

ONE VOTE WON

NASHVILLE
OPERA



STUDY GUIDE



VANDERBILT
UNIVERSITY



One Vote Won, Study Guide

Subjects: Social Studies/U.S. History, English/
Language Arts

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Historical Overview:

A determined push for woman's suffrage started before the Civil War and gained momentum in the post-war debate about suffrage for all adult men, black or white. Women asked for similar constitutional rights, but their calls for the right to vote were ignored. The 15th Amendment, passed in 1870, granted the right to vote to all men, black or white, but left women out. After a few successes in gaining the right to vote in western states, women nationally began to petition more fiercely for right to vote at the beginning of the 20th century. In 1919 Congress passed the proposed 20th Amendment for woman suffrage, but before the amendment became the law of the land, 36 state legislatures had to ratify it.

In the summer of 1920, 35 states had ratified the amendment when the Tennessee legislature took up its consideration. Suffragists and anti-suffragists flooded the state capitol of Nashville to lobby for their position. The vast majority of these women were white, but women of color agitated for their right to vote, with the most persistent voice being Juno Frankie Pierce. When the Tennessee approved the amendment—by one vote—in August 1920, it became the 36th state to ratify the amendment.

Woman suffrage was now the law of the land--except in the South, and many other parts of the nation, where repressive state laws were in place to keep people of color—men or women—from voting. Juno Frankie Pierce and her supporters never stopped agitating for the right to vote for all Tennesseans, but elected officials continued to ignore their calls for equal treatment. In the late 1950s, new voices calling for equal treatment and constitutional rights began to be heard across Tennessee. Viola McFerrin of Fayette County faced retaliation and death threats for her efforts to register black men and women to vote in West Tennessee. In Nashville, black activist and leader Diane Nash was one of a determined group of students demonstrating for an end to Jim Crow segregation in downtown lunch counters, department stores, and in the voting booth. Her courageous confrontation with Nashville mayor Ben West outside the Davidson County Courthouse in 1960 was an important step forward for the eventual passage of the national Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Activism for constitutional rights is not a new story in American history. In addition to tracing the influence of Black, Indigenous, and/or Women of color in the suffrage movement, this study guide analyzes the later impact the woman's suffrage movement had on student protestors in 1960 when they decided to protest segregated lunch counters. This study guide focuses specifically on the actions of Juno Frankie Pierce in the first half of the twentieth century and Diane Nash in the second half of the twentieth century and their influences on addressing and reforming social injustices in Tennessee. The opera *One Vote Won* features both Juno Frankie Pierce and Diane Nash and traces their leadership roles in Tennessee and within the struggle for equal suffrage and equal rights.

Curriculum Standards:

TN.46 Describe Tennessee’s impact on the suffrage movement, including the following: “Perfect 36,” Harry Burn, Anne Dallas Dudley, and A.H. Roberts.

US. 18 Describe the movement to achieve suffrage for women, including: the significance of leaders such as Carrie Chapman Catt, Anne Dallas Dudley, and Alice Paul, the activities of suffragettes, the passage of the 19th Amendment, and the role of Tennessee as the “Perfect 36.”

AAH.42 Summarize the Civil Rights Movement in Tennessee, including: the integration of Clinton High School, sit-ins in Nashville, and the activities of Diane Nash and Jim Lawson.

AAH.44 Identify legal victories of the Civil Rights Movement (e.g., Civil Rights Act of 1964, Voting Rights Act of 1965, 24th Amendment).

TN. 56 Describe Tennessee’s role in the Civil Rights Movement (e.g., sit-ins and Diane Nash, Highlander Folk School, Tent City Movement of Fayette County, Columbia Race Riots, and the Clinton Twelve).

US. 81 Analyze civil and voting rights legislation, including: the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, the Civil Rights Act of 1968 (i.e., Fair Housing Act), and the 24th Amendment

Important Links:

- [African American Women Leaders in the Suffrage Movement](#)
- [Votes for Women means Votes for Black Women](#)
- [Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee Digital Gateway](#)
- [The Civil Rights Act of 1964, A Long Struggle for Freedom](#)

Materials:

- *One Vote Won* Libretto
- Suffrage [Timeline](#)
- Key Vocabulary [Flash Cards](#)
- Historical Backgrounds: [Juno Frankie Pierce](#), [Tennessee Vocational School for Colored Girls](#), [Diane J. Nash](#), [Nashville Sit-Ins](#)

Sources:

Suffrage Sources/Juno Frankie Pierce

- [Source One](#)
- [Source Two](#)
- [Source Three](#)
- [Source Four](#)

Suffrage Sources/Diane Nash:

- [Source Five](#)
- [Source Six](#)
- [Source Seven](#)
- [Source Eight](#)
- [Source Nine](#)
- [Source Ten](#)
- [Source Eleven](#)

Voting Rights Timeline, Civil War to Civil Rights Movement

1868: 14th Amendment approved

1870: 15th Amendment approved, denying states from keeping citizens from voting for their "race, color, or previous condition of servitude"

1880s-1890s: Jim Crow laws disfranchise many African American and poor white voters through such means as poll taxes, literacy test, and grandfather clauses

1887: Native Americans gain citizenship and the **potential** right to vote, **if** they leave their tribe and agree to accept a property allotment through the federal Dawes Act.

1913: 17th Amendment allows voters to directly elect the members of the U.S. Senate

1920: 19th Amendment gives women the right to vote, but African American women faced the same legal roadblocks as African American men

1924: Indian Citizenship Act gives all Native Americans citizenship and adults gain the right to vote. Arizona and New Mexico did not allow Native Americans full voting rights until 1948.

1943: Magnuson Act gives Chinese immigrants the right to citizenship and the right to vote

1961: 23rd Amendment gives District of Columbia adult residents the right to vote in presidential elections

1964: 24th Amendment forbids a poll tax to impede voters in a federal election

1965: Voting Rights Act of 1965 protected voter registration and the right to vote for racial minorities, overturning Jim Crow practices in the South.

1971: 26th Amendment lowered the age for a voting adult to the age of 18.

1986: Uniformed and Overseas Citizens Absentee Voting Act extended the right to vote to citizens overseas on military bases, stations, and ships

2013: By a 5-4 decision, U.S. Supreme Court rules in *Shelby County (AL) v. Holder* that Section 4(b) of the Voting Rights Act is unconstitutional. Section 4(b) allowed states or local governments in previously Jim Crow states to change their voting laws only with the approval of the U.S. Attorney General. Some southern states then passed new, restrictive voting laws.

Key Vocabulary Flash Cards:

14th Amendment	<p>Ratified in 1868</p> <p>Granted citizenship to all persons born or naturalized in the United States, including formerly enslaved people, and guaranteed all citizens equal protection of the laws.</p>
15th Amendment	<p>Ratified in 1870</p> <p>Granted African American men the right to vote by declaring that the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.</p>
19th Amendment	<p>Ratified in 1920</p> <p>Granted women the right to vote, and reads: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation."</p>
Voting Rights Act of 1965	<p>Outlawed the discriminatory voting practices adopted in many southern states after the Civil War, including literacy tests as a prerequisite to voting.</p> <p>This act to enforce the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution was signed into law 95 years after the</p>
Suffragist	<p>A person advocating the extension of suffrage, especially to women.</p>
Suffrage	<p>The right to vote in political elections.</p>

Historical Background:

By Carole Stanford Bucy

Originally published in the Tennessee Encyclopedia of History and Culture

Reproduced courtesy of Tennessee Historical Society

Juno Frankie Pierce

Founder of the Tennessee Vocational School for Colored Girls, J. Frankie Pierce was born during or shortly after the Civil War to Nellie Seay, the house slave of a Smith County legislator. Frankie Pierce received her education at the McKee School, a private school in Nashville for African Americans founded by the Presbyterian Church as a mission. She also attended Roger Williams University in Nashville and taught school for a brief period of time. She then married Clement J. Pierce and lived with him in Paris, Texas, until his death.

Upon her return to Nashville, Pierce worked to found an educational institution for delinquent African American girls. Since the African American girls were not permitted in white juvenile institutions or schools, they were placed in local jails if they became delinquent. She was president of the Negro Women's Reconstruction League, the founder of the Nashville Federation of Colored Women's Clubs, and on the first Committee of Management of the Blue Triangle League of the YWCA.

At the invitation of suffrage leader Catherine Kenny, Pierce addressed the May 1920 state suffrage convention held in the House chamber of the Tennessee capitol. "What will the Negro women do with the vote?" she asked her audience. "We will stand by the white women. . . . We are asking only one thing—a square deal. . . . We want recognition in all forms of this government. We want a state vocational school and a child welfare department of the state, and more room in state schools."

After the passage of the suffrage amendment, Pierce and Kenny were active in local Democratic Party politics. The vocational school for African American girls became a part of the legislative agenda of the suffragists and the newly organized League of Women Voters of Tennessee. After an extensive lobbying effort by the women the following year in 1921, the general assembly passed the bill creating the school. The school opened its doors two years later, and Pierce became its first superintendent. She held that position until 1939. Pierce had excellent political instincts and held an annual breakfast at the school for state legislators and other community leaders so that they could observe the operation of the school.

Pierce continued to live in Nashville after she retired. She served as the chairman of the Building Campaign for the Negro division to raise funds for the building of the Blue Triangle Branch of the YWCA in 1952. Frankie Pierce died in 1954 and is buried in the Greenwood Cemetery in Nashville.

Historical Background:

By Evelyn P. Fancher

Originally published in the Tennessee Encyclopedia of History and Culture

Reproduced courtesy of Tennessee Historical Society

Tennessee Vocational School for Colored Girls

The Tennessee Vocational School for Colored Girls opened in Nashville on October 9, 1923. Prior to its opening, the state confined African American girls who needed correctional services in institutions with convicted adults. In opposition to this practice, Frankie Pierce, an African American activist, initiated a campaign for the establishment of a correctional school for girls.

In April 1921 the Tennessee General Assembly authorized the establishment of the Tennessee Vocational School for Colored Girls and appropriated fifty thousand dollars to purchase a site and construct a building. The state selected a sixty-six-acre site on Heiman Street near the Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Normal School (now Tennessee State University). When the school opened, it served African American girls aged twelve through fifteen from across the state, whom the courts judged to be delinquent. Frankie Pierce, the school's first superintendent (1923-39), planned and implemented a personal development program that emphasized health, recreation, physical needs, moral training, and religion. She instilled an appreciation for the dignity of labor and encouraged the girls to become self-supporting. Nearby Hubbard Hospital at Meharry Medical College provided medical and dental care for the girls. In addition, the school employed a part-time physician to meet student health needs.

During the first year of operation, the school served thirty-five girls from eight Tennessee counties. These juveniles had been convicted of offenses ranging from "incorrigibility and bad conduct" to intent to murder. A fire on December 12, 1923, destroyed the contents of the school, but donations from across the state quickly replaced the loss.

During the years 1928-30, the school served as many as sixty-seven girls from sixteen counties. Program directors rationalized that most girls would enter domestic service after leaving the program and emphasized sewing, cooking, house cleaning, and laundering. During this same period, the school expanded its educational offerings to include grades one through twelve. Of the girls who completed their sentences during this period, thirty-four returned to their homes, and thirteen entered domestic service.

During the 1940s the school offered military training and created a cadet corps of two battalions. Increasingly, the school utilized city and county services for the girls. During the week the girls attended Haynes High School (a county school) for their high school coursework. On Sundays, the school transported them to city churches for religious services. In 1948 the school's cosmetology department, established in 1943, received accreditation.

By 1956-57 the physical plant had grown from the original building to include five brick structures. That year, the State Department of Education accredited the elementary and junior high school programs of the institution, the staff of five certified instructors expanded to include a psychologist, and child care and commercial training (typing) were added to the curriculum.

The Department of Correction desegregated all Tennessee juvenile correctional institutions during the 1966-67 academic year and prepared to close the Tennessee Vocational School for Colored Girls, changing its name to the State Vocational School. The school initiated a prerelease cottage program, upgraded the remedial reading program, and emphasized academic subjects. During the period 1968-70, the program added counseling and psychiatric services and expanded recreational activities. The population increased to 103 girls, and the school encouraged parental visitation.

In 1970-71 the school became the Tennessee Guidance and Reception Center for Children. The staff of sixty-nine expanded to include a full-time licensed practical nurse and a full-time chaplain. The institution closed in 1979.

Historical Background:

By Linda T. Wynn

Originally published in the Tennessee Encyclopedia of History and Culture

Reproduced courtesy of Tennessee Historical Society

Diane J. Nash

In the vanguard of the national civil rights and antiwar movements from 1959 to 1967, Diane Judith Nash was born on May 15, 1938, in Chicago, Illinois. Reared a Roman Catholic, Nash received her primary and secondary education in the parochial and public schools of Chicago. She began her college career in Washington, D.C., at Howard University and later transferred to Fisk University in Nashville.

At the time of Diane Nash's arrival, racial segregation permeated Nashville. Nash's encounters with the inequities, immorality, and privation of southern segregation led her to seek rectification actively. Early in 1959 she attended workshops on nonviolence directed by the Reverend James Lawson under the auspices of the Nashville Christian Leadership Conference. A strong supporter of the direct nonviolent-protest philosophy, Nash was elected chair of the Student Central Committee. In late 1959 she was among those who "tested" the exclusionary racial policy of Nashville's downtown lunch counters.

The first phase of Nashville's movement began on February 13, 1960, and ended three months later on May 10, when Nashville became the first southern city to desegregate its lunch counters. It was in response to Nash's April 19 query about the immorality of segregation that Mayor Ben West expressed his view that lunch counters should be desegregated and set in motion the events that cracked Nashville's wall of racial segregation.

In April 1960 Nash was one of the founding students of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). The following February, Nash participated in the Rock Hill, South Carolina, protests for desegregation. After she and other students were arrested, they chose incarceration and refused to pay bail. In May, she coordinated the Freedom Rides from Birmingham, Alabama, to Jackson, Mississippi, which were led by Nashville's "nonviolent standing army." Three months later, at a Highlander Folk School seminar, Nash became the director of the direct-action wing of SNCC. Between 1961 and 1965 she worked for the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) as a field staff person, organizer, strategist, and workshop instructor. After her marriage to James Bevel, the couple (later divorced) moved to Jackson, Mississippi, where she was jailed in 1962 for teaching African American children the techniques of direct nonviolent protest. Her ideas were instrumental in initiating the 1963 March on Washington. She and James Bevel conceptualized and planned the initial strategy for the Selma right-to-vote movement that helped produce the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. presented SCLC's Rosa Parks Award to Nash and Bevel in 1965.

Nash's civil rights endeavors led her to the Vietnam peace movement. She continued working for political and social transformation through the 1970s and lectured nationally on the rights of women during the 1980s. An omnipresent voice in the movement for social change, Nash continues to lecture across the country and currently is working in real estate as a resident of Chicago.

Historical Background:

By Linda T. Wynn

Originally published in the Tennessee Encyclopedia of History and Culture.

Reproduced courtesy of Tennessee Historical Society

Nashville Sit-Ins

In 1958, following the formation of the Nashville Christian Leadership Conference (NCLC) by the Reverend Kelly Miller Smith Sr. and others, African American leaders and students launched an attack on Jim Crow segregation. The NCLC utilized the concept of Christian nonviolence to stage the Nashville sit-in movement to combat de jure and de facto racial segregation. The Reverend James Lawson, a devoted adherent of the Gandhi philosophy of direct nonviolent protest, trained local residents in the techniques of the belief. Early in 1959 the NCLC began a movement to desegregate Nashville's downtown lunch counters and illustrate the hypocrisy of the Jim Crow economic system. During November and December, NCLC leaders and college students made purchases in downtown stores and staged "test sit-ins" in unsuccessful attempts to desegregate the lunch counters.

On February 1, 1960, four North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College students captured America's attention when they launched the Greensboro, North Carolina, sit-in. Twelve days later, Nashville's African American students launched their first full-scale sit-ins. They convened at the Arcade on Fifth Avenue, North, at approximately 12:40 p.m. and entered Kress's, Woolworth's and McClellan's. They made small purchases and then occupied lunch counter seats. By 2:30 p.m. all three retail stores had closed their lunch counters, and the students departed without incident. In response to white harassment at Walgreen's, students formulated ten rules of conduct for demonstrators. These became the code of behavior for later protest movements in the South. Throughout the spring, Nashville students conducted numerous sit-ins. They suffered verbal and physical abuse, arrests, fines, and incarceration, but held steadfastly to the concept of Christian nonviolence.

African American pressure to desegregate and white resistance to integration increased throughout the early spring. Shortly before Easter, the majority of Nashville African Americans used their "dollar vote" and simply stopped making purchases in the downtown stores, creating an estimated 20 percent loss in business revenues. As racial tension escalated, segregationists lashed out at civil rights activists. On April 19, an early morning bombing damaged the home of attorney Z. Alexander Looby, defense counsel for the students, a city councilman, and a leading figure in desegregation movements throughout Tennessee. The Loobys escaped with only minor injuries. In response, thousands of black and some white Americans marched to Nashville's City Hall. Mayor Ben West met the protesters and conceded to Diane Nash of Fisk University that he felt segregation was wrong and that lunch counters should be desegregated. On May 10, 1960, Nashville became the first major city to begin desegregating its public facilities. While the Greensboro sit-in was spontaneous, the Nashville movement had been planned over several months and drew students from the city's four predominately black colleges as well as community residents. According to Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., the Nashville movement was one of the best organized and most disciplined movements in the South. In November sit-ins resumed, as racist practices still continued in most eating establishments, and institutionalized racism remained intact.

The Nashville sit-in movement served as more than a model for future demonstrations against segregated accommodations, unfair employment practices, and other examples of institutionalized segregation. Its example of nonviolent protest emboldened and mobilized others across the country, and many of the student participants became leaders in the struggle for civil rights.

Source One:

J. Frankie Pierce (1864-1954), [n.d.]

Image credit: Tennessee Woman Suffrage Monument



Source Two:

What Will the Negro Women Do With the Vote?

Juno Frankie Pierce

Transcription is from the Speaking While Female Speech Bank

May 18, 1920 — Inaugural Convention, Tennessee League of Women Voters, House Chamber, Tennessee Statehouse, Nashville TN

What will the Negro women do with the vote? Yes, we will stand by the white women. We are optimistic because we have faith in the best white women of the country, of Nashville. We are going to make you proud of us, because we are going to help you help us and yourselves. We are interested in the same moral uplift of the community in which we live as you are. We are asking only one thing — a square deal.

It remains for the war to show what the negroes could do. We bought bonds, we gave money, we made comfort kits, we prayed.

We want recognition in all forms of government. We want a state vocational school and a child welfare department of the state, and more room in state schools.

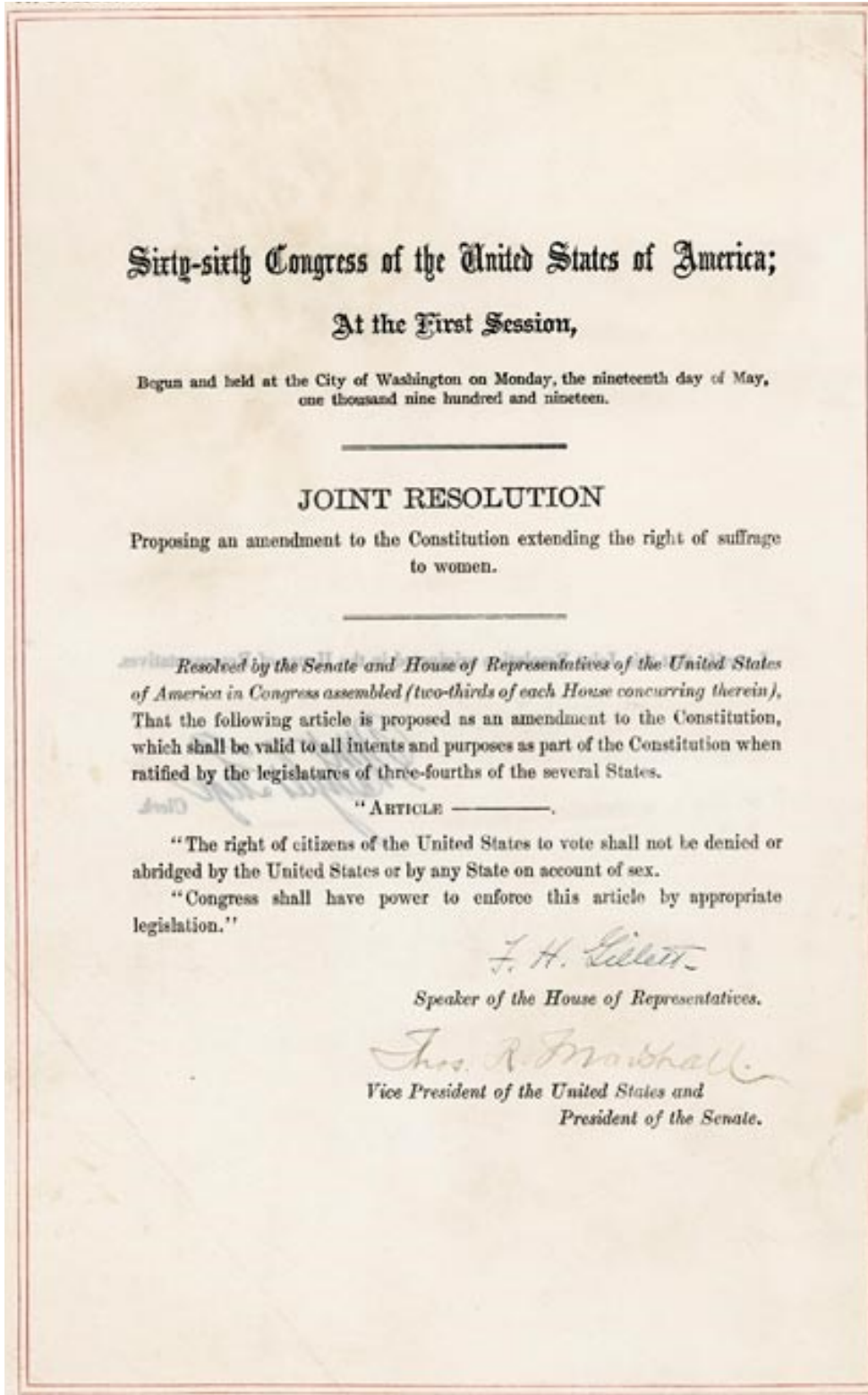
Original newspaper clipping:

The Tennessean

Nashville, Tennessee

Wednesday, May 19, 1920

Source Three:



19th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Women's Right to Vote

[1920]

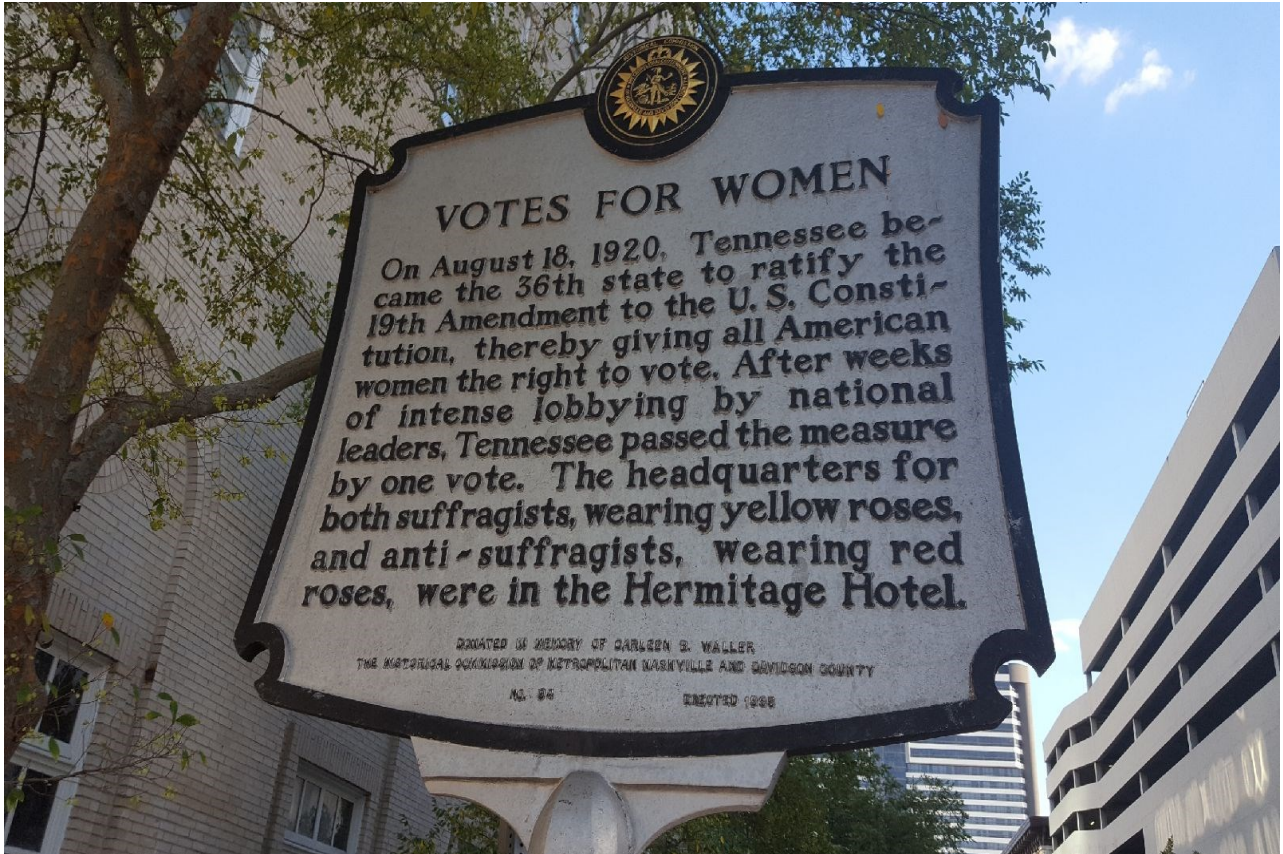
Transcript of this document can be found [here](#).

Source Four:

“Votes for Women Marker”

This marker is located outside of the Hermitage Hotel in Nashville, Tennessee

Image credit: [TN Woman Suffrage Heritage Trail](#)



Source Five:

“Diane Nash in Louisville, Kentucky, February 1963, Carl and Anne Braden Papers, WHS” [1963]

Image credit: Digital SNCC Gateway



Source Six:

The Nashville lunch counter sit-ins, 60 years later

Students John Hardy, left, and Curtis Murphy, sit as a closed sign went up when they attempted to get served at the lunch counter of Walgreens drugstore on Fifth Avenue and Arcade in downtown Nashville Feb. 20, 1960.

Image credit: Jimmy Ellis / The Tennessean



Source Seven:

The Tennessean

Nashville, Tennessee

Thursday, April 21, 1960

NEW YORK—(UPI)—The president of Fisk university, Nashville, said yesterday that Southern lunch counter sit-down demonstrations will go a long way toward destroying public apathy toward the civil rights issue.

"In the long history of the Negro's struggle for equal access to the great democratic promise of America, nothing, in my opinion, has done more in recent years to arouse public sympathy and concern than the student demonstrations in the South," said Dr. Stephen J. Wright at the Panel of Americans luncheon.

"The demonstrators have sounded the death knell for the myth that Southern politicians seek so diligently to perpetuate—that Negroes in the South are satisfied with the status quo."

He said the sit-downs prove that students, both Negro and white, still possess the American spirit of freedom, a spirit whose revival "is destined to bear priceless fruit in the turbulent years ahead."

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Source Eight:

The Nashville lunch counter sit-ins, 60 years later

Tennessee A&I students Benny Grant, second from right, and Lucretia Collins, right, are among hundreds of demonstrators tramping through rain and slush to continued their sit-in campaign against lunch counter segregation March 2, 1960, in Nashville.

Image Credit: Eldred Reaney / File / The Tennessean



Source Nine:

The Tennessean

Nashville, Tennessee

Friday, March 4, 1960

At month's end, a series of demonstrations, protesting segregation at lunch counters and restaurants had spread to eight southern and border states. Most of the demonstrations were led by Negro college students.

These were the month's developments by states:

TENNESSEE—A demand for desegregation of Chattanooga public schools came in the midst of a series of lunch counter "sit-downs," in which violence erupted in the downtown business section. Similar demonstrations in Nashville led to three incidents and 79 arrests.

Source Ten:

The Nashville lunch counter sit-ins, 60 years later

Students, Matthew Walker, left, Peggy Alexander, Diane Nash and Stanley Hemphill, eat lunch at the previously segregated counter of the Post House Restaurant in the Greyhound bus terminal March 16, 1960. This marked the first time since the start of the sit-in that African Americans have been served at previously all-white counters in Nashville.

Image Credit: Gerald Holly / File / The Tennessean



Source Eleven:

Voting Rights Act [1965]

Transcript of this document can be found [here](#).

Eighty-ninth Congress of the United States of America

AT THE FIRST SESSION

*Began and held at the City of Washington on Monday, the fourth day of January,
one thousand nine hundred and sixty-five*

An Act

To enforce the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States,
and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act shall be known as the "Voting Rights Act of 1965".

Sec. 2. No voting qualification or prerequisite to voting, or standard, practice, or procedure shall be imposed or applied by any State or political subdivision to deny or abridge the right of any citizen of the United States to vote on account of race or color.

Sec. 3. (a) Whenever the Attorney General institutes a proceeding under any statute to enforce the guarantees of the fifteenth amendment in any State or political subdivision the court shall authorize the appointment of Federal examiners by the United States Civil Service Commission in accordance with section 6 to serve for such period of time and for such political subdivisions as the court shall determine is appropriate to enforce the guarantees of the fifteenth amendment (1) as part of any interlocutory order if the court determines that the appointment of such examiners is necessary to enforce such guarantees or (2) as part of any final judgment if the court finds that violations of the fifteenth amendment justifying equitable relief have occurred in such State or subdivision: *Provided*, That the court need not authorize the appointment of examiners if any incidents of denial or abridgment of the right to vote on account of race or color (1) have been few in number and have been promptly and effectively corrected by State or local action, (2) the continuing effect of such incidents has been eliminated, and (3) there is no reasonable probability of their recurrence in the future.

(b) If in a proceeding instituted by the Attorney General under any statute to enforce the guarantees of the fifteenth amendment in any State or political subdivision the court finds that a test or device has been used for the purpose or with the effect of denying or abridging the right of any citizen of the United States to vote on account of race or color, it shall suspend the use of tests and devices in such State or political subdivisions as the court shall determine is appropriate and for such period as it deems necessary.

(c) If in any proceeding instituted by the Attorney General under any statute to enforce the guarantees of the fifteenth amendment in any State or political subdivision the court finds that violations of the fifteenth amendment justifying equitable relief have occurred within the territory of such State or political subdivision, the court, in addition to such relief as it may grant, shall retain jurisdiction for such period as it may deem appropriate and during such period no voting qualification or prerequisite to voting, or standard, practice, or procedure with respect to voting different from that in force or effect at the time the proceeding was commenced shall be enforced unless and until the court finds that such qualification, prerequisite, standard, practice, or procedure does not have the purpose and will not have the effect of denying or abridging the right to vote on account of race or color: *Provided*, That such qualification, prerequisite, standard, practice, or procedure may be enforced if the qualification, prerequisite, standard, practice, or procedure has been submitted by the chief legal officer or other appropriate official of such State or subdivision to the Attorney General and the Attorney General has not interposed an objection within sixty days after such

Sec. 17. Nothing in this Act shall be construed to deny, impair, or otherwise adversely affect the right to vote of any person registered to vote under the law of any State or political subdivision.

Sec. 18. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated such sums as are necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act.

Sec. 19. If any provision of this Act or the application thereof to any person or circumstances is held invalid, the remainder of the Act and the application of the provision to other persons not similarly situated or to other circumstances shall not be affected thereby.

Essay Question One:

After reviewing all of the sources in this study guide, please use the resources and *One Vote Won* to answer the question below. In your response you will be required to cite specific sources to create and strengthen your answer.

Question: Using the resources in this packet, analyze and address how women in Tennessee fought for and paved the way for all women, regardless of race, to have the right to vote with the passage of the 19th Amendment.

Essay Question Two:

After reviewing all of the sources in this study guide, please use the resources and *One Vote Won* to answer the question below. In your response you will be required to cite specific sources to create and strengthen your answer.

Question: While all women were granted the right to vote with the passage of the 19th Amendment, using the resources in this study guide, *One Vote Won*, and your prior knowledge on Black voter disenfranchisement explain how BIPOC (Black and Indigenous People of Color) were still restricted from voting in many elections.

Essay Question Three:

After reviewing all of the sources in this study guide, please use the resources and *One Vote Won* to answer the question below. In your response you will be required to cite specific sources to create and strengthen your answer.

Question: How did the involvement of Black women in the woman's suffrage movement influence involvement of Black women in the Civil Rights movement?

Essay Question Four:

After reviewing all of the sources in this study guide, please use the resources and *One Vote Won* to answer the question below. In your response you will be required to cite specific sources to create and strengthen your answer.

Question: Using the resources in this study guide, *One Vote Won*, and your prior knowledge of the civil rights movement, analyze the usage of non-violent tactics and actions, like the Nashville lunch counter sit-ins, taken by demonstrators.