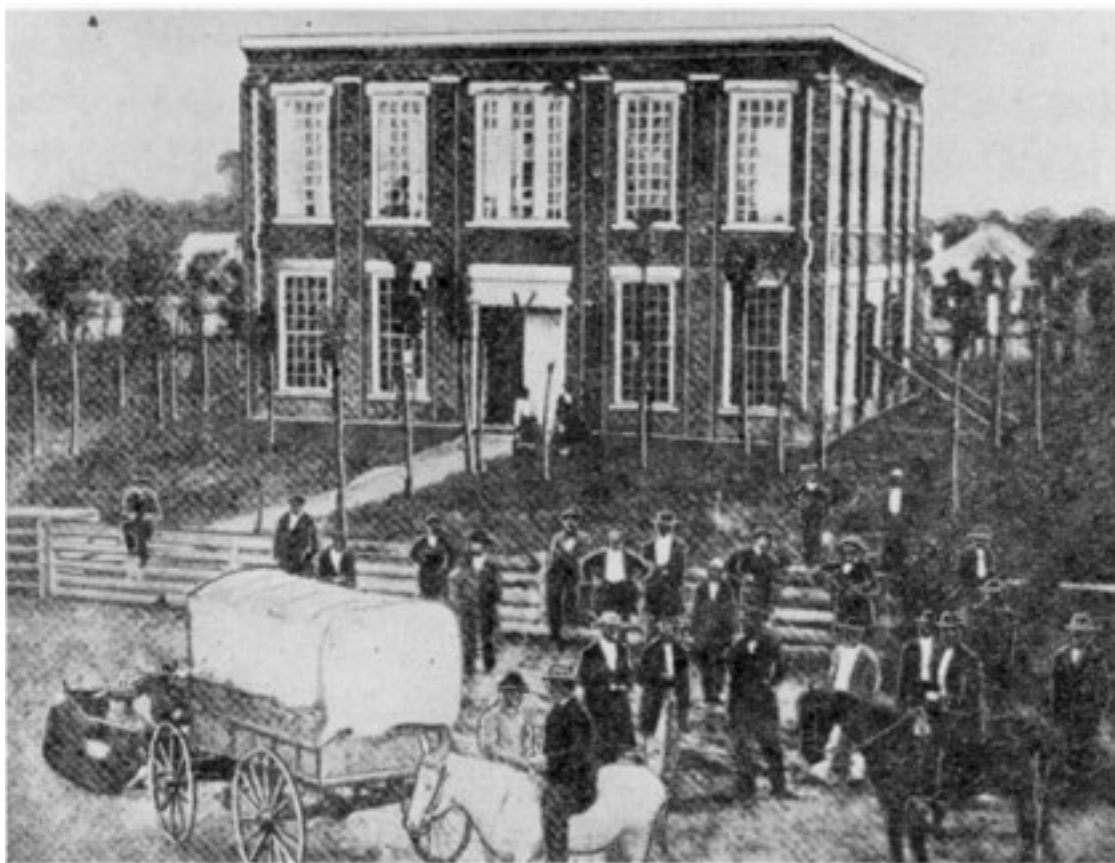


This States Rights banner prominently topped the staff box of the *Dallas Herald* in 1860, while Pryor was editor.

14th Regiment of Mounted Volunteers.³⁵ While there is no available account of his individual services during the war, there has been much reported about the service of the regiment in the “lost cause” of the South.³⁶

It is not known when Pryor returned to Dallas and to Texas. His military unit was paroled at Meridian, Mississippi, on May 9, 1865.³⁷ It was a very confused and tumultuous time.³⁸ Pendleton Murrah had been elected Governor of

Texas, Confederate States of America (C.S.A.), on November 5, 1863. On April 2, 1865, President Jefferson Davis, along with other officials of his government, abandoned Richmond, Virginia, effectively ending the C.S.A. On May 2, 1865, in one of his last official acts as Governor of Texas, Murrah appointed Pryor as Secretary of State.³⁹ Gen. Kirby Smith surrendered the Trans-Mississippi Department of the C.S.A. on May 26, 1865, and there was no legal basis for a Confederate



As one of the few public or commercial buildings that survived the fire of 1860, the Dallas County Courthouse served as the site for public meetings as well as sessions of the court.

State of Texas or of Pryor's continuance in office. No record has been found of Murrah's resignation of office, though it is known that he fled from Austin only to die on August 4, 1865, in Monterey, Mexico.⁴⁰ Equally, no documentation of Pryor's service as secretary of state has been found, or even that he had actually come to Austin, though he may well have. As Dudley Wooten was to comment, Lieutenant Governor F. S. Stockdale acted as governor for a short time and "After the close of hostilities in April, 1865, there was a period of time of three months when the State had no government of any kind."⁴¹

While Abraham Lincoln had appointed A. J. Hamilton as the military governor of Texas in 1862,⁴² it was not effective until President Andrew Johnson, in a proclamation of June 17, 1865, re-appointed Hamilton as the provisional gover-

nor of Texas with prescribed duties.⁴³ Hamilton began the reorganization of the state government and appointed James H. Bell on August 9 as Texas Secretary of State.⁴⁴

If Pryor had come to Austin, he undoubtedly returned to Dallas either because of the state of affairs there, or because his brother Samuel was in very bad health in Dallas.⁴⁵

Charles's life thereafter is that of a changed man—one no longer involved in politics or public discourse. Pryor had seen the horror of war; he was now seeing some of the whirlwind that arose in its aftermath. It must have been an especially wrenching time for him: this was not the future for Texas that he had so vigorously promoted.

In 1868, Pryor entered into a partnership in a wholesale and retail drug store located across from the southeast corner of the public square

by the City Hotel.⁴⁶ Later, as the sole owner of the store, his advertisements also featured “Pure and Choice Liquors for Medicinal Purposes” and “Fancy Soaps and Perfumes.” However, the last advertisement for the drug store appeared on July 24, 1869. Subsequently, it was announced that Pryor had entered into a medical partnership with Dr. T. J. Turner.⁴⁷ Again, it is not known how long and how successfully he practiced medicine in Dallas, but the name of Charles Pryor doesn’t appear in the 1870 Federal Census of Dallas County.

The trail of Pryor is again lost for a few years. In 1872, it was noted that a letter for him was being held in Dallas.⁴⁸ Perhaps he went on to join his brother’s widow and family in Arkansas; perhaps he went elsewhere. The family name of Pryor is not an unusual one, nor is the name “Charles Pryor”—even “Charles R. Pryor,” the name of his nephew, appears in some records. Little trace has yet been found in the ensuing years of Charles R. Pryor, a physician born in Virginia.⁴⁹ His obituary states that he became a correspondent of the *Louisville Courier-Journal* in 1877, and at least from that point onward until his death, his home was most likely in Kentucky.

In an 1878 letter, Pryor described himself as a novice, wanting “more light, more truth, more rest from Sin *In spirit I am a Shaker.*”⁵⁰ Two years later, he is noted as living in the Shaker Community of Pleasant Hill at Harrodsburg, Mercer County, Kentucky, southeast of Louisville. The community was headed by B. B. Dunlavey. He was described as a physician, born of parents living in Virginia. His age was mistakenly given as 48.⁵¹

While he was a newspaper correspondent of *The Courier-Journal* in Louisville, Kentucky, he wrote using the *nom de plume* of “Pan-Handle”: “Since the publication of Pan-Handle’s pinch-bug story, on Sunday, that insect is looked upon with considerable favor. Cupid should have studied entomology rather than archery.”⁵² Pryor utilized his entomological knowledge and interests to tell a sensitive love story.⁵³

Pryor went to Fort Monroe, Virginia, in July 1882 seeking treatment for his medical problems.

While there, he sent a dispatch to the *Courier-Journal* noting the arrival of a number of residents from Louisville.⁵⁴

Pryor died of Bright’s disease in the city hospital of Boston on August 25, 1882.⁵⁵ He was buried the following day in the Oak Grove Cemetery, Gloucester, Massachusetts, and an obituary, probably written by his friend, E. R. Walker, formerly of Louisville, but then resident in Gloucester, appeared in that city’s newspaper. An enlarged version of that obituary appeared the following day in Louisville, an excerpt of which follows:

Dr. Pryor was known to all *COURIER-JOURNAL* readers by his admirable letter from the Southern and Northern States over the signature “Pan-Handle.” His short stories, published from time to time in this paper, were very popular, and were the best short stories ever published in the *COURIER-JOURNAL*. He was a very accomplished and cultivated gentleman, exceedingly agreeable in his manner and in his conversation, refined in his nature, and with a keen zest for the beautiful in art and nature. His love for flowers and little children was intense, and he was never so happy as when visiting a florist’s and selecting flower for his friends. He knew flowers and their structure intimately, and wrote and talked about them as if they were personal friends.

This passion for beautiful flowers was always recognized by Dr. Pryor’s friends, and during his last illness the sick room in St. Joseph’s Infirmary was bright and fragrant with the flowers he loved best. Dr. Pryor was a man of wide information, but he was never obtrusive in imparting it. He was a patient listener and vivacious and entertaining when talking. The young and the old and the middle aged were fond of him. He will be sadly missed in many homes in Louisville.⁵⁶

This part of his obituary is quoted as it gives an entirely different impression of Pryor in his later life rather than one based solely on a review of his career as editor of the *Dallas Herald*. **L**

NOTES

¹Donald E. Reynolds, *Editors Make War* (Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press, 1970).

²Marilyn McAdams Sibley, *Texas Newspapers before the Civil War* (College Station, TX: Texas A&M University Press, c1983).

³John Williams Rogers, *The Lusty Texans of Dallas* (New York, NY: Dutton, 1960), 74.

⁴See <https://tennesseepryors.com/2011/04/affluent-pryor-families-in-virginia/>. Phillip Pryor and Susanna C. Wilkes were married on July 5, 1802. The bondsman was Burwell Wilkes. Also see John Vogt, T. William Kethley, Jr., *Brunswick County Marriages, 1750-1853* (Athens, GA.: Iberia Publ. Co., 1988), 108. To that union were born eight children, five male and three female. Samuel Bland Pryor, born in 1820, and Charles Richard Pryor, born in 1822, were the youngest. Phillip Pryor died in 1825 and Susanna Pryor died in 1842. Further references include the following: Nova A. Lemons, "Dr. Samuel B. Pryor, Early Prominent Dallas County Resident," *The Dallas Journal*, 48 (June 2002):3; Stephen E. Radley, Jr., *Brunswick County, Virginia, Will Books* (Lawrenceville, VA: SP, 5, 1995), *Will Book*, 10, 206, and *Will Book* 14, 131. Phillip died on June 17, 1825. This latter date is important because of subsequent erroneous census data as to the date of birth of Charles.

⁵Robert S. Holzman, *Adapt or Perish, The Life of Gen. Roger A. Pryor* (Hamden, Conn.: Archon Books, 1979). His activity as a legislator was even noted in England. See *The Guardian* (London, England), April 21, 1860.

⁶U.S. Federal Census 1840, Brunswick County, Virginia, Susan Pryor.

⁷*Richmond Enquirer*, November 23, 1847.

⁸U.S. Federal Census 1850, Amelia County, Virginia.

⁹*Lynchburg Daily Virginian* (Lynchburg, VA), July 6, 1853. The course of study at that time at that university was only one-year long in length, a reflection of the knowledge of medicine at the time. It was not until 1892 that the required time was lengthened to two years.

¹⁰U.S. Federal Census 1860, Dallas County, TX. In 1853, Samuel named his third son after Charles.

¹¹*Dallas Herald*, December 8, 1855.

¹²S.W. Geiser, "Texas Men of Science," *Field and Laboratory*, 27, no. 4 (October, 1959): 178. Charles Pryor was one of the earliest pioneers of Texas considered as a scientist.

¹³*Dallas Herald*, September 15, 1858. It is recorded that C. R. Pryor assisted his brother and Dr. A. A. Johnson in removing birdshot from the eye of a Dr. Henry Scott.

¹⁴Marie Louise Giles, "The Early History of Medicine in Dallas, 1841-1900," M.A. Thesis, University of Texas at Austin, 1951, 5. A less sympathetic view of some Texas physicians is given in Mrs. George Planchett Red, *The Medicine Man in Texas* (Houston, Standard Printing Co., 1980), 80-83.

¹⁵*Handbook of Texas Online*, "Dallas Herald," accessed September 22, 2018. *The Dallas Herald* was founded by Latimer and William Wallace in 1849. Wallace retired in 1850, and Latimer became the sole owner and editor. In 1854, J.W. Swindells became a co-owner of the newspaper.

¹⁶There is a plethora of references for this period. For example, see Walter L. Buenger, *Secession and the Union in Texas* (Austin, TX: University of Texas Press, 2012); Eric Foner, *Politics and Ideology in the Age of the Civil War* (New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 1980); and David S. Reynolds, *John Brown, Abolitionist* (New York, NY: Alfred A Knopf, 2005).

¹⁷*Dallas Herald*, November 3, 1858. About the same time, Pryor's horse, saddle, and harness were stolen, presumably by a deserter from Fort Belknap in Young County. It was noted that at the time such dishonesty was rare in Dallas County. See *Dallas Herald*, November 10, 1858.

¹⁸*Dallas Herald*, February 16, 1859. Among the others mentioned were John J. Good and A. J. Witt. N. H. Darnell was later to defeat Good for that position. See *Dallas Herald*, August 3, 1859. In spite of the opposition of Latimer and Pryor to Sam Houston's candidacy for governor, he was elected.

¹⁹*Texas State Gazette* (Austin, TX), March 19, 1859.

²⁰*Dallas Herald*, April 6, 1859. This was the day of publication and the masthead still carried Latimer's name as editor. His obituary, most likely written by Pryor, appeared the following week. See *Houston Telegraph*, April 20, 1859, for an assessment of Latimer's contributions. J. W. Latimer and J. W. Swindells were publishers of the newspaper. Swindells had become a partner of Latimer in 1854, bringing not only some printing skills but financial support to the newspaper. See *The WPA Dallas Guide and History* (Denton, TX: University of North Texas Press, 1992), 56-57.

²¹*Dallas Herald*, July 6, 1859.

²²*Dallas Herald*, April 20 and 27, 1859. Apparently the Governor of each of the Southern states appointed two representatives from each of the congressional districts. However, according to *The Times-Picayune of New Orleans* (June 26, 1859), not all representatives attended. In particular, it is not known that Pryor actually went. The primary topic of discussion was the African slave trade and the laws of the United States relative to the trade.

²³*Dallas Herald*, April 25, 1859. The name of William Sprowls is especially to be noted because of his probable involvement as "the highly respectable gentlemen" in the editorial of August 10, 1859.

²⁴*Dallas Herald*, June 22, 1859; July 6, 1859. The latter issue contains the comparison as well as a short description of the Know Nothing Party in Texas. Also see, for example, Frank H. Smyrl, "Unionism in Texas, 1856-1861," *Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, 68, no. 2 (October 1964): 172.

²⁵*Dallas Herald*, August 10, 1859. These events, especially those mistakenly portraying McKinney as a Methodist, were recounted in newspapers published mostly in September and October of 1859.

²⁶*The Liberator* (Boston, MA), September 18, 1858. The editorial was entitled "The Depravity of the American Press."

²⁷Elements of the story were republished in newspapers ranging from Mississippi in the South, to Vermont in the North, and from New York in the East to Wisconsin in the West, appearing mostly in September and October of 1859 with the mistaken information that McKinney was a Methodist minister – a mistake carried over into some articles and books of the present day. McKinney was in fact a Campbellite (Church of Christ) minister.

²⁸*Dallas Herald*, March 7, 1860.

²⁹*Dallas Herald*, March 14, 1860. This issue perhaps reinforces William Lloyd Garrison's views on the "depravity of the American press" as given in an editorial of *The Liberator* (Boston, MA), September 11, 1858, and surely is a part of a book: Donald E. Reynolds, *Editors Make War: Southern Newspapers in the Secession Crisis* (Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press, 1970).

³⁰Pryor sent numerous letters over the country from his temporary office in Bonham, Texas. For example "An extra from the Bonham (Texas) Era of the 17th Inst. received to-night by the land mail from Charles C. R. Pryor, editor of Dallas Herald," *Albany Evening Journal* (NY), July 26, 1860.

³¹*Texas State Gazette* (Austin, TX), August 25, 1860.

³²*The Weekly Telegraph* (Houston, TX), January 11, 1860.

³³*Dallas Herald*, December 5, 1860. Samuel Pryor supplemented his income as a doctor by being in the drug store business; perhaps Charles Pryor did so by becoming an editor.

³⁴*Dallas Herald*, January 2, 1861.

³⁵United States National Archives, Washington, D.C., Records of the Adjutant General's Office, Civil War – Confederate Soldiers in Texas, Microcopy NO. M323, Roll 83. There is only one card in his file which noted that Pryor had a horse valued at \$100 and equipment valued at \$100. His age was given as 35. He enlisted for twelve months from the fifteenth day of February 1862.

³⁶Richard G. Lowe, *Walker's Texas Division, C.S.A.: Greyhounds of the Trans-Mississippi* (Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press, 2004).

³⁷*Handbook of Texas Online*, Tim Bell, "Fourteenth Texas Cavalry."

³⁸*The Southern Intelligencer* (Austin, TX), July 7, 1865. In a letter to the editor in which he declined to run for office as governor of Texas, John Hancock, a very prominent lawyer of Austin, described the situation: "In the present completely disorganized condition of our civil state government . . ." the Texas Legislature had not been convened since 1863, and Murrah's appointment of Pryor could not meet the

legal requirement imposed by Article V, Section 16, of the Constitution of 1861, that the Senate confirm such an appointment.

³⁹*Texas State Gazette* (Austin, TX), May 3, 1865.

⁴⁰*Houston Tri-Weekly Telegraph*, August 25, 1865.

⁴¹Dudley G. Wooten, *A Complete History of Texas* (Dallas, TX: The Texas History Company, 1899), 374.

⁴²*Alexandria Gazette* (Alexandria, VA.), November 18, 1862.

⁴³*Texas State Gazette* (Austin, TX), August 1, 1865.

⁴⁴*Austin Gazette*, August 19, 1865.

⁴⁵*Dallas Herald*, October 20, 1866.

⁴⁶*Dallas Herald*, March 7, 1868: advertisement: "Pryor and Hill, Wholesale and Retail Druggists." Hill soon dropped out of the partnership.

⁴⁷*Dallas Herald*, September 11, 1869.

⁴⁸*Dallas Herald*, June 15, 1872.

⁴⁹For example, there is an obscure reference to a "Charles Pryor" as a correspondent of the *Commercial* (Leavenworth, KS), March 19, 1874. Much more definitive would be a reference to "Charles R. Pryor," but that is hardly conclusive. Such a name of a person born in Virginia and a physician is much more conclusive.

⁵⁰*Shaker Manifesto*, 8, no. 3 (March 1878): 65. The letter is dated February 1, 1878, and posted from Cairo, Illinois, and is signed "Charles R. Pryor."

⁵¹U.S. Federal Census 1880, Mercer County, Kentucky. The entry is mistakenly indexed as "C. P. Pryor." Ms. Vanessa Wood, associated with the website of the "Tennessee Pryors," is thanked for this reference.

⁵²*The Courier-Journal* (Louisville, KY), March 6, 1882. Earlier in the year, he had been visiting in Boston. See *The Boston Globe*, January 1, 1882.

⁵³*The Courier-Journal* (Louisville, KY), March, 5, 1882.

⁵⁴*The Courier-Journal* (Louisville, KY), July 16, 1882.

⁵⁵"Deaths Registered in the City of Boston," August 25, 1882. The cause of death was listed as "chronic Brights" and his birthplace as Virginia, with a hometown of Louisville, KY. His age was given as 50. Bright's disease has been described as a chronic inflammation of the kidneys, "nephritis."

⁵⁶*The Courier-Journal* (Louisville, KY), August 27, 1882.

J. L. Long

Bringing Dallas Schools into the 20th Century

BY TERESA MUSGROVE

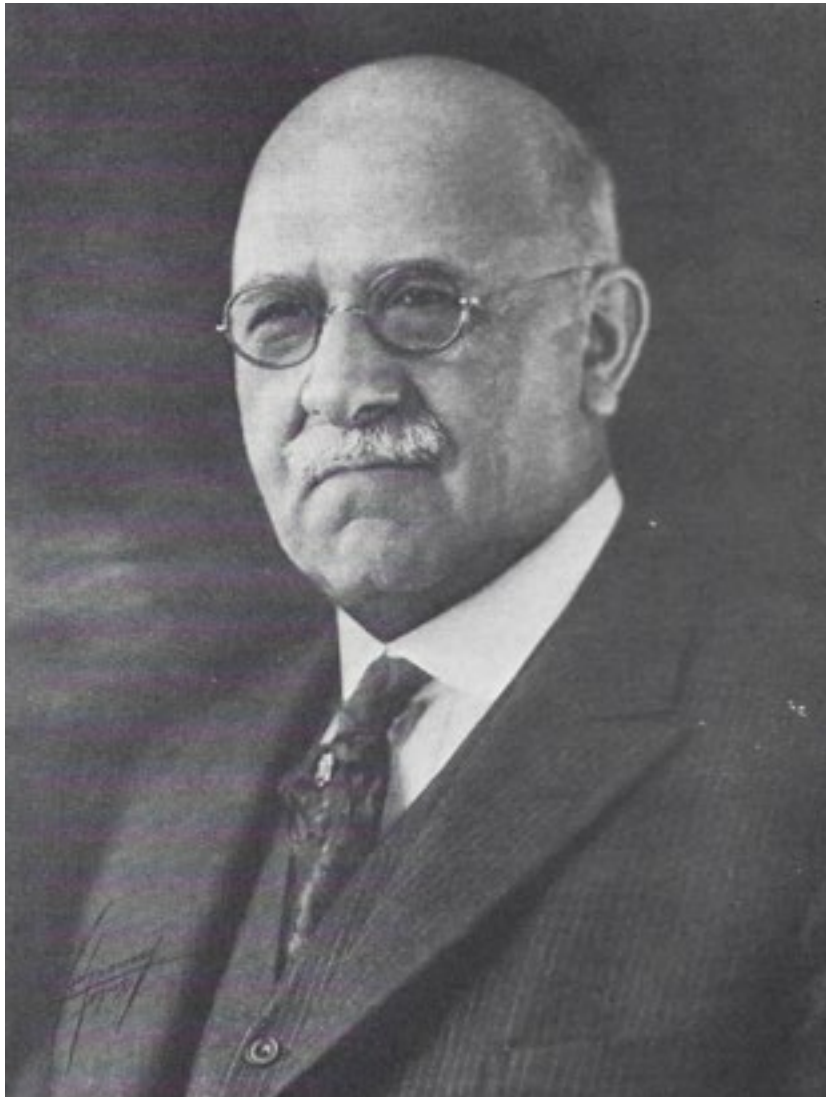
*J*ohn Lawson Long, fifth superintendent of the Dallas public schools, brought stability and a vision for the future to a city dealing with significant growing pains at the turn of the 20th century. Under his fifteen years of leadership, the city became unified in an effort to bring the best instructors, facilities, curriculum, and opportunities to the schoolchildren of Dallas.

Born October 26, 1859, in Newberry, South Carolina, John Long attended “country schools” and received his bachelor’s degree from Newberry College. He then attended the prestigious George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tennessee, from which he earned his master’s degree in 1882.¹ Upon graduation, Long traveled by horseback from Tennessee to his first teaching job in Omen, Texas, sixteen miles southeast of Tyler. The young educator was hired to teach mathematics at the Summer Hill Select School, a private boarding school with an excellent reputation. During his three years’ employ-

ment in Omen, Long also served a one-year term as mayor of the town.²

From 1886 to 1893, Long quickly acquired statewide attention in Texas education. In 1886, he moved to Galveston to teach 6th grade mathematics, and by 1889, he became the first principal of the Rosenberg High School, at the time the largest school in the largest city in Texas.³ In 1890 he was elected president of the Texas State Teachers Association. He also served as business manager for the *Texas Journal of Education* and on the State Board of Examiners for Teacher’s Certifications. Long became well known throughout the State of Texas for his administrative skills as well as for his scholarship in educational research.⁴

During this time, the City of Dallas operated thirteen public schools with a total student population of 4,191.⁵ The Board of Education, a department of the City of Dallas, was composed of twelve members, representing each ward of the city, elected at large for two-year terms.⁶ Between



John L. Long served as Superintendent of Dallas Schools from 1893 until 1908.

1884, the first year of the corporate ownership of the schools by the City of Dallas, and 1893, there had been four superintendents.⁷

In the spring of 1893, the Board met to elect a new superintendent. Voting commenced during the Board's meeting on April 24, with ballot after ballot ending in a tie, with six votes for the current superintendent, T. G. Harris, and six votes for the previous superintendent, J. T. Hand. After 53 ballots, the Board looked to the mayor of Dallas, Winship Connor, to break the tie, which

he refused to do because he was not a member of the Board. Connor did suggest, however, that both Hand and Harris be dropped from the election and new names considered.

The Board agreed, and Mayor Connor nominated J. L. Long, principal of the Rosenberg School, and read aloud a telegram from the Texas Superintendent of Public Schools, Oscar Cooper, endorsing Long as a potential candidate. Voting started once more, ending with the unanimous election of Long as Dallas's new Superintendent of Schools.⁸

News traveled quickly throughout the state of Long's selection as Dallas's chief of schools. Galveston residents were shocked and saddened to learn of his election. Long told the Galveston newspaper: "The position was unsolicited on my part, and I never expected that I should have been elected." However, when asked if he would accept the position, Long replied that "in all probability he would."⁹ On May 1, 1893, Long formally resigned his position with the Galveston schools and told the Dallas Board of Education that he would report for duty on July 1. The salary of his new office was reported to be \$2,000 per year.¹⁰

It seems highly unusual that the Dallas Board of Education chose a superintendent who had not even applied for the job, but this points to a sign of desperate need. The City of Dallas and its schools were at a critical juncture in 1893, due to the rapid growth in population and a need to modernize the schools. The correct leadership was needed to pull the schools up and set them on a successful course into the next century. Although historic documents do not detail much animosity between the former superintendents and the Board of Education, the fact that the Board chose to elect a new chief of schools every other year shows its dissatisfaction with the incumbents. Three of the predecessors to J. L. Long were all over the age of fifty when they served as superintendent, possibly all harkening to a more old-fashioned method of teaching and administration. Long was 33 years old when he was chosen to head the Dallas schools, and he had the youthful energy to take on the challenges of a growing school system.¹¹

When Long reported to Dallas in July 1893, he faced several challenges, most importantly the state of student health and hygiene. The late winter and early spring brought childhood diseases, which at times depleted some classrooms. Vaccines for these illnesses, such as measles and the flu, had not yet been discovered. But one communicable disease that affected both children and adults did have an available vaccine—smallpox. Smallpox was very contagious and often led to

death. Persons in Dallas who contracted the disease suffered from high fever, chills, and a rash that turned into pox sores, and they were quarantined in pest houses on Main or Good streets until they recovered or died.¹² The superintendent spoke to the Board in 1899 about the possibility of always requiring students to be vaccinated against smallpox. "I respectfully suggest that all pupils who have not heretofore been vaccinated, be required to be vaccinated within a specified time."¹³ Dr. Frank J. Hall, who worked closely with the school board to monitor student health, provided free inoculations for those who needed it.¹⁴ In 1907, Superintendent Long asked the Health Board to "pass a resolution requiring all children to be vaccinated before the opening of the coming school term." Long's request was approved by the city Health Board, and students who did not provide satisfactory proofs of vaccination were expelled.¹⁵ Long's smallpox vaccination policy remained in effect in Dallas until the disease was eradicated in the late 1970s.

Concerns over student health and hygiene were often reported by the local media. An 1891 article in the *Dallas Daily Times Herald* criticized the way in which the schools provided drinking water for students. "The water is placed in wooden pails arranged on a high shelf out in the open yard for sun and shade to strike it alternately. There is no ice in it and it soon becomes like so much warm slop."¹⁶ By 1899, under J. L. Long's direction, the wooden pails were replaced with large galvanized iron tanks with eight faucets. Several graniteware cups were attached to the faucets with chains for the students to use for dispensing and drinking water. The tanks would hold "plenty of good cistern water . . . and . . . this water and not the water from the river will be furnished [to] the children."¹⁷ When the new Dallas High School was built near the end of Long's tenure, it became the first school building in Dallas to have modern water fountains.

Other basic comforts were met within ten years. As the city of Dallas installed sewer lines throughout the neighborhoods, schools gradually began to tear down outhouses and install indoor



When J. L. Long became Superintendent in 1893, Dallas schools were experiencing such rapid growth in student population that overcrowding was becoming a major problem. This photo of 600-700 students outside Cumberland Hill Elementary School was taken by Henry Clogenson and published in *The Dallas Morning News* on May 10, 1903.

plumbing, usually in the basements of the school buildings. All Dallas schools were retro-fitted with toilet rooms by 1907. Long also advocated for the installation of steam heat radiators instead of coal burning stoves, which had been used for heating the schools since they were built. He said, “With pupils in one corner of the room scorched by the heat from coal stoves, while those in other corners had to wear their overcoats in order to be comfortable, circumstances have not favored concentrated mental effort. We want to make every school room comfortable, believing that comfort is conducive to study.”¹⁸

One of the superintendent’s primary tasks was to ensure that all schoolchildren were attending classes regularly. Long often took to

the newspaper to plead with parents to enforce school attendance, especially during the months of April and May when truancy increased. One of Long’s more memorable essays appeared in an April 1906 *Dallas Morning News* in which he wrote: “First, the spring season, with its fishing, baseball, and other outside allurements. Second, the skating rink craze that many of our pupils have not been able to resist. Not only are some cases of truancy chargeable to its influence, but teachers report that there is a noticeable deterioration in the quality of work done by those pupils who are habitual attendants at the skating rinks. It is to be hoped that parents will cooperate with the school authorities in an effort to see their children are faithful to their school duties



Manual training classes, enrolling both girls and boys, opened in 1903 in an abandoned fire station behind the Central High School.

for the remaining weeks of this term.”¹⁹

The two biggest events enticing students away from school were the circus and the State Fair of Texas, both of which had regular dates in Dallas every fall. In 1896, Superintendent Long conceded that the schools simply could not compete with the circus. He declared September 28 and October 5 holidays from school so that “everybody [was] permitted to see as many elephants as they could.”²⁰ Likewise, after more than ten years of seeing school attendance drop during the State Fair, with such attractions as “Shoot the Chutes” and amazing side shows, Long gave in to the schoolchildren and gave them a State

Fair holiday in 1905. This holiday became known as Dallas Public Schools Day at the Fair and has been observed ever since.²¹

Among J. L. Long’s concerns regarding attendance were the students who were unable to attend school because they were employed. In 1902, the Board of Education received an impassioned plea from George C. Edwards, an Oak Cliff teacher who advocated for better conditions for the children working at the Dallas Cotton Mills. The mills, located on several acres at Lamar and Corinth streets, contained 12,000 spindles and 372 looms, with employees working 12- to 15-hour shifts, turning Texas harvested cotton into

yarn, thread, and cloth to be shipped by train all over the country. Eight- to 12-year-old children were cheap labor, only earning about 40 cents per day, enabling the mill to reap higher profits.²² Edwards asked the Board of Education to provide a night school for the cotton mill children so that they could learn to read and write. The Board agreed that a night school was a worthy cause and authorized Superintendent Long to organize the school.²³ In September 1902, the first night school for cotton mill children was opened in a “roomy and convenient building on South Lamar Street.” Approximately fifty children studied under the instruction of two teachers every evening, Monday through Friday, from 7 to 8:30. After two months, George Edwards called the school a “stupendous success. The children show a great disposition to study and are eager and quick to learn.”²⁴ J. L. Long made a visit to the cotton mills night school in 1903 and reported, “This is the second year of the school and proves that the effort is no longer an experiment but a necessary and successful undertaking.”²⁵

Another issue which concerned Superintendent Long was the small number of teenage boys graduating high school. In 1895, the 24 graduates of Central High School were composed of 18 girls and 6 boys, which led Long to lament, “It is to be regretted that so few of our boys even complete the high school course.”²⁶ Many teenage boys dropped out of school after the eighth grade in order to go to work to help support their families. Through Long’s extensive educational research, he concluded that one way to keep boys in school was to offer courses that would help them become gainfully employed. Manual training schools offered practical lessons in woodworking, metalwork, and mechanical drawing, all trades that, once learned, could lead to careers for those who were not college-bound. Such courses were already a part of high school curriculums on the East Coast, but unheard of in Texas. Because offering a new program in the public schools would require a vote by the State Legislature, Long first took his plan to the Commercial Club of Dallas to gain support among

Dallas’s most prominent businessmen. This was a very forward thinking move on Long’s part, as he created a private sector partnership to help create a new alternative high school elective. Philip Sanger, of Sanger Brothers Department Store, immediately agreed that such a course of study would benefit Dallas’s youth and also Dallas’s businesses that needed skilled labor. Sanger and Long felt that “Dallas should be, must be, the first city in Texas to blaze the way” in establishing the new curriculum. Long was commissioned to look into the state laws regarding opening a new field of study in public schools and how it could be funded.²⁷

For the next six years, J. L. Long worked tirelessly to obtain passage of the necessary school law amendment authorizing manual training in the public schools and providing state funding for start-up costs. He wrote newspaper articles to help gain public support; and he used his influence with the Texas State Teachers Association in 1901 to have the group draft a resolution in support of an amendment to the school law, which was finally approved by the legislature in March 1903, no doubt due to Long’s persistence.²⁸

The superintendent acted quickly to get Dallas’s manual training program underway. Long hired O. A. Hanszen as principal of the program in Dallas. An abandoned fire station behind the Central High School was remodeled and equipped with drawing tables, work benches, and lathes. Sixty-six students enrolled in the new course, which opened in November 1903.²⁹ During the summer of 1904, a two-story frame annex was constructed next to the manual training school at the Central High School to house the new domestic science classes. Seventy-five girls enrolled for the courses in sewing and cooking. Superintendent Long was reported to be delighted with the students’ enthusiasm over their new courses and he looked forward to exhibitions of their handiwork.³⁰ The manual training department became the foundation of vocational and industrial education in Dallas.

Perhaps the most challenging aspect of the superintendent’s position was dealing with over-



Long was supported in his efforts to modernize schools by the members of the Dallas School Board. Long, Chair Victor Hexter, and Dr. Frank Hall are seated in the center of this 1907 group photo.

crowding in Dallas schools. When J. L. Long began his tenure in 1893, there were 4,191 children attending the thirteen schools in Dallas. At the end of his employment, 11,237 students were enrolled, a population nearly tripled in fifteen years.³¹ Most of the early Dallas schools were built with a capacity of 200 students (50 students in four rooms). As space and budgets allowed, the school board authorized building additions of four to eight rooms to alleviate crowding. But these additions did not solve the problems caused by the expansion of the Dallas city limits through annexation of surrounding towns and an ever growing population. Long dealt with the schoolroom shortage by enacting several stop-gaps. First, some students were transferred to a nearby school with extra desks or to the Central High School, which provided some extra rooms for elementary grades. Second, portable buildings were temporarily erected on playgrounds to provide extra classroom space. Third, some of the

crowded schools had to conduct half-day school in which one grade would attend classes until the noon recess, and after the lunch break, another grade would take its place until the afternoon release. Long said of his plan in a sternly worded report to the school board in 1896: “[it] works a hardship upon the teacher, who has two classes daily and gives to the children shorter hours in school than our rules contemplate, but it seemed to me the best thing that could be done under the circumstances. It was necessary to do this or else fit up another school room and employ another teacher. Considering the fact that the board is unable to pay the teachers already employed, I decided to adopt the plan outlined as a necessary expedient for the remainder of the year.”³²

Long’s remark about teachers working and not getting paid was an unfortunate truth about the City of Dallas budget. The city provided the schools a barebones budget each year for teacher salaries and maintenance, and emergency expen-



Originally constructed in 1876 as the Dallas Female College, this building was sold to the city in 1886 and became the first public high school. It was demolished in 1908 when the new Dallas High School was completed.

ditures for school repairs often left the schools operating in the red. In order to provide necessary funding for the schools, the city held school tax elections. The special school tax was proposed to be collected for two fiscal years at a time, equal to 25 cents per \$100 of property valuation.

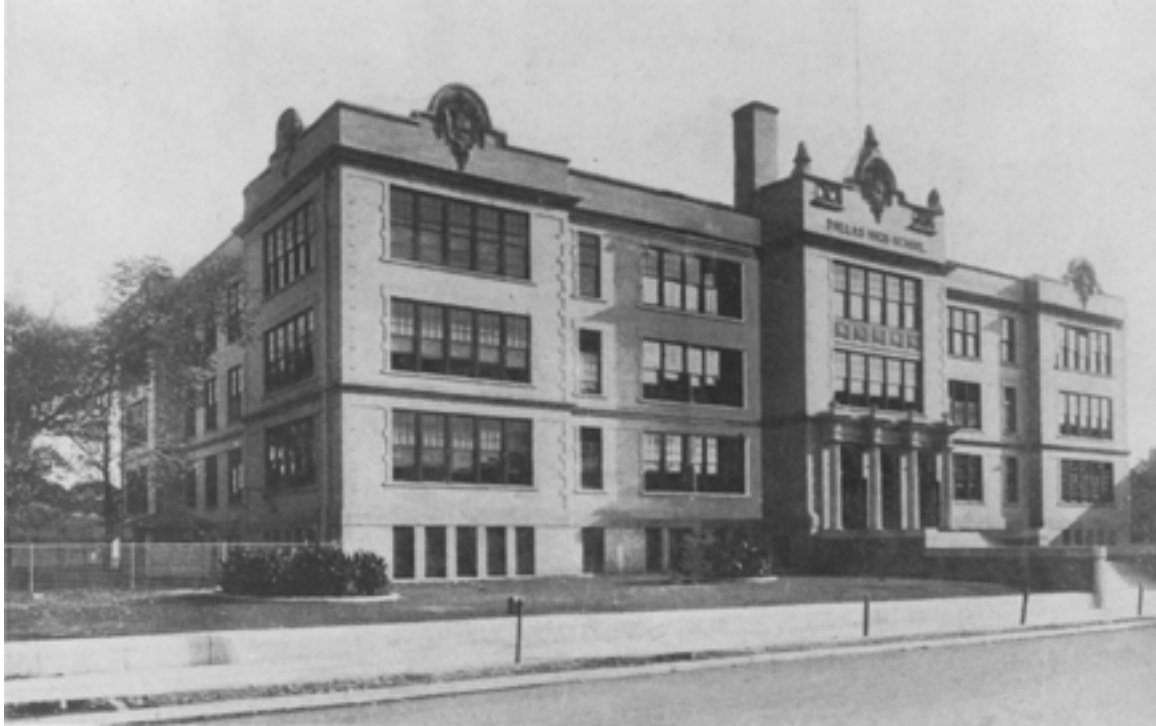
To gain support for the school tax, Long took to the media to plead for relief for the overcrowded schools. An eye-opening 1903 *Dallas Morning News* article titled “Near Danger Point” quoted the superintendent throughout as he presented facts about the ever increasing enrollments and included photos taken of hundreds of schoolchildren crowding the grounds at three of the most heavily populated schools (East Dallas, Oak Grove, and Akard Street). “Not only is the enrollment in the Dallas public schools constantly on the increase, but the ratio of increase is becoming astonishingly larger from year to year.”³³

There were four such elections during J. L. Long’s tenure, in 1896, 1900, 1902, and 1908, with school taxes winning approval in 1900 and 1902. Once the tax funds were collected, the proceeds allowed the city to purchase land and build new schools. New elementary schools constructed during Long’s tenure included the David Crockett and James Fannin schools in East Dallas,

the Colonial Hill School in South Dallas, and the John Reagan and James Bowie schools in Oak Cliff.³⁴

The success of these two tax elections gave Long the confidence to ask the school board and the city for what he felt was the greatest necessity of all—a new high school, which would be equal to any of the best facilities in the country. The high school on Bryan Street between Pearl and Hawkins was originally the Dallas Female College, a private Methodist boarding school for girls, built in 1876. After the college’s bankruptcy in 1886, the City of Dallas purchased the building and surrounding lot and used the facilities as Dallas’s first high school, called simply the Central High School.³⁵

There were many problems with the condition of the building, which Long described in several newspaper articles published within a seven-year period. From 1896: “The building now used for high school purposes is not adapted to the needs of a modern high school, lacking in design, construction, and capacity.”³⁶ From 1901: “There isn’t a single feature about that building which commends it to a man who is familiar with the workings of the school. The ceilings are low, the roof is bad, the walls are cracked and



Designed by the prominent local architectural firm Lang & Witchell, the new Dallas High School on Bryan Street opened in 1908, with the first lunchroom in a Dallas school and modern sanitary facilities.

damaged, and the floors are rough and furnish a splendid place for dust. . . . We need a building that will be a credit to the city of Dallas.”³⁷

In 1905 the Board of Education asked the City Council for a bond election to issue \$150,000 in municipal bonds to fund the building of a new high school. The election, held on November 14, 1905, resulted in an overwhelming approval for the high school bonds.³⁸

After receiving eighteen architectural plans for the new school, the board of education chose the design by the local firm Lang and Witchell in February 1906. The plan called for an Elizabethan style, three-story building to be constructed of steel-reinforced concrete and brick.³⁹ Long wanted the building to be efficiently arranged and in keeping with the best high school designs in the nation. In March he took architect Otto Lang with him on a trip to St. Louis to visit the schools there in order to obtain ideas that might be incorporated in the new Dallas High School.⁴⁰ The board chose to have the new school built as close to Bryan Street as possible, putting the new school directly in front of the Central High School, which would remain occupied by stu-

dents during construction. Work commenced in July 1907, and the construction was delayed by a scarcity of brick and steel. But as supplies were delivered, the new building slowly took shape. During the summer of 1908, the old Central High School was demolished so that the new building could be completed and finished in time for its opening in September.⁴¹

J. L. Long’s dream became a reality when the new Dallas High School opened on September 22, 1908. The three-story, cream colored brick school contained a large 1,100-seat auditorium. The manual training department was set up in the expansive basement and contained eight large workrooms. The basement also housed the Dallas schools’ first lunchroom. Hot lunches were served to students at a minimal cost, a plan first devised by the schools in St. Louis and advocated by Long. An automatic clock rang bells for the changing of classes. The building also included seventeen classrooms, four science labs, a library, and offices for the principal and superintendent. Restrooms and water fountains were available modern conveniences. Superintendent Long’s name appeared on the bronze plaque in the entrance, which also



Domestic Science classes were among the offerings in the new Dallas High School when it opened in 1908.

listed the school board members under whose direction the school was erected.⁴²

But J. L. Long was no longer associated with the Dallas schools when the new high school opened. On July 15, 1908, he tendered his resignation to the Dallas School Board, stating: "In order that I may be able to accept an advantageous offer of other employment, I respectfully ask that

you accept this, my resignation as superintendent of schools." Long told the board that he had been offered a position with the Southern Publishing Company, a textbook firm in Dallas.⁴³

City and school leaders appear to have been shocked by the sudden resignation. Former School Board President Victor Hexter wrote: "It would probably be too much to say that another



J. L. Long Junior High School opened in September 1933, three months following the death of former Superintendent Long.

man equal in ability cannot be found, but it is surely safe to predict that it will be hard to fill the vacancy with a man combining as Mr. Long does, that scholarship and executive ability so necessary in a successful school superintendent.”⁴⁴ Dr. Frank Hall said: “He it was who brought order out of the chaotic conditions that existed fifteen years ago. Under his wise and careful superintendency the schools have flourished without a single halt. The people of this city can never overestimate the value of his services.”⁴⁵ Central High School alumni sent their regrets in a resolution: “. . . on behalf of . . . all former students of the city public schools . . . we hereby request him to reconsider his resignation believing such reconsideration to be in the best interests of the public schools of the city.”⁴⁶

More evidence of the high esteem that J. L. Long held with city leaders was shown by the petition signed by 120 of Dallas’s most important

officials and merchants, requesting that he reconsider his decision, stating: “We, the undersigned citizens of the city of Dallas . . . do hereby request that you reconsider your action in resigning and continue the great work you have heretofore done to the great benefit of our children and the city.” Long responded: “. . . while I deeply appreciate the compliment you pay me and while I feel grateful to you for the way in which you have given expression to your approval of my work as Superintendent of the Dallas Schools, I cannot feel that my best interests will be served by abandoning the course I decided upon a few weeks ago.”⁴⁷

Long was employed by Southern Publishing for five years and then became president of the Practical Drawing Company in 1914, a Dallas-based manufacturer and distributor of school supplies, which he led for the next seventeen years.⁴⁸ In July 1931, J. L. Long suffered a stroke while

traveling home by train from a vacation trip to Canada. He remained bedridden in his home at 4522 Ross Avenue until his death on June 4, 1933. He was buried at Restland Memorial Park.⁴⁹

Three months later on September 17, 1933, the J. L. Long Junior High School opened as the second junior high in the Dallas school system. It was a fitting memorial, as the junior high school was a new educational method for public schools, and certainly one that J. L. Long would have embraced. During the dedication ceremony of the new school on December 7, 1933, his son, George Lawson Long, presented the school with an oil portrait of his father, where it is still displayed today.⁵⁰

Philip Lindsley, who wrote *A History of Early Dallas and Vicinity* in 1909, perfectly summed up the former superintendent's accomplishments: "Under Professor Long's able and efficient management, the Dallas public school system was advanced to its present high standard, his work keeping pace with the growth of the city."⁵¹ **L**

NOTES

¹Harry T. Warner, *Texans and Their State: a Newspaper Reference Work* (Houston: Texas Biographical Association, 1918) 84.

²Walter J. E. Schiebel, *Education in Dallas: Ninety-Two Years of History 1874-1966* (Dallas: Dallas Independent School District, 1966) 166.

³"Short Session," *The Galveston Daily News* (hereafter cited as *GDN*), December 23, 1886; "The Rosenberg School," *GDN*, February 16, 1889.

⁴Warner, *Texans and Their State*, 84.

⁵"The Dallas School Board," *The Dallas Morning News* (hereafter cited as *DMN*), October 17, 1893.

⁶"The Primary Election," *DMN*, February 11, 1900.

⁷Barbara A. Ware, "Genealogical Records of Superintendents of the Dallas Independent School District, 1884-2010," *The Dallas Journal* 56 (October 2010): 17; Jackie McElhane, "Dallas Public Schools: The First Decade," in *Dallas Rediscovered*, ed. by Michael V. Hazel (Dallas: Three Forks Press, 1995), 39-44.

⁸"The Dallas School Board," *DMN*, April 25, 1893.

⁹"Professor Long's Appointment," *GDN*, April 26, 1893.

¹⁰"The High Water Mark," *GDN*, May 5, 1893.

¹¹Ware, "Genealogical Records."

¹²John S. Fordtran, "Medicine in Dallas 100 Years Ago," <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1312211/> (Accessed October 8, 2018).

¹³"The Dallas School Board," *DMN*, November 14, 1899.

¹⁴"Talk About Election," *DMN*, November 14, 1905.

¹⁵"Increase is Shown," *DMN*, September 21, 1907.

¹⁶"Local Notes," *The Dallas Daily Times Herald*, October 2, 1891.

¹⁷"Dallas Public Schools," *DMN*, September 10, 1899.

¹⁸"Steam Heating for Schools," *DMN*, August 28, 1907.

¹⁹"More Room Needed," *DMN*, April 10, 1906.

²⁰"School Board Meeting," *DMN*, September 16, 1896.

²¹"Issues a Statement," *DMN*, October 22, 1905.

²²*Report of the Industrial Commission on the Distribution of Farm Products*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1901.

²³"A School for Mill Hands," *DMN*, July 16, 1902.

²⁴"Bad Sidewalks the Cause," *DMN*, November 29, 1902.

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²⁸"For Manual Training," *DMN*, March 25, 1903.

²⁹"For Manual Training," *DMN*, August 29, 1903.

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³¹"School Board Hears Report from Buildings," *DMN*, April 7, 1908.

³²"The School Board," *DMN*, February 11, 1896.

³³"Near Danger Point," *DMN*, May 10, 1903.

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³⁶"Round About Town," *DMN*, January 26, 1896.

³⁷"High School is Needed," *DMN*, November 5, 1901.

³⁸"Vote Very Light," *DMN*, November 15, 1905.

³⁹"Select Plans," *DMN*, February 27, 1906.

⁴⁰"Inspection of High Schools," *DMN*, March 11, 1906.

⁴¹"School Board Begins by Abolishing Office," *DMN*, April 24, 1908.

⁴²"Large High School Ready for Opening," *DMN*, September 20, 1908.

⁴³"Resigns His Place with City Schools," *DMN*, July 16, 1908.

⁴⁴"Mr. Hexter Expresses Regret," *DMN*, July 19, 1908.

⁴⁵"Testimonial for Supt. Long," *DMN*, July 24, 1908.

⁴⁶"Alumni Ask Mr. Long to Remain in Charge," *DMN*, July 31, 1908.

⁴⁷"J. L. Long Answers Petition," *DMN*, August 5, 1908.

⁴⁸Wylie A. Parker, "J. L. Long, Princely Gentleman and Leader in Public Education," *Texas Outlook* 7 (July 1933): 11.

⁴⁹"J. L. Long, 73, Texas Educator, Dies of Stroke," *DMN*, June 5, 1933.

⁵⁰"J. L. Long High Dedicated with Educator Lauded," *DMN*, December 8, 1933.

⁵¹Philip Lindsley, *A History of Greater Dallas and Vicinity, Volume 2* (Chicago, 1909), 13.

“Not Organizing for the Fun of It”

Suffrage, War, and Dallas Women in 1918

BY MELISSA PRYGER

Every now and then, historical forces collide in a way that, when looking back, make absolute sense. But for those living in the moment, it can be overwhelming and exhausting. In March 1918, Dallas women experienced two distinct, but connected triumphs: they opened a large canteen, serving all the soldiers passing through the city on their way to World War I battlefields. And they also won the right to vote in Texas primaries. Many women worked on both major causes. Though we can't know exactly what Dallas women felt, it doesn't take much historical imagination to feel their exhaustion and their joy during the events of March 1918.

By the 1910s, many middle class and upper class women in Dallas were involved in at least one organization or women's club. Called club-women, these movers and shakers had launched successful campaigns to build a public library, create a public art museum, and construct playgrounds, among many other causes. These wom-

en also formed the nucleus for various suffrage groups. And of course, very few of these women were in just one club.

Although the battle in the United States for women's suffrage began in the 1840s, the first organization for women's suffrage didn't form in Texas until 1893. On May 10, a group of interested parties gathered in Dallas to form the Texas Equal Rights Association. In an interview with *The Dallas Morning News*, organizer Rebecca Henry Hayes of Galveston said: “But seriously, when I thought of holding this convention and began to reach out over the state with letters, the answers were so favorable, I commenced to think we would not have opposition enough even for a fight, and that discouraged me, for I'm naturally combative.” When asked about the other women joining her, she replied, “Every one of them is a power in herself, cultured and talented and willing to give her time and means to the cause. We are not organizing for the fun of it. We



The fight for woman suffrage was part of a larger campaign for progressive reforms in the early 20th century, as indicated in this *Dallas Morning News* cartoon drawn by John Knott.



The well organized and successful campaign by women to gain the right to vote in state primaries convinced enough legislators, including Dallas representative Barry Miller, to vote in favor of the bill, which passed in March 1918.

are all women of middle age and know what we are about.”¹ They welcomed men to their cause and noted that Texas was one of the last southern states to begin such an organization. The goal for the movement at the time was state suffrage, not a federal amendment. That fall, about 300 women attended a “congress” of women during the State Fair. Large conventions during the State Fair continued in 1894 and 1895, but by 1896, the Texas Equal Rights Association had ceased to function.

The Dallas Equal Suffrage Association formed in 1913, in time for its members to attend the first state suffrage convention in almost a decade. In just six weeks, almost 150 women joined.² Requirements for membership were rather broad. In a November article, the Association invited “all women who are interested in the equal rights of the sexes . . . to join the association and become identified with the movement, whether they care to do active work in the movement or not.”³ Beyond membership, the Dallas suffragists made plans to host a booth throughout the entire run of the State Fair, under the auspices of the Texas State Suffrage Association. They determined to “make this a comfortable and inviting place for women visiting the exposition by furnishing it with a desk, chairs and attractive conveniences. Free literature regarding the ‘cause’ will be distributed every day, and souvenirs of the Dallas organization will be given away.”⁴ The focus was clearly on charm, not politics.

The Dallas suffragists also declared October 23 as Equal Suffrage Day at the Fair. More than 300 women gathered to hear speeches by Mrs. W. E. Spell of Waco, vice president of the Texas Equal Suffrage Association, as well as other suffragist leaders, including Miss Kate Gordon of New Orleans. Using the Fair as a prime opportunity both to reach potential new supporters as well as connect with suffragists throughout the state, their work continued in 1914 and 1915. In 1915, they used the coincidence of Equal Suffrage Day also being Traveling Man’s Day and vowed to get an Equal Suffrage badge on every salesman attending. Later, the *Dallas Times Herald* reported that with “a diplomacy that would make Eng-

land’s cabinet sick with envy in getting a ‘Votes for Women’ badge on every traveling salesman . . . the highways and byways are golden with the admonition of the cause.”⁵

As great an opportunity as the State Fair provided, the greatest opportunity for the suffragist cause came with the entry of the United States into World War I in 1917. Unlike previous wars, women during World War I were more active and directly involved in the war effort. Large marketing campaigns quickly began to encourage women to practice economy at home, as well as get involved in various fundraising efforts and bond campaigns. However, this inclusion was still limited to what women often did at home or in their existing social circles. For many Dallas women, their war work was centered in their club work.

When the war broke out, women’s clubs in Dallas quickly and easily shifted into war work. Many of these groups consolidated their efforts in order to be most efficient, forming the National League of Women’s Service. Individual clubs, and later the City Federation of Women’s Clubs, combined to educate women about food conservation, register women’s skills for possible war work, and sell war bonds. Women were already connected in a way they hadn’t been before, which enabled them to move quickly once war was declared. Their involvement in World War I was unprecedented, but it would not have been possible without the existing network of clubs.

One of the greatest accomplishments by clubwomen was made by the Dallas Federation of Women’s Clubs with its efforts at running a canteen for soldiers passing through Dallas. In January 1918, H. A. Olmstead, chair of the Dallas Council of Defense, pledged support from Dallas businessmen if the clubwomen were willing to take charge of the canteen. He stated that such a canteen would be “a big advertisement for Dallas. The soldiers would write to their various homes and tell of the hospitality of the Dallas women.”⁶ The Federation would receive no financial assistance from the state, but would have to raise all operational funds. The members got to work immediately, with various clubs planning fundraisers

or pledging money. By the end of February, rent money for two months had been pledged, as well as \$250 towards furniture. These women believed that “it is our responsibility to help safeguard the morals of the men in uniform who come to our city.”⁷⁷ They promised that everything would be done to make the soldiers feel that the canteen, staffed by volunteers from twenty-seven women’s clubs, “is a place to be sought out whenever they are in town.”⁷⁸

Activities included food, reading material, stationery to write letters home, and an eight-piece orchestra which performed nightly for supervised dancing. In just three months, they served over 10,000 men. Just before the canteen opened, there was a great debate as to what this canteen would be named. Many wanted to call it the Dallas Canteen, but the club women involved wanted the canteen to be immediately identified with their work: “While we are glad to have non-federated clubs and individuals who are interested and wish to do so, do so, it is the work of the Federation and the name of the canteen should suggest that it is conducted under the auspices of the City Federation.”⁷⁹ These women wanted full credit for their work. In newspaper articles, the canteen was referred to as the Recreational Canteen, under the auspices of the City Federation of Women’s Clubs.

By early summer, the canteen was deemed “a howling success.”¹⁰ But in July, the Dallas War Camp Community Service took over management of the canteen because it was unable to give support money to outside organizations—and the canteen was costing far more than the City Federation had planned for. However, these club-women were optimistic in passing the torch. One of the organizers “deemed it quite a compliment that the War Camp Community Service wanted to take the canteen over—that it was the biggest feather in the Federation’s cap and she was highly gratified.”¹¹ Federation members continued their volunteer work with the canteen, but they were no longer responsible for the finances.

In the midst of increasing war work throughout the country, Minnie Fisher Cunningham,

president of the state suffrage association, saw a unique opening in state politics. Six months earlier, the suffragists had worked with others to have Governor Jim Ferguson impeached. He was staunchly anti-suffrage, and they knew he would likely veto any bill that passed the legislature. With mounting charges of corruption against Ferguson, Cunningham saw an opportunity to “break the power of corrupt politics in Texas.”¹² When it began to look as if their efforts would be successful, she wrote to Carrie Chapman Catt, leader of the national suffrage movement, for advice: “After we get impeachment, the Lieutenant Governor will call a special session of the Legislature. . . . It seems to me a wonderfully opportune moment to ask them to put through our primary suffrage bill. What do you think? Would you advise it?”¹³ The new Governor, W. P. Hobby, was in favor of primary suffrage, and they decided to begin an advocacy campaign for the March 1918 special session. Because Texas was essentially a one-party state at the time, the ability to vote in the primaries was almost the equivalent of full state suffrage. Their tactic relied on modern technology—sending a telegram every fifteen minutes to State Senators, signed by prominent local residents. They were also able to capitalize on the disgust many felt at the charges against the impeached governor. In September 1917, Cunningham had written to Catt: “It has been full six weeks since I have found any man with the temerity to look us in the eye and say he opposed women’s voting in the face of the outrageous condition that has been proven to prevail in our state government.”¹⁴

The time was also ripe in Dallas for activity. Between war work and the momentum of the suffrage movement, attendance was growing rapidly in many women’s organizations. On March 5, the minutes of the City Federation of Women’s Clubs reported, “With new aims and interests, the club work is more vital and important than it has ever been before and as a result the attendance has increased to such an extent that it has become necessary to seek larger accommodations.”¹⁵ That same day, an article in *The Dallas Morning News*



Passage of a bill by the Texas Legislature in March 1918 to grant women the right to vote in state primaries was characterized by *Dallas Morning News* cartoonist John Knott as an Easter gift.



The patriotic service of women during World War I was closely tied to the campaign for suffrage.

announced that the Dallas Equal Suffrage Association was beginning a petition for support of any legislation promoting women's suffrage. State legislator Barry Miller told the group that he would change his mind and vote for women's suffrage if they could gather 5,000 women in his district to sign the petition.

Barry Miller was a resident of Oak Cliff, where he lived at Millermore, the home his wife, Minnie, inherited from her father, William Brown Miller, a Dallas County pioneer.¹⁶ Minnie ran the farm while Barry drove the five miles into town to continue his law practice. Evelyn, their youngest child, wrote a sketch about her parents,

sharing the following about her father's political career: "Papa became increasingly active in politics. Most often, he campaigned for friends or causes in which he believed, but occasionally for himself. He served in the Texas State Senate from 1899-1901, received a gubernatorial appointment to a district judgeship in Dallas in 1911, and served in the Texas House of Representatives in 1917-1922, and as Lieutenant Governor of Texas, 1925-1930. At first mamma HATED politics, and never came to like having her husband a candidate."¹⁷ Among his early political accomplishments was authoring the legislation that made the bluebonnet the state flower of Texas in 1901. Apparently, the wife of the lawyer he apprenticed with when he first came to Texas always loved the flower—and he did it to honor her. Barry Miller certainly didn't change his opinion about suffrage through conversations at home. Evelyn wrote: "Mamma had NOT wanted the vote, but when she got it, she took it very seriously."¹⁸

The Dallas Equal Suffrage Association participated in the war effort and joined other local clubwomen in raising funds for the Women's Oversea Hospital Unit. Barry Miller contributed. "Dallas suffragists take this as a hopeful sign and hope that Judge Miller may yet be counted among the friends of equal suffrage."¹⁹ Judge Miller, ever the politician, set before the suffragists a challenge to gather 5,000 signatures, although no legislation was currently pending. Two days later, the *News* reported that 1,000 names had already been collected. "These signatures are necessary," explained Mrs. Nonie B. Mahoney, vice president of the Equal Suffrage Association, "in order to persuade one man, Barry Miller, that there is a silent sentiment in favor of suffrage in Dallas County. We are going to win. There is no chance for us to fail."²⁰ In addition to canvassing the women in their immediate circles, they also made special efforts to reach out to working women, visiting local businesses such as Sanger Brothers, Neiman Marcus, Butler Brothers, Brown Cracker and Candy Company, and the Wilson Building. In a March 9 article, announcing that they expected to go over the 5,000 mark that day, Mrs. Ma-

honey stated, "The interest in this petition is not confined to any one class. The women of Highland Park and the mill districts are equally interested and equally anxious to sign."

Anecdotes about the signing efforts include a mother who had five daughters working in the factories who believed that their working conditions would improve with suffrage. Another woman, age 70, brought in a petition with over 200 signatures—and apologized. "I would have got a good many more, but I happened upon so many of my old friends that I just had to stop and chat with them a while."²¹

By March 10, the suffragists had reached 8,000 signatures. Upon their success, Mrs. Mahoney declared, "The suffragists of Texas welcome the support of Mr. Miller. The suffragists accepted Barry Miller's challenge and have shown what they are capable of doing, but they refuse to accept any more such challenges to unproductive labor. They can not spare any more time from war work."²² At the same time they were gathering thousands of signatures from all of Dallas, they were trying to open a canteen to serve traveling soldiers. In fact, that very same day saw the announcement of the location of the canteen. The link between club work, war work, and suffrage work was deep and powerful. And it was a link that was often acknowledged during this time period. Pauline Periwinkle, well known clubwoman and *Dallas Morning News* columnist, wrote years before: "Women's clubs everywhere have crossed the Rubicon dividing self-seeking from the world's work. It would be hard to find a band of women nowadays content solely with filling up on literary pabulum whether represented by hardtack or syllabus—the classics or current fiction. Nowadays, when women meet and ask 'what is your club doing?' the answer expected is not, 'we're studying French history and literature,' but 'we're establishing free kindergartens,' or 'we're working for civic improvement,' etc. Even in States southernmost in feelings—and sentiment snaps its fingers at geographical lines—it is no longer considered unwomanly for women to take a good-sized dish in municipal affairs."²³

On March 15, just a few days after Mrs. Mahoney delivered 10,000 signatures to Rep. Barry Miller's office at the Capitol in Austin, the House voted 84 to 34 to give women the right to vote in primary elections. As promised, Barry Miller changed his vote. In addition, he spoke on behalf of the bill, truly providing an example of a politician who changed his position due to the will of the people. Because the timing of the vote was a bit of a surprise, only a few suffragists, including Minnie Fisher Cunningham, were in attendance. Although there was some debate, no one really doubted that it would pass. A few argued that they should wait for a federal amendment so that the question could be taken to the people, but as Rep. Jose Canales said, "if the women are so anxious to have this right that they would rather have a half measure than a full measure, let them have it and let them take the full responsibility for the same."²⁴

Within a week, the bill passed the Senate with amendments, went back to the House, and was signed into law on March 26, 1918. In a letter to Carrie Chapman Catt, Minnie Fisher Cunningham wrote: "When [the final vote] was taken we rose to leave the gallery of the House and when the men saw us they all stood up and gave us a perfect ovation, cheering for some minutes and calling for a speech. It was a surprising and greatly appreciated tribute to the work that the women have been doing."²⁵

But there was no time for rest or celebration. The canteen had opened just a few days before, and there were regular calls for volunteers to staff the canteen, provide baked goods, and more. After all, the war was still on, and now, these newly enfranchised women had to register to vote. As Katherine (Mrs. Isaac) Jalonick, president of the Dallas Equal Suffrage Association, told the *News*: "The members are too heavily engaged in war work to stop for a celebration. We are too occupied with helping the Red Cross and promoting the gardening campaign to take time for a public jubilee, and we think it would be unpatriotic to cease this important work to rejoice over something that benefits ourselves merely."²⁶

With a primary election looming on July 27, there was only a 17-day registration window—and yet 386,000 women across the state registered. Dallas suffragists declared themselves unconcerned with getting other women to register after the success of the petition drive just a few weeks before. They set up a committee to call everyone who signed the petition. When it came time to register, booths were set up in key department stores, as well as at the courthouse. They also began actively campaigning, both for Governor Hobby, as well as for Annie Webb Blanton, who was running for the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. She ultimately became the first woman elected to a statewide office in Texas.

This isn't to say that all clubwomen supported suffrage. However, with their increasing involvement in civic affairs, it is probable that the majority of women active in club work were supportive of suffrage. And it's impossible to know how many women were involved both in the work of opening the canteen and gathering signatures for the suffrage petition. But we do know this: the Texas Federation of Women's Clubs, of which all major clubs were members, made extraordinary changes in how it was talking to its membership during this same period. As it encouraged its members to get involved with war work, it also encouraged them to become more educated on local politics. The Texas Federation of Women's Club created a political science committee as early as 1912. In 1914, there was a strong push for all of the clubs to begin a Civil Service Reform Committee. Blanche (Mrs. A. P.) Averill, the president, urged the delegates to do this immediately. "Let this be a body alert for opportunities and emergencies," she urged. "You cannot turn in any direction to try and better things without becoming linked with government."²⁷ The work towards suffrage made shifting into war work easier. And the lessons learned during the war helped prepare women for the vote. Historians have long linked these two issues, but how remarkable is it that two key moments in this larger story occurred during the same month here in Dallas? ■

NOTES

¹“Want Equal Suffrage,” *The Dallas Morning News* (hereafter cited as *DMN*), May 1, 1893.

²“Dallas Suffragists Report Good Growth,” *DMN*, April 8, 1913. Elizabeth York Enstam, “A Question To Be ‘Settled Right’: The Dallas Campaign for Woman Suffrage, 1913-1919,” *Legacies* 13, no. 2 (Fall 2001): 30-38.

³“Suffragists Plan Educational Work,” *DMN* November 9, 1913.

⁴“Suffragists Plan for Fall Campaign,” *DMN* October 14, 1913.

⁵*Dallas Times Herald*, October 24, 1915.

⁶DFWC Minutes, January 15, 1918, in the collection of the Dallas History Division of the Dallas Public Library.

⁷*Ibid.*, February 20, 1918.

⁸*DMN*, “Location Finally Found for Recreational Canteen,” March 10, 1918.

⁹DFWC Minutes, March 5, 1918.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, July 1918.

¹¹*Ibid.*

¹²Ruthe Winegarten and Judith N. McArthur, eds., *Citizens at Last: The Woman Suffrage Movement in Texas* (Austin: Ellen C. Temple, 1987), 160.

¹³*Ibid.*

¹⁴*Ibid.*, 162.

¹⁵DFWC Minutes, March 5, 1918.

¹⁶Although Barry and Minnie were both born with the surname Miller, they were not related. Millermore was moved from its original site in 1966 and subsequently reconstructed at Old City Park, where it is now a signature historic structure at Dallas Heritage Village.

¹⁷Evelyn Miller Crowell, “Portrait Sketch of Mamma: Minnie K. Miller,” 8.

¹⁸*Ibid.*, 9.

¹⁹“Equal Suffragists to Petition Legislature,” *DMN*, March 5, 1918.

²⁰“Suffragists Already Have Over 1,000 Names,” *DMN*, March 7, 1918.

²¹“Suffragists Drive Will Close Today,” *DMN*, March 9, 1918.

²²“Suffragist’s Drive Goes Beyond 8,000.” *DMN*, March 19, 1918.

²³Jacquelyn Masur McElhane, *Pauline Periwinkle and Progressive Reform in Dallas* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 1998), 148.

²⁴House Journal, 333.

²⁵*Citizens at Last*, 167.

²⁶“Suffragists Elated at Taste of Power,” *DMN* 3-22-1918.

²⁷Texas Federation of Women’s Club Annual 1914-15, 41.

“What is Best for Dallas?”

The Love Field Noise Debate, 1960-1986

BY SAMUEL POER

*T***o some, the sound of aircraft** flying above is a nuisance and an impediment to their quality of life. To others, this sound signifies progress, the continued growth of the American economy and transportation. In 2018, however, seeing and hearing an airplane fly over is nothing out of the ordinary: in fact it has arguably become the ordinary, and regardless of one’s position, flying aircraft and the noise they produce are a large aspect of the greater air travel experience. In the decades since the 1970s and 1980s technological advances have helped to manage aircraft noise, while also allowing them to fly longer distances; altered flight patterns have helped to reduce noise levels over urban residential areas; and more intensive noise abatement programs have been put in place at many urban airports. At John Wayne International Airport in Santa Ana, California, for example, mandatory noise abatement procedures are in place to “regulate the hours of operation and the maximum permitted noise levels” of general aviation operations, including Learjet, Jet-

star II, Gulfstream, and numerous other aircraft.¹ Surely this policy did not develop overnight; in fact it took years of efforts by citizens to force the implementation of such measures.

This study deals with the struggle for noise control at Dallas Love Field from the 1960s to the 1980s, concentrating particularly on the early 1980s.² One reason for this time constraint is because piston-engine aircraft made far less noise than the early jet aircraft introduced to American airports in the 1950s. A second reason lies in the growth of Southwest Airlines at Love Field throughout the 1970s. Formed in 1967, Southwest began flying out of Love Field on June 18, 1971, and subsequently brought more air traffic to the airport even after the opening of Dallas-Fort Worth Regional Airport in 1974. At its root, the debate over noise control contained a deeper question: what was best for Dallas? To the businessmen and airline operators, the status quo, or minimal noise control measures, seemed best for Dallas; any major restrictions placed on the air-



Love Field was constructed in 1917 by the U.S. Army Signal Corps as a pilot training facility. This photo, taken in November 1918 during a “Flyin’ Frolic,” shows Bachman Lake immediately north of the airfield, with empty land beyond.

port would have drastically negative effects for the city. For many local homeowners, the convenience of having a fairly major airport nearby was enough for them to reject noise control measures. Nevertheless, many other nearby homeowners, who believed noise control programs would help the city grow even faster, formed local organizations to address their concerns to the city council. The contrast between convenience and nuisance became blurred in the late 1950s and early 1960s when many in Dallas opposed shifting air operations nineteen miles west to Fort Worth’s Greater Southwest International Airport (Amon Carter Field), preferring the convenience of Love Field, even if it meant bringing a higher volume of traffic necessary to beat out Fort Worth. To this end *The Dallas Morning News* published a twelve-page report in 1962 that, although according to the opening line had “no personal interest except the preservation and development of this [Love Field] vital asset,” one can reasonably assume presented a slight bias given the developing rivalry in aviation

between the two cities. The report stated, “[t]hree out of every four passengers leaving or arriving at Love Field are traveling on business,” which shows just how big a role the airport played when it came to transporting business men and women to and from the city.³

Studies concerning airport and aircraft noise pollution have generally been left either to scientists studying effects on the human body, or to lawyers and judges concerned with case law.⁴ Therefore, this article attempts to examine the underlying theme of the sometimes blurry rift that exists between the conveniences and nuisances of this modern form of travel and its effect on surrounding populations. A history of airports and air travel in the mid-twentieth century, especially those within urban environments, simply is not complete without addressing the built environment that is ever-present—the families and neighborhoods surrounding them. The experiences of homeowners and business owners can be visualized through numerous reports and let-



This 1929 photo shows the first, simple terminal and what appears to be an unpaved landing strip. Love Field had only recently been purchased by the City of Dallas as a municipal air field.

ters to the editor from *The Dallas Morning News*, correspondence between city council members and leaders of neighborhood organizations, official studies of the airport, and secondary works concerning the history of Love Field. Therefore, Dallas Love Field and the City of Dallas serve as a case study to examine how individuals within the city, in particular those located close to the airport, dealt with and experienced one of the drawbacks to this modern form of travel.

With the advent of jet engines in the mid-1950s there began a trend of court cases concerning the damaging effects of the high noise levels to the health and property values of nearby residents, who by now owned houses that butted directly up to Love Field's perimeter. The court cases of the 1960s mentioned in this study serve to illustrate a precedent that was set for the more intense legal and political actions of the late 1970s and early 1980s. The rise of Southwest Airlines at Love Field during the 1970s played a major role in the increased noise levels, and thus is deserving of a brief overview of that airline's growth. The last section of this article considers the indi-

viduals, groups, and motives involved in the more intense noise control debates of the early 1980s. Why were these issues so much more pertinent to residents then as opposed to the 1940s and 1950s when a large part of the airport's expansion took place?

The United States Army Signal Corps constructed Love Field (named for fallen pilot Lt. Moss Lee Love) in April 1917, and it served as a pilot training base during World War I. Located just southeast of Bachman Lake, the airfield was isolated from large residential development. During the postwar years, excitement about aviation grew in Dallas, and in 1928 the city purchased the airfield.⁵ By 1929 passenger traffic had risen to such an extent that Dallas's leaders declared Love Field to be the third busiest airport in the nation.⁶ During the next decade, the rapid growth of airlines such as Delta and American created demand that soon outpaced the facilities at Love Field. The airport benefited greatly from increased air traffic during World War II and emerged from the war "as an airport of national prominence."⁷ The city worked during the postwar years to improve

the airport in many ways, including the passing of a \$20 million bond in 1952 that provided funds to make Love Field the major airline hub in the Southwest by the mid-1960s.⁸ Love Field unveiled a new 7,750-foot runway in January 1955, followed two years later by a new terminal; subsequently, Love Field's flight departures rose from 61,027 in 1960 to 72,106 in 1965, and its number of enplanements (passenger boardings) more than doubled between the same period.⁹ By the mid-1960s, the City of Dallas had invested large amounts of money in Love Field and seen its investments paying off with the airport notching a net income of \$1,426,719 for 1962.¹⁰ The success of the larger airport, with its higher rates of traffic and new jet aircraft, was a mixed blessing, however, for the growing population in the residential neighborhoods surrounding the airport.¹¹

Going into the 1960s it was clear that jet aircraft would produce more noise than the piston-powered aircraft of previous decades. Bob Glaves of *The Dallas Morning News* argued in March 1957 that to "the jet, noise is a necessary evil . . . because a jet is designed for speed, and noise increases with thrust."¹² This argument is evidence of a growing dichotomy within human convenience that manifested itself in two ways: an individual's ability to quickly travel long distances, and an individual's or family's ability to live in relative peace and quiet. In a letter to *The Dallas Morning News*, Mrs. V. C. Bilbo, Jr., a homeowner on Bachman Blvd, opined that it was foolish to continue "pouring money into an outdated airport for jets in an already overpopulated area."¹³ Her question seems valid. Why would a city continue to invest large amounts of money into an airport that could become outdated in a few years?

The convenience of the airport and faster air travel couldn't keep Dallas from having to deal with legal battles concerning the new noise levels. The earliest legal case of the 1960s regarding Love Field stemmed from efforts by the City of Dallas to lengthen the airport's runways and add better lighting after the Airline Pilots Association (ALPA) criticized the airport for not hav-

ing enough room to install "the new centerline approach lights the FAA was installing at major airports."¹⁴ Expanding the airport without FAA aid met strong opposition by homeowners living nearby, culminating in the case *Atkinson v. City of Dallas* (1961). While not directly concerning airport noise, this case presented the claims of homeowners—many of whom had seen their property taxes lowered because of airport noise in 1959—that the new runway (Runway 13R/31L) would negatively affect nearby residences.¹⁵ This case brought to light an intriguing theoretical legal question: with urban air travel, could the space above one's home now be considered an extension of the home itself? Laws protecting against the unjust taking of property might now be applied to the air above the home, which Attorney James P. Donovan did during *Atkinson* by arguing that the use of the airspace over homes identified in the suit would "constitute taking their property without due process of law."¹⁶ Chief Justice Dixon, however, did not see the validity in this argument, arguing that the City of Dallas was not actively seeking to physically take possession of any of their properties.¹⁷ After losing in *Atkinson*, Donovan and 120 additional opponents to expansion of Love Field filed suit in September 1962, denoted as *Brown v. City of Dallas* (1962). As in *Atkinson*, the citizens failed to receive a favorable ruling, and the City began its expansion project after waiting over a year due to the legal battles. The new runway opened in April 1965.¹⁸

Although early neighborhood residents' attempts to limit the expansion of Love Field failed, the continued expansion of the airport provided them more opportunities in the years to come. The crash of a Braniff Boeing 720 and the subsequent debris shower on Sheridan and Mohawk streets, less than two miles south of Love Field, on March 10, 1964, provided homeowners with yet another event to protest, and just four months later the Citizens Aviation Agency (CAA) filed a complaint with the Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB), arguing that jet operations at Love Field "were an imminent public disaster and . . . a constant threat to public safety."¹⁹ Again, hundreds



This photo from around 1960 shows how the land beyond Bachman Lake had developed, with both residential and commercial structures.

of residents living around Love Field gathered at a hearing held by the City Plan Commission concerning rezoning, at which the area residents claimed they deserved relief due to the airport noise.²⁰ Following the meeting, residents filed yet another lawsuit, *Crudginton v. Archie League* (1965), in which the plaintiffs argued that the City of Dallas and the FAA subjected them to

“excessive aircraft noise . . . and reduced property values.”²¹ Utilizing their power as property owners, the CAA and James Donovan threatened all major airlines with a fee of \$50 per flight but ultimately settled to dismiss the case after gaining assurance from the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) that it would again insure the residents near the airport; according to Erik Crytzer’s

study on the Love Field controversy, Love Field residents filed an additional seven overflight and noise suits against the city between 1966 and 1968.²²

The City of Dallas found itself constantly embroiled in legal battles against the citizens of the Love Field area during the 1960s. Citizens near the airport strove to protect their rights as homeowners, specifically their right to public safety and peace and quiet. Both air and noise pollution had become a growing problem during the decade. With complaints doubling from 1967 to 1968, Harry L. Markel, Jr., city public health engineer, blamed “interstate highways and expressways” and power equipment used for construction, not solely the noise produced by jet aircraft.²³ This moderate defense of jet aircraft is another example of the complex relationship earlier mentioned, as well as the trade-offs of urban development.

After Dallas and Fort Worth agreed on the creation of Dallas-Fort Worth Regional Airport (DFW), most people believed that commercial airlines would move their service away from Love Field. With this shift, convenience seemed to move with it. Southwest Airlines, however, having not been a part of the 1968 agreement to move all air traffic to DFW, did not move. The U.S. Supreme Court in 1974 ruled that Southwest could not be forced to move air service from Love Field. The rise of this airline during the 1970s became integral to the noise battles a decade later as its growth led to higher-than-anticipated air traffic at the airport. At first Southwest operated primarily as a carrier of business travelers commuting to and from Dallas and Houston. By 1977, however, Southwest’s service reached almost every major city in Texas, and in 1979, following the Airline Deregulation Act of 1978, it began service to New Orleans, Louisiana.²⁴ Southwest’s expansion had a direct impact on the air traffic levels at Dallas Love Field and certainly impacted noise levels. According to an FAA report in 1976, Love Field remained one of the noisiest airports in the nation, this even after most airline activity had shifted to DFW.²⁵ Also of importance to later

debates, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in 1975 that cities were liable for damages “when their airports create noise which reduces the value of property,” which, according to studies done in the 1960s, had occurred to homeowners near the airport.²⁶

In the time immediately following the opening of DFW, enplanements at Love Field declined from 6.5 million in 1973 to 650,000 in 1974, and real estate near the airport saw a drastic increase in population.²⁷ New residents had sought peace and quiet, while still having the convenience of a close airport for general usage. However, by 1976, Southwest had increased service to five additional Texas cities, including at least four roundtrips daily to each location.²⁸ Additionally, the company’s revenue for the next year increased to almost \$50 million.²⁹ This increase in competition led rival airlines, which had just moved their services to DFW, to shift a few flights back to Love Field. Southwest alone carried over a million passengers during the year 1978, and there were no signs of this growth slowing down.³⁰ As air traffic numbers rose, so too did the number of Love Field-area residents. Thus, by 1980 Love Field had at least partially returned to its pre-DFW Airport importance and the City of Dallas could not reverse this trend; by now it also seemed to embrace the growth of Southwest and Love Field.

With the rise of Southwest Airlines, more air traffic began moving into Dallas Love Field, and other airlines’ decisions to return to the airport to compete with Southwest drew the ire of many residents. At this point, however, many Dallas officials believed all commercial air traffic *should* operate out of DFW Regional Airport. City council member Joe Hagggar stressed this point: “I urge that we [Dallas City Council] join the [DFW] airport board” in continuing to move all commercial traffic to the regional airport; Lori Palmer, a local Oak Lawn resident and future president of the Love Field Citizens Action Committee, asked the council to oppose all interstate service out of Love Field whether it be Southwest or Texas International.³¹ In a separate discussion, former Dallas Chamber of Commerce



Supporters of Love Field hoped that a voluntary “Fly Quiet” campaign might alleviate concerns of nearby residents, but opposition to the noise of jet engines continued.

president Tom James continued to argue in favor of industry and airport development by favoring continued general aviation at Love Field. According to James, if environmental groups' plans were approved, "it [wouldn't] control growth. It [would] kill it."³² Caught in between human and business interests, the City of Dallas continually pointed to the fact that it did not know whether it had the legal authority to manage such issues as noise at the airport. Despite this claim, this issue of jurisdiction had been considered in 1979 California when the California Supreme Court ruled in *Greater Westchester Homeowners Association v. City of Los Angeles* (1979) that the city was indeed "responsible for the true costs associated with the airport's operation."³³

Citizens in Dallas were prepared for a debate, especially since neighborhood organization was not a new concept for Dallas residents. According to *Dallas Morning News* reporter Brooke Ramey, "the concept of the neighborhood, and neighboring [was] changing" by the early 1980s, with more and more homeowners organizing to protest any intrusion on their way of life.³⁴ Homeowner organizations are excellent examples of what Kyle Shelton termed "infrastructural citizenship," the concept of individuals using their rights as citizens to oppose a development that might lead to a destruction of their way of life.³⁵ With this precedent set, the Love Field Citizens Action Committee (LFCAC) formed on August 26, 1980, seeking "to preserve and enhance the quality of Dallas neighborhoods."³⁶ This committee differed from previous organizations because it did not want to completely shut Love Field down. Instead, its members wanted to limit the number of hours of airport operation, an installation of noise abatement procedures, restricted expansion of the airport, and mandatory compliance with all regulations.³⁷ The committee's first newsletter provided statistics from the FAA control tower for August 2 and August 13, 1980, which showed that on August 2 over 100 flight operations took place between 6 PM and midnight, while 166 flight operations took place between 7 PM and 10 PM on August 13.³⁸ Inci-

dentally, a city-sponsored study of airport noise, finalized earlier in September of 1981, found that noise from Love Field affected over 100,000 residents.³⁹ Even with this information, as of July developers continued to construct apartments on the northern edge of the airport, although they were adding notices to leases permitting "aircraft to cause noise, vibration, fumes . . ."⁴⁰ This continued development of urban neighborhoods near the airport, despite aircraft noise pollution, indicates that, on some level, more individuals valued economic prosperity and possibly the convenience of the airport than those who detested the noise. Other residents, such as Russell Abel argued in favor of the airport's seniority. For people like Abel it was simple: Love Field had "been here 64 years. When you live near an airport, you should expect airplanes," and therefore it was "nonsense" for people like Lori Palmer to make such protests against such a fixture of the city.⁴¹

On August 13, 1980, Palmer appeared before the Dallas City Council to voice the concerns of many residents over Love Field operations. She noted that she and so many other residents moved into the area around the time DFW Regional Airport opened in part for their belief in urban revitalization but also to be closer to their work places.⁴² Her statements highlight a conflict that urban environments seemed to face often during the growth of aviation: balancing inner-city neighborhood revitalization and the continuing support of municipal aviation. Indeed, during this decade, the aviation industry grew tremendously in the United States. Airports brought businesses and tourists that subsequently brought money to cities. But for groups like LFCAC, these benefits simply could not outweigh the lost sleep, money, relaxation, and peace of mind they experienced with increasing airport noise.⁴³ LFCAC's opening salvo against Love Field really came on January 28, 1981, when it presented a six-point plan to the city council to reduce airport noise. Major points in the plan included the prohibition of increased air traffic at the airport, the maintaining of a 24-hour average noise level of sixty-five decibels, and a curfew from 9 PM to 7 AM (ex-

cept for emergency purposes).⁴⁴ These proposals were not necessarily based on pure theory. The proposal advocating an extended curfew, for example, noted numerous cases around the country involving municipal airport curfews and aircraft noise such as, *National Aviation v. City of Hayward* (1976), *British Airways Board v. Port Authority of New York* (1977), *City of Burbank v. Lockheed Air Terminal* (1973), and many others.⁴⁵ Later opposition to LFCAC's proposals mostly took exception to the proposed establishment of an airport curfew.

Nationally, a key event that further hampered efforts to curb airport noise came in 1981 when President Ronald Reagan cut federal funding to the Office of Noise Abatement and Control (ONAC), thus causing local governments to compete—often unsuccessfully—for state funding to fight noise pollution.⁴⁶ Even before LFCAC delivered its proposals, R. G. Lambert, President of Cooper Airmotive, addressed Mayor Robert Folsom concerning the group's actions. Speaking for the aviation businessmen, Lambert criticized LFCAC's proposals as "drastic and punitive" to the economy "that has developed around the operation of Love Field."⁴⁷ Yet for Hollis Eatman, who lived in an apartment nearby, residents had become "victims of the airport industry," and children were now at risk for high blood pressure.⁴⁸ Once LFCAC's grievances were outlined and its proposals for redress delivered, the city council moved rather quickly to attempt to address the issue. City Manager George Schrader addressed the council concerning the Dallas Love Field Noise Control Program and the Advisory Committee to oversee the project. Schrader's recommendations for committee members included Lori Palmer and two other LFCAC members; Herb Kelleher, Chairman of the Board for Southwest Airlines; two FAA administrators; three members of the Love Field Operators Committee; and a few other aviation individuals.⁴⁹ Ensuing letters from representatives of Cooper Airmotive detailed the negative economic impact that would befall their company.⁵⁰

At a Dallas City Council meeting on Febru-

ary 18, 1981, a new opposition group made an appearance. Called the Committee for Responsible Policy at Love Field, comprising thirty-three companies and organizations, it prepared a fact sheet detailing the airport's economic impact. According to the group, only a low percentage of flight operations occurred between 9 PM and 7 AM, and the total number of current flight operations in 1980 made up only 70 percent of what they were just before DFW opened. But perhaps the most important fact was that Love Field had annual gross sales of around \$500,000.⁵¹ Numerous other letters from airline and aviation companies alike preceded the council meeting, some in support of a noise abatement program, but all in opposition to an operations curfew. J. Lynn Helms addressed his concerns over an airport curfew in his address at the Sixteenth Annual SMU Air Law Symposium: "An airport curfew, as an isolated event, seems innocuous. . . . [b]ut a curfew has a ripple effect because air transportation is not an isolated event."⁵² Seemingly being held at bay by businesses and aviation industries, resident Russell Jewert shared his concern for democratic proceedings in a letter to *The Dallas Morning News* in which he noted that neighborhood groups had essentially been told not to "interfere with the profits of business or inconvenience corporate leaders"; to Jewert, "much of the Dallas business establishment [had] apparently decided that real democracy . . . [could not] be tolerated in this city."⁵³

Financed by and at the behest of the Dallas City Council, the consulting firm Howard Needles Tammen & Bergendoff prepared a progress report for the noise control program as well as overall safety on June 17, 1981. Ironically, even though the report concluded that "aviation safety at and around Dallas Love Field is at a high level," just eight days prior, a small twin-engine plane crash landed on Lemmon Avenue "less than 300 feet from residences and businesses."⁵⁴ The report by the firm also recommended a curfew for the airport, to be implemented over a five-year period; this was met by criticism from many individuals, including Dallas aviation director



Airport defenders promoted a “Noise Abatement” policy as an alternative to nighttime curfews, which the City Council eventually refused to impose.

Danny Bruce and Ralph Emory of K.C. Aviation Co., arguing that “the curfew will cost airport users more money” and that the recommendations “[were] totally unacceptable.”⁵⁵ People living nearby the airport experienced these issues in different ways. Some could tolerate the noise if it meant Dallas would continue to grow and prosper, while others simply could not see their property negatively affected by such a nuisance. A Mr. James F. Bennet opined to *The Dallas Morning News* that “the airport was there long before the houses and apartments were,” and cited the negative economic effect a curfew would have on Dallas.⁵⁶ Alvis Johnson, however, wrote to the *News* that the economic effect would be worse if the city did not control the noise because the city “will be liable . . . therefore, the city will have to buy all the property affected.”⁵⁷ For at least one resident, those who opposed the growing nuisance of noise had become a nuisance themselves: “I get upset when they criticize Love Field Dallas will suffer a great deal if they put a curfew on flights.”⁵⁸ Yet others felt the airport should be shut down from 11 PM to 6 AM except for emergency purposes. Among these discussions of the economic impact of the proposed curfew,

convenience of the airport was still a key factor: “I would prefer the noise . . . and still have the convenience of Love Field.”⁵⁹

Howard Needles Tammen & Bergendoff presented their recommendations for a noise abatement program in late November 1981. It is worth noting that they included examples from around the country where airports had implemented some sort of noise action; in total the firm found around 300 instances of such procedures.⁶⁰ That there were these many examples present in the country shows that something could be done, and a city would not be financially destroyed. If placing restrictions on Love Field would so dramatically hurt Dallas, one might wonder why such a large airport as DFW was built if it could not help better the economy of the “Metroplex” let alone the city. The study also proposed fifteen measures to be considered by the council to curb the noise issue, one of course being a curfew from 9 PM to 7 AM; certainly there would be some negative economic impacts for aviation companies, but the report also argued that property values would “yield a theoretical maximum increase in real estate tax revenues of about \$1.6 million annually.”⁶¹ So Dallas quite possibly would con-



This 1987 aerial photo shows the dense development surrounding Love Field. The convenience of an in-town airport, combined with its economic benefits, seems to have outweighed protests of those living in flight paths.

tinue to see its tax revenues increase; the ones that stood to lose much of anything were those with ties to aviation or the airport. The council meeting that followed on December 16 featured citizens appearing both in favor of and against a strong noise abatement program. Both factions' figureheads—Lori Palmer of LFCAC and Herb Kelleher of Southwest Airlines—were in attendance. LFCAC and its allies won a small victory at the meeting when the city council authorized a voluntary noise abatement program consisting of ten measures, the most important being the establishment of an informal use of the Trinity River route for night operations on runway 13R (implemented August 6, 1982), the creation of “a system to monitor and manage the noise abatement program,” and a commitment to review the

program in 1986 to determine its effectiveness.⁶²

Although it did not achieve the curfew it so wanted, LFCAC succeeded in forcing the City of Dallas to confront the issue of noise at Love Field. A study of the noise contours (lines on a map representing the level of noise exposure at that distance away from the source) around the airport for 1982 found that the voluntary noise abatement procedures resulted in “a significant reduction in the 65 Ldn contour” when compared to 1981 measurements.⁶³ By this point the noise issue at Love Field had hit the mainstream and the city took more steps to address the problem. In May 1983, the city established the Love Field Policy Committee, comprised of individuals from the aviation industry, business community, and neighborhood residents, to advise the city

manager on recommendations for the city council concerning the airport.⁶⁴ The actions taken by LFCAC and others also led the city to establish official policies regarding the “development, maintenance, and operation of Love Field,” and an official goal for the noise abatement program: “to achieve through voluntary means by 1986 and maintain thereafter the 1985 Ldn noise contours as projected in the 1981 Dallas Love Field Noise Control Program Study.”⁶⁵

Lori Palmer and members of LFCAC still felt the measures taken by the city did not go far enough. Palmer later argued that because Southwest was only using its 737-300’s for eight percent of operations at Love Field, essentially LFCAC group “had been sold a bill of goods.”⁶⁶ Her efforts spurred Southwest to increase its 737-300 fleet to operate almost 50 percent by the end of 1985.⁶⁷ Still, the noise issue had gained massive attention in Dallas. Deciding between the economic interests of the city and the welfare of a few of its citizens became more serious when Herb Kelleher lobbied the Dallas City Council in 1985, threatening to move Southwest Airlines out of Dallas altogether if the city chose to implement mandatory compliance with the noise abatement program.⁶⁸ Kelleher told Palmer at a tense city council meeting that the people around Love Field were an asset, but those “attempting to reduce the value of Love Field” and thereby doing damage to Dallas were a liability.⁶⁹ In the end, the city sided with Southwest Airlines and the business interests of Love Field by not passing a mandatory noise abatement program. In fact, by 1984, business owners such as Tom Gillespie, general manager of the Ramada Inn Love Field, suggested that the airport was “one of the busiest in the country” and that “the whole area really [was] in a state of revitalization.”⁷⁰ LFCAC’s actions, however, opened a door that has remained open today when discussing the issue of noise pollution at Dallas Love Field and other municipal airports.

As noted above, the actions taken by neighborhood individuals and groups including Lori Palmer and the Love Field Citizens Action Com-

mittee, as well as opposition groups such as the Committee for Responsible Policy at Love Field, are excellent representations of infrastructural citizenship. All parties involved utilized their civil rights to either oppose or support a municipal government caught in the middle of a struggle between public safety (and comfort) and economic prosperity. Brooke Ramey wrote in 1981 that the City of Dallas found itself caught “between its promotion of inner-city living and its interest in the growth of inner-city commerce.”⁷¹ Those who opposed the expansion of Love Field—either territorially or through an increase in air traffic—did so because they feared how an increase in noise, air pollution, and additional traffic would affect their once-quiet neighborhoods. Their opposition, however, saw possible reduction of air service at the airport as a precursor to economic downfall for the city. Urban transportation adds noise to everyday life, and while this is understandably a detriment to those living near the impacted areas one wonders how a city can manage noise when there is simply so much activity, be it construction, traffic, or aircraft flying above, happening daily. While there will inevitably be those residents adversely affected by continued urban growth, the issue at hand for municipal governments is how to balance the needs of these residents with the economic (and other) needs of the city. While actions taken by Dallas residents (and those in other cities) between 1960 and 1986 may not have *created* political issues, they certainly brought them to the forefront of the urban environment.

An airport’s physical environment extends beyond the legal property boundaries denoted on maps. The noise and other emissions—and possible disasters for that matter—are not contained within these borders; instead they drift into the lives of everyday civilians living nearby. Because of this, it seems that a history of airports or aviation cannot be completely told without a discussion of the area that surrounds them. With growing air traffic numbers, the issue of noise pollution near airports remains a constant talking point. In 2012 Love Field announced a Good Neighbor

Program “to enhance the physical and economic development of the airport and its surrounding communities . . .”⁷² An airport such as Love Field that is embedded within a dense urban area will no doubt have these issues. Thus, the history of the rise of the aviation industry is inevitably tied to the environments that surround each and every airport. Aviation is only going to continue to grow, but will better technologies continue to keep noise pollution at bay? This problem that arose in the 1960s has not gone away by any means, and it is not likely to in the foreseeable future. ■

NOTES

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⁶Darwin Payne and Kathy Fitzpatrick, *From Prairie to Planes: How Dallas and Fort Worth Overcame Politics and Personalities to Build One of the World’s Biggest and Busiest Airports* (Dallas: Three Forks Press, 1999), 44–47.

⁷Roger E. Bilstein and Jay Miller, *Aviation in Texas* (Austin: Texas Monthly Press, 1985), 136.

⁸*Ibid.*

⁹Payne and Fitzpatrick, *From Prairie to Planes*, 90, 92.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, 99.

¹¹For a more detailed account of the growth of Love Field, and the rivalry between Dallas and Fort Worth, see Robert Fairbanks’s “Responding to the Airplane: Urban Rivalry, Metropolitan Regionalism, and Airport Development in Dallas, 1927–1965” in *Technical Knowledge in American Culture: Science, Technology, and Medicine Since the Early 1800s*.

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¹³[Letter to the Editor] Mrs. V.C. Bilbo, Jr., “Love Field Noise Hurts Home Values,” *ibid.*, February 23, 1961.

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¹⁶*Ibid.*, 41.

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²²*Ibid.*, 58–59.

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²⁴George Walker Cearley, *A Pictorial History of Airline Service at Dallas Love Field* (Dallas: G.W. Cearley, 1989), 173.

²⁵“Love Field Still Among Noisiest, FAA Reports,” *DMN*, October 28, 1976.

²⁶Carl Freund, “High Court Says Cities Libel for Damage in Airport Noise,” *ibid.*, January 1, 1975.

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³⁶Crytzer, “The Love Field Controversy: Citizen Opposition to an Urban Airport, 1953–1986,” 72. Originally taken from the *Love Field Citizens Action Committee Newsletter* Volume 1, no. 3 (October 1980).

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DEGOLYER LIBRARY

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JOIN PCHPS

Your support of the Park Cities Historic and Preservation Society is vital to preserving community awareness regarding the importance of protecting and promoting historical, architectural, and cultural legacies of the Park Cities.

PCHPS membership benefits and activities:

- Educational meetings
- Landmarking events honoring significant homes for architectural &/or historical merit
- Holiday Party in a historically significant home
- PCHPS annual spring Home Tour, Distinguished Speaker Luncheon and Classic & Antique Car Show
- July 4th Parade

Proceeds help preserve and maintain the Park Cities House at Dallas Heritage Village, support the new PCHPS archives at the University Park Library, fund the Society's landmarking initiatives, award scholarships to Highland Park High School graduating seniors planning to study architecture or history, and fund the Distinguished Chair for History at Highland Park High School. Join online at www.pchps.org



Disasters: Natural and Man-made



The 21st Annual Legacies History Conference will be held on Saturday, January 25, 2020. The conference is jointly sponsored by fourteen organizations: AdEX, the Dallas County Historical Commission, the Dallas County Pioneer Association, Dallas Heritage Village, the Dallas Historical Society, the Dallas History & Archives Division of the Dallas Public Library, the Dallas Municipal Archives, the DeGolyer Library at SMU, the Historic Aldredge House, the Park Cities Historic and Preservation Society, Preservation Dallas, The Sixth Floor Museum at Dealey Plaza, the Texas State Historical Association, and the William P. Clements Center for Southwest Studies at SMU.

Call for Proposals

The organizers of the 21st Annual *Legacies* Dallas History Conference welcome proposals from both professional and lay historians on the theme, “Disasters: Natural and Man-made.” Topics might include natural disasters such as the severe drought of 1951–1957 or the 1980 heat wave; fires, such as a spectacular one that destroyed the Golden Pheasant Restaurant in 1954; explosions like one that rocked the Baker Hotel in 1946; pandemics such as the 1918 influenza outbreak, or a meningitis and encephalitis outbreak in 1966; the Elm Street cave-in of 1967; or the mass shooting at Ianni’s Restaurant and Club in 1984. Proposals should be accompanied by sample images if possible.

All papers must be based on original research and must not have been presented or published elsewhere. The best papers will be published in a subsequent issue of *Legacies: A History Journal for Dallas and North Central Texas*. Those interested in presenting papers should submit a brief summary of their proposal by JULY 31, 2019, to “Dallas History Conference, 1515 S. Harwood St., Dallas, TX 75215,” or by email to: info@dallasheritagevillage.org. Those selected will be notified by August 31, 2019.

The Twentieth-First Annual *Legacies* History Conference will be held on Saturday, January 25, 2020.

CONTRIBUTORS



Horace P. Flatt received his Ph.D. in mathematics from Rice Institute, now Rice University. His professional career was as a computer scientist and for over twenty years he headed IBM's Palo Alto Scientific Center, but his avocation was history. He has authored six books on the numismatic history of the independent Peru and two books on the local history of Kaufman County. On retirement to his native Texas, he became the Historical Marker Chairman of the Kaufman County Historical Commission and personally authored over twenty successful applications for official Texas Historical Markers in that county. He now resides in Dallas.



Teresa Musgrove is a third generation Dallasite and proud Woodrow Wilson Wildcat who received both a Bachelor of Business Administration degree in Accounting and a Masters of Library Information Science degree from the University of Texas at Austin. Employed in Financial Aid Accounting with the Dallas County Community College District, Teresa is also a member of the Dallas Historical Society, Dallas Heritage Village at Old City Park, and Preservation Dallas. Teresa is currently writing a book about the history of the Lakewood Shopping Center.



Samuel Poer was born and raised in Roanoke, Texas. He received a bachelor's degree in history in 2016 from the University of North Texas and is currently in the second year of his master's program there. Throughout his graduate program he has been working on an environmental history of aviation in the Dallas-Fort Worth area, particularly revolving around DFW Airport. He currently serves as a teaching assistant for UNT's Department of History.



Melissa Prycer received her B.A. in history from Hendrix College in Conway, Arkansas, and her master's degree in public history from North Carolina State University in Raleigh, North Carolina. She has worked in many museums, including the Dallas Historical Society, The Sixth Floor Museum at Dealey Plaza, and the Women's Museum, and is currently President and Executive Director of Dallas Heritage Village at Old City Park. Her article, "A Larger Housekeeping: Dallas Clubwomen and World War I," was published in the spring 2008 issue of *Legacies*.

Dallas THEN & NOW



Pursuant to the recommendations of the 1911 Kessler Plan, Turtle Creek Boulevard was created in 1914, linking Cedar Springs Road to the new Highland Park development via the north shore of Turtle Creek. The beautifully landscaped boulevard soon featured exclusive homes on huge lots along

its northern border, with open park land gracing the creek banks along the south side. Turtle Creek Boulevard was an immediate success, providing attractive approaches to both downtown Dallas and Highland Park. Along the way, the boulevard wound past the University of Dallas (originally Holy Trinity College), whose cupola is barely visible at the center right of this 1915 post card. The college closed in 1928 and the campus was later occupied in succession by St. Joseph's School for Girls and Jesuit High School. When Jesuit vacated the facility in 1963, the old college was demolished and replaced by the Turtle Creek Village mixed-use development. A view from a comparable vantage point today shows Turtle Creek Village to the far right of the frame and reveals that luxury condominium developments have replaced the original single-family residences occupying the prime real estate facing Turtle Creek.



—Mark Rice

