

# Andrew Carnegie

Andrew Carnegie rose from poverty to become one of the richest men in the world by gaining virtual control of the U.S. steel industry. He was also notable as a philanthropist, who gave millions of dollars to advance education, establish public libraries, and promote world peace.

Carnegie was born on November 25, 1835 in Dunfermline, Scotland. His father, a handloom weaver, was impoverished by the introduction of power looms. In 1848, the destitute family emigrated to the United States. They settled in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, where Carnegie found work as a bobbin boy in a textile mill at a salary of \$1.20 a week. A year later, he got a job as a messenger in a telegraph office and began his rise from "rags to riches," earning a salary of \$2.50 a week. In these early days of telegraphy, instruments were needed to translate the sound emanating from the telegraph wires into letters of the alphabet. Amazingly, Carnegie learned to distinguish the wire sounds without using the instruments and thus became one of the first operators in the country to be able to take messages "by sound." His astonished employers promoted him from delivery boy to operator and raised his salary to \$4 a week.



During the early 1860s, had begun to invest in telegraph, oil, iron, bridge, and railroad companies. In 1865, though offered the post of assistant general superintendent on the Pennsylvania Railroad, he resigned and devoted himself to his other business interests. Within a few years, he had an annual income of \$50,000 and was considering retiring and taking up a scholarly life. Ultimately deciding against retirement, Carnegie nevertheless frequented intellectual as well as business circles in New York City, where he lived after 1867. He also traveled extensively throughout Europe, becoming the best read and traveled American businessman of his time.

In the early 1870s, Carnegie threw himself wholeheartedly into a new venture: steel manufacturing. The steel production industry in the United States was struggling under the shadow of its international competitors, led by Great Britain. The need for steel during the Civil War had boosted production in the United States, but Great Britain continued to produce more steel of a higher quality and dominate the world market. In 1873, while the rest of the United States was mired in a deep financial depression, Carnegie invested the vast majority of his fortune in steel production. He described the first incarnation of his famous investment policy as "putting all my eggs in one basket, and then watching the basket."

Drawing on his extensive business ties with Europe, Carnegie cultivated relationships with the leaders of Great Britain's steel industry, particularly Sir Henry Bessemer. Bessemer instructed Carnegie in a revolutionary process that allowed a higher quality of steel to be manufactured at relatively low cost. Bessemer had introduced this process to British steel manufacturers in 1856, but Carnegie brought it to the United States. In addition, Carnegie hired the best people in steel technology and plant management and introduced several other innovations to his American steel company, the J. Edgar Thomson Steel Mills. In this way, he was able to produce a higher quality steel at a lower price than his American competitors. He also kept production costs, wages, and salaries down and maintained complete control over his enterprise, in order to plow profits back into it.

During the next 30 years, U.S. steel production increased until the nation surpassed Great Britain as the foremost steel producer in the world, thanks largely to Carnegie. He steadily expanded his holdings by lease or purchase, in 1888 acquiring the important steel works at Homestead, Pennsylvania. Four years later, however, Carnegie's reputation as an employer was damaged by the bloody Homestead strike at the plant. The strike, which began on June 29, 1892, revealed Carnegie's plans to destroy the iron and steel workers' union, and the event raised a public outcry.

As in the depression of 1873, Carnegie used the depression of the 1890s to acquire new property and interests. His willingness to expand during these times was based on two reasons: first, he could buy resources at low cost because of the depression, and second, he had unbounded optimism regarding the fate of the United States. Convinced that America would recover from its economic woes, Carnegie wanted to be ready to meet rising demand for steel when prosperity returned. By 1900, the Carnegie Steel Company—organized a year earlier with a capital of \$350 million—controlled the bulk of U.S. steel production, making Carnegie the second richest man in the world.

As early as 1868, Carnegie had written himself a memorandum declaring that "the amassing of wealth is one of the worst species of idolatry—no idol more debasing than the worship of money." A few years later, he made his first gift—public baths given to his birthplace of Dunfermline, Scotland. At the same time that Carnegie was building his steel empire, he was also indulging in his other interests, writing articles for several well-known journals and newspapers and making periodic bequests to various organizations and individuals. In 1889, Carnegie published an article entitled "Wealth" in the *North American Review*. In this article, which became known

as "The Gospel of Wealth" in Great Britain and the United States, Carnegie stated his belief that every man's life should have two periods: the accumulation of wealth and then the distribution of that wealth back to the community. He maintained that rich men had a moral obligation to distribute their money for the public good with the same energy and systematic thoughtfulness they had used to acquire it. This idea was revolutionary for the time and prompted much discussion among the upper classes.

Putting into practice his own gospel of wealth, Carnegie and his wife, the former Louise Whitfield (whom he had married in 1887), made benefactions totaling about \$350 million. This money provided for thousands of public libraries and church organs and helped advance both higher education and the cause of peace. One of his earlier philanthropic measures was the establishment of a large pension and benefit fund for the workers of the former Carnegie Company. Carnegie endowed the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh (1895), the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland (1901), and the Carnegie Institute of Washington (1902), as well as dozens of other institutions. He also helped establish the schools that are now part of Carnegie Mellon University and contributed generously to such African-American schools as Hampton and Tuskegee institutes. In 1905, he started the first pension fund for college and university professors. In 1911, the Carnegie Corporation of New York was created to handle the distribution of Carnegie's money for educational and research purposes. In recognition of his beneficence, Carnegie received many honors, but he declined an aristocratic title offered by England's King Edward VII in 1908, no doubt feeling that he was too strong an advocate of democracy to accept.

In the interests of world peace, Carnegie established the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace in 1910 and gave money for the construction of three "temples of peace": the Hague Peace Palace in the Netherlands, a Central American Court of Justice in Costa Rica, and the Pan American Union Building in Washington, D.C. The outbreak of World War I in 1914 shattered his optimism, and he never fully recovered, physically or emotionally, from the blow. Carnegie died from pneumonia five years later, on August 11, 1919, at the age of 83.

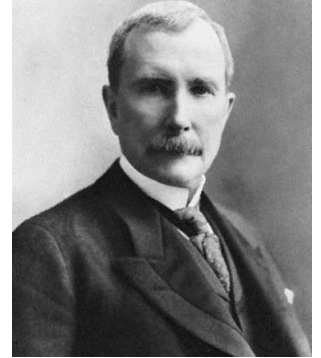
McGuire, William, and Leslie Wheeler. "Andrew Carnegie." *American History*. ABC-CLIO, 2012. Web. 11 Nov. 2012

# John D. Rockefeller

As the moving force behind the Standard Oil Company, John D. Rockefeller helped create the American petroleum industry. People called him, as many still do, the greatest business leader in American history. Early in his career, he said prophetically to a banker, "Some day I'll be the richest man in the world." He also pioneered in large-scale, systematic philanthropy, giving away millions of dollars for the advancement of education, medicine, and science.

Born on July 8, 1839 in Richford, New York, John grew up under the influence of his strict Baptist mother, Eliza Davison Rockefeller, and his shrewd businessman father, William Avery Rockefeller. He attended school in Monrovia, New York, where his father owned a farm. In 1850, he moved with his family to Oswego, New York and three years later, to Cleveland, Ohio. After graduating from Cleveland High School, he had hopes of going to college, but his father insisted that he embark on a career in business, and the serious, reserved young man took courses for three months at a commercial school.

In 1859, he formed a partnership with Maurice B. Clark, and with \$4,000 in capital, the two entrepreneurs traded in grain, hay, and meats. During the Civil War, Clark & Rockefeller made a considerable sum provisioning the Union Army; in fact, the early 1860s brought Rockefeller the capital he needed to expand into other businesses. He did not serve in the war, opting instead to pay \$300 to hire a substitute, which the government allowed and many wealthy young men did.



While the war raged, Rockefeller surveyed the developing oil frenzy in northwestern Pennsylvania. The first oil well had been drilled in 1859 in Titusville, Pennsylvania, and new opportunities appeared with the rapid growth of petroleum refining and with the building of a railroad between Cleveland and the oil fields. As the oil arrived in Cleveland, refineries sprang up to process it, and Rockefeller decided this would be the endeavor to earn him fame and fortune. After all, it cost little to enter the new technology—a person could build a small refinery for as little as \$1,000. In 1863, he and several partners constructed the Excelsior refinery near the Cuyahoga River. The following year, in September 1864, he married Laura Celestia Spelman, daughter of a Cleveland businessman. The couple subsequently had four children.

Putting his future prospects in oil, Rockefeller quit the merchant business and in February 1865, bought out all his partners except Samuel Andrews, a move he later referred to as having "determined my career." Before the end of the year, the firm of Rockefeller & Andrews was operating the largest of Cleveland's 30 refineries.

To provide a more flexible organization, in 1870, the partners founded the Standard Oil Company of Ohio. Throughout the 1870s, the Standard Oil Company continued to grow and expand. It did so by keeping production costs down, obtaining favorable rates from the railroads in the form of rebates, engaging in occasional price slashing, and buying out competitors. By the mid-1870s, the company had either absorbed or forced out of business the majority of its rivals. Under Rockefeller's skilled leadership, the company also pioneered in vertical integration within the oil industry, acquiring or building its own pipelines, controlling local distributors, and using its own tank cars. Thus, by 1880, Standard Oil had managed to secure a virtual monopoly over oil refining and transportation and had become one of the largest corporations in the United States.

Although Rockefeller's ruthless and cutthroat business practices brought him tremendous wealth, his reputation with the public became severely damaged. With the public resoundingly convinced that everything Rockefeller did was motivated by greed, all of his ventures became tainted by public mistrust. In addition to becoming one of the wealthiest men in America, he entered the export market as well, shipping oil and kerosene to Asia, Africa, and South America. Throughout his career and amidst widespread public disapproval, Rockefeller insisted his drive was to bring order to the chaotic oil industry, known for its boom and bust cycles. He intended to provide the nation with a reliable energy source, and although he made money, accrued power, and crushed competitors, he allegedly saw these as secondary to his greater service.

In 1882, a Rockefeller attorney devised a new organization for the company called the trust, which placed Standard Oil stock, and that of its subsidiaries, in the hands of nine trustees. Since the trustees rather than the company held the stock, this allowed Standard Oil to circumvent laws that curtailed its right to own property outside Ohio. Within a short time, "trust" came to mean any big business combination—a recognition of the drive toward mammoth corporations accelerated by Rockefeller.

Antitrust legislation by Congress and a decision by the Ohio Supreme Court forced Rockefeller to disband his trust in 1892. He maintained centralized control, however, by simply transferring properties to subsidiary companies in several different states. In 1899, he placed Standard Oil in a New Jersey holding company, with himself as president and Flagler as vice president, in an effort to subvert new federal laws against trusts.

While the public criticized and even condemned Rockefeller, he quietly gave much of his money away to charities and educational institutions, often under the guidance of the Baptist church in which he had long been a lay leader. He gave money to Spelman College in Georgia to educate African-American women and founded the University of Chicago (ultimately giving it \$80 million). He spent a good deal of his time establishing philanthropic institutions, most prominently the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, founded in 1901, and the Rockefeller Foundation, chartered in 1913 "to promote the well-being of mankind and the world." The latter helped eliminate yellow fever, gave money to hospitals overseas, and provided relief after World War I.

Rockefeller's wealth peaked at about \$900 million—a considerable sum at the turn of the century, more than the entire federal budget. As more than 2% of the gross national product, his fortune qualifies him as the wealthiest man in America's history. He gave away more than \$500 million.

Rockefeller had little to do with the corporation by the time Standard Oil suffered the widely read attacks from Tarbell in her *History of the Standard Oil Company* in 1904, and the U.S. Supreme Court ordered the breakup of Standard Oil in 1911 as a company in restraint of trade. Rockefeller died on May 23, 1937, an enigmatic business leader who denied a desire for great wealth, but obtained it; who praised competition, but crushed it; who shunned the public that scorned him, but contributed lavishly to help it.

McGuire, William, and Leslie Wheeler. "John D. Rockefeller." *American History*. ABC-CLIO, 2012. Web. 14 Nov. 2012.

# Thomas Edison

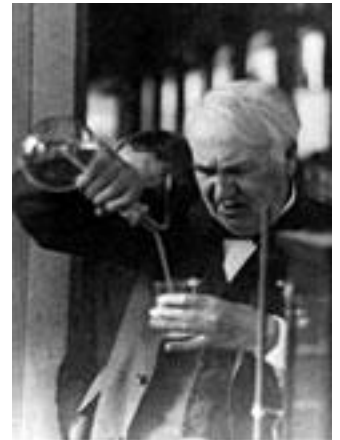
Thomas Alva Edison, despite deafness from an early age and a limited formal education, became one of the nation's most prolific pioneers in the development of electronic inventions that have transformed the lives of people all over the world.

Edison was born on February 11, 1847 in the village of Milan, Ohio, the youngest of seven children. His parents, Samuel Edison and Nancy Elliott, were originally from Ontario, Canada but moved to Ohio shortly before Edison was born. When Edison was seven, his father moved the family to Port Huron, Michigan and opened a business dealing in lumber and grain, earning a comfortable living for the family.

Because Edison did poorly in school, he was taught at home by his mother. Mathematics was his weakest subject, but he found chemistry more to his liking. When in his teens, he got a job selling newspapers and candy on trains; he also set up a chemical laboratory in a baggage car. Getting to know telegraph operators in the stations on his route, he became a telegrapher himself at age 16 and roamed around the Midwest, working at telegraphy and odd jobs, dabbling in chemistry, picking up information from continual reading, and experimenting with various inventions. During these years, he began to suffer from deafness, possibly owing to an accident.

In 1868, Edison went to work as an operator for the Western Union Telegraph Company in Boston, meanwhile continuing to tinker with experiments. The next year, he took out a patent for his first invention, an electric vote-recording machine, which he took to Washington, D.C. and demonstrated before a congressional committee. Its adoption was turned down because the machine counted votes too rapidly and would prevent members of Congress from filibustering. In New York, after showing off his technical skill, he was hired as general manager by Laws' Gold Indicator Company. Soon afterward, with two other electrical engineers, he formed a company specializing in electrical work of all kinds. In 1870, when the firm was sold, Edison received \$40,000 for his share and started his own electrical business, for which he hired trained technicians able to work on inventions under his supervision, as well as scientific theorists. He had an intuitive gift for judging the abilities of prospective employees.

Edison concentrated during the early 1870s on making advances in the telegraph, often improving on the work of earlier inventors. For example, he took the duplex system of telegraphing, by which two messages could be sent simultaneously, and made it quadruplex, allowing for four messages. In 1876, he set up an "invention plant" at Menlo Park, New Jersey, where he and his staff pursued independent research on and development of projects that were seen to be profitable. In 1877, Edison invented the phonograph, at first a crude device, which he slowly improved. Two years later, he made the incandescent electric bulb a commercial possibility, working from the discoveries of others going back to the 1840s. His chief (and essential) contribution was to perfect the means for cheap production of the bulbs and for bringing power to them from a central source. On Pearl Street in lower New York City, he established the first electrical plant to generate power. He devised light sockets, safety fuses, junction boxes, and other elements of the electric system now familiar to everyone.



By 1887, the invention plant at Menlo Park had outgrown itself, and Edison moved his headquarters to West Orange, New Jersey, where work continued on a larger scale. Edison organized companies to make and sell his various inventions. These companies were eventually merged into what is now the General Electric Company.

In experimenting with the motion picture during the 1890s, Edison and his colleagues took an existing device, improved it, patented it as the Edison Vitascope, and encouraged the formation and systematization of what became the movie industry. He experimented with synchronizing sound and cinema, anticipating the eventual development of sound movies.

Edison's other successes, often worked out from existing inventions, include the electric dynamo, the storage battery, the dictaphone (Ediphone), the mimeograph, the microphone, the electric locomotive, railway signaling devices, and lighting systems for railway cars and mines. During World War I, he chaired the Naval Consulting Board, where he contributed his experience to research on torpedoes, periscopes, flamethrowers, and devices to protect ships from U-boat torpedoes.

At Seminole Lodge, the winter home Edison built at Fort Myers, Florida in the 1880s, he established the Edison Botanical Research Laboratory where he experimented unsuccessfully with making rubber from the goldenrod plant and using bamboo fiber for the filament in the incandescent bulb. His friends Henry Ford and Harvey Firestone encouraged his efforts, and Ford bought an estate adjoining Seminole Lodge. Edison continued to spend winters in Fort Myers until the end of his life.

Edison made only one discovery in pure science, the "Edison effect," which he noted and patented in 1883 and which led other workers to discover the vacuum tube, in turn important for radio. Edison registered some 1,000 patents, though many of these were the result of cooperative work in his laboratories. Even during Edison's lifetime, the phenomenal character of such inventions as electric light, the phonograph, and motion pictures gave him an almost heroic stature in the common view, and a virtual mythology grew up about the events of his life and career. Edison died on October 18, 1931.

McGuire, William, and Leslie Wheeler. "Thomas Edison." *American History*. ABC-CLIO, 2012. Web. 11 Nov. 2012.

# Boss Tweed

As the head of Tammany Hall, the Democratic Party organization in New York City, William Tweed, also known as Boss Tweed, became famous for his greed and arrogant abuse of political power.

Tweed was born on April 3, 1823 in New York City. After leaving public school at age 11, he joined his father as a chair maker and was an apprentice saddler before attending a bookkeeping school for several months. At the age of 17, he became the bookkeeper of a small brush-making firm his father partly owned. By 19, he was a member of the firm. Two years later, he married Mary Jane Skaden, the daughter of the main partner in the firm. She subsequently bore eight children.

In 1848, Tweed organized a new volunteer fire engine company in New York City, at that time a sure way to enter politics. He lost his first bid to win election for assistant alderman in 1850, but one year later, he succeeded as a candidate for the Democratic Party in a predominately Whig district. Two years later, Tweed was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives but served only one term because he preferred to exercise more influence at the local government level. While serving in Congress, Tweed held onto his position as alderman. His term as a representative ended in 1855, and within a year, he was elected the chairman of the New York City Board of Supervisors and a school commissioner.



A master of political strategy, Tweed used his new positions to increase his political power by accepting bribes and placing allies in key positions to distribute patronage jobs. He soon dominated the New York Democratic Party. In 1857, he was elected to the governing board of New York City's powerful Democratic political machine, Tammany Hall. Eleven years after joining the board, he was chosen to head the organization.

Tweed used his power in New York City and the state legislature in Albany, as well as in the governor's office after 1868, to institute graft (a graft is an dishonest use of a politician's authority for personal gain) at taxpayers' expense on an unprecedented scale. Although he had no training as an attorney, he opened a law office through which huge fees were paid by businesses to obtain city and state contracts, a printing company through which all state documents had to be submitted regardless of the cost and

In his largest scheme, a marble company that billed the state government exorbitant rates for the stone required to build a new county courthouse. Because of the false billing submitted for the courthouse, the original cost of the building skyrocketed from an estimated \$500,000 to \$12 million. The level of overall greed and corruption evident in the construction of the courthouse led to an investigation of Tweed's methods of robbing the public treasury by *Harper's Weekly* and the *New York Times*. Aided by articles in these publications after 1870, and especially the cartoons drawn by Thomas Nast in *Harper's Weekly*, public indignation was aroused against Tammany Hall. Tweed only confirmed the accusations made by Nast when he made the mistake of offering the cartoonist \$500,000 to stop producing drawings about him.

Tweed was convicted of forgery and grand larceny in November 1873 and sentenced to 12 years in jail and a more than \$12,000 fine. He was released in January 1875 after the sentence was reduced on appeal, but he was immediately rearrested and returned to jail to await trial for civil damages. Unable to pay the \$3 million bail, Tweed decided to escape in December of that same year and fled first to Cuba and then Spain. He was recaptured in Spain after Spanish officials identified him from Nast's cartoons and returned him to the United States in November 1876. Once back in America, Tweed was arrested and returned to jail, where he unsuccessfully attempted to secure leniency by cooperating in the arrests and trials of former conspirators and by detailing his own corrupt activities.

Tweed's health had begun to deteriorate rapidly after 1875, and he died in jail on April 12, 1878 before ever standing trial for the civil damages. Although his personal power had evaporated with his initial arrest and conviction in the early 1870s, the Tammany Hall organization he created remained a dominant force in local and state politics in New York and in national politics until well into the 20th century.

O'Brien, Steven G. "William Marcy Tweed." *American History*. ABC-CLIO, 2012. Web. 12 Nov. 2012.

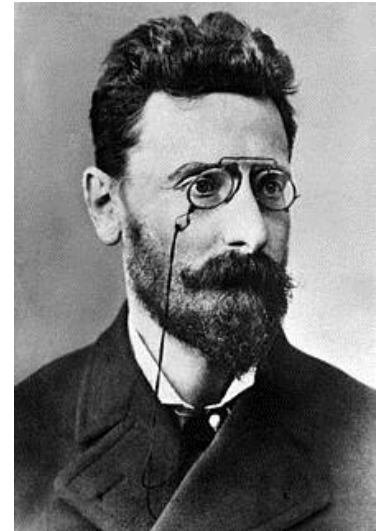
# Joseph Pulitzer

As the owner of the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* and later of the *New York World*, Joseph Pulitzer used his newspapers as an instrument to urge reform upon American society. His sensational coverage and fierce competitiveness with William Randolph Hearst led to the spread of yellow journalism at the end of the 19th century, but Pulitzer remained an ardent advocate of high literary standards.

Pulitzer was born on April 10, 1847 in Mako, Hungary and grew up in Budapest. Failing to make a military career in Europe because of poor health and eyesight, Pulitzer emigrated to the United States in 1864 and enlisted in the Union Army. He served for nearly a year under Gen. Philip H. Sheridan. With the end of the war, Pulitzer went to St. Louis, Missouri, where he became a reporter for a newspaper owned by German-born journalist and statesman Carl Schurz.

In spite of at first being ridiculed for his scrawny figure and poor English, Pulitzer was soon a highly successful reporter. He became a naturalized U.S. citizen on March 6, 1867 and embarked on a career in politics. His reputation as a reporter was such that he was elected to the state legislature as a Republican and served during the 1870 session. An ardent supporter of the Liberal Republican movement, of which Schurz was one of the leaders, Pulitzer was named secretary of the Cincinnati convention that nominated controversial editor Horace Greeley for the presidency in 1872. Disillusioned by the failure of the movement, Pulitzer joined the Democratic Party.

On June 19, 1878, Pulitzer married Kate Davis, a distant relative of Confederate president Jefferson Davis, and decided that same year to abandon an active career in politics and concentrate instead on journalism. That same year, he bought the failing *St. Louis Dispatch* at public auction for \$2,500 and soon added to it the *St. Louis Post*. Using both sensationalism and campaigns against political and municipal corruption in St. Louis, he managed to double the circulation of the combined papers within a year. By the end of 1881, the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* was bringing in annual profits of \$45,000.



In 1883, Pulitzer bought the *New York World* from financier and railroad speculator Jay Gould for \$346,000 and quickly transformed it into the country's leading Democratic daily newspaper. With the *World*, Pulitzer fine-tuned the techniques of mass-circulation journalism he had pioneered in the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*. Like the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*, the *World* combined sensational crime stories with effective exposés of civic corruption. Moreover, it provided readers with entertainment as well as information through such features as sports, colored comics, illustrations, and women's fashions. The *World* further made full use of inventions that were revolutionizing publishing during this time—among these were cheaper newsprint made from wood pulp, the Linotype machine, typewriters, telephones, and the telegraph. These improvements, along with the paper's excellent news coverage, distinguished editorials, sensational stories, promotional stunts, and reform-minded crusades, brought a dramatic rise in circulation. Two months after Pulitzer assumed control of the paper, its original readership of 20,000 had doubled. By the fall of 1884, the *World* boasted a circulation of 100,000; by 1886, 250,000. In 1887, Pulitzer added the *Evening World*, and by 1896, the combined circulation of the two papers had climbed to nearly 750,000.

Newspapers in New York and other large cities soon adopted Pulitzer's successful methods. In particular, a fierce rivalry developed between the *World* and the *New York Journal* under the ownership of William Randolph Hearst. Hearst was determined to outdo the *World* in sensationalism, giving rise to "yellow journalism," a term used because of a comic strip titled "The Yellow Kid" but which came to stand for the most lurid of journalistic practices. Yellow journalism on the part of both papers helped inflame public opinion in favor of war against Spain in 1898.

Pulitzer had retired from direct control of his papers in 1889 because of failing health, but he returned after the Spanish-American War and raised the level of the *World* to what it had been, eradicating much of the yellow journalism style. Under his renewed guidance, the paper continued to serve as an instrument of middle-class reform. In editorials and stories, the *World* supported labor, campaigned against trusts and political bosses, and helped to expose the plight of the urban poor—crusades that anticipated in daily journalism the muckraking magazines of the early 20th century.

An extremely wealthy man by the time of his death on October 29, 1911, Pulitzer left \$2 million for the establishment of the first school of journalism in the country at Columbia University in New York City. He also left \$250,000 to be used for an annual Pulitzer Prize in journalism, literature, history, and education.



# Booker T. Washington

As the head of Tuskegee Institute (a leading center of African American education), Booker Taliaferro Washington was a major spokesperson for his race in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. He believed that African Americans should advance through education and effort instead of seeking social and political equality with whites.

Washington was born a slave on April 5, 1856 on a plantation near Hale's Ford, Franklin County, Virginia. His father was an unknown white man; his mother was a cook on a plantation. After being emancipated in 1865, Washington's family moved to Malden, West Virginia, where he went to work in the salt furnaces and later in a coal mine. Imbued with a strong desire to get an education, Washington managed to take classes at night.



In 1872, at the age of 16, Washington entered Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute in Virginia. Here, he came under the influence of the school's founder and principal, Samuel Chapman Armstrong. Armstrong emphasized a program of arts and sciences as well as industrial arts that would train African Americans for jobs and instill values. He believed that African Americans would be granted political and civil rights once they had proven themselves worthy of these rights.

Graduating from Hampton with honors in 1875, Washington returned to Malden to teach school. In 1878, he studied briefly at Wayland Seminary in Washington, D.C. before returning to Hampton as a teacher in a program for Native American students. In 1881, Washington became principal of a new state school for African Americans, the Tuskegee Institute, at Tuskegee, Alabama.

From the time of his arrival at Tuskegee, Washington assumed a leadership role. Finding that no land or buildings had been acquired for the school, he went to work winning the support of local whites and recruiting African American students. Thanks to his efforts, Tuskegee opened with 40 students in a dilapidated shanty loaned by the African American Methodist church. From these modest beginnings, Washington built Tuskegee into an institution with 540 acres of land and an enrollment of more than 400 students by 1888.

Like Hampton, Tuskegee offered training in a variety of skilled trades. Boys studied farming and dairying; girls learned cooking, sewing, and other homemaking skills. In the academic departments, the emphasis was on the practical applications of learning rather than learning for its own sake. Washington was also concerned that students be taught the beauty and dignity of labor. In addition, personal hygiene, manners, and moral education were stressed. Unlike Hampton, where the principal and most of the teachers were white, Tuskegee always had an all-African-American staff, including the famous agricultural chemist George Washington Carver. The school became known throughout the country and abroad. Graduates taught in all the Southern states, and institutions modeled on Tuskegee were started elsewhere.

Washington personally devoted a great deal of time and energy to raising money for Tuskegee and publicizing the school and its philosophy. He was remarkably successful in securing financial aid from white Northern philanthropists, including Andrew Carnegie (who became the largest single donor) and philanthropic foundations such as the Peabody Education Fund, started by George Peabody.

Beginning in 1884, when Washington addressed the National Education Association in Madison, Wisconsin, he was in demand as a public speaker on education and race relations. Washington delivered his most famous speech at the Cotton States and International Exposition in Atlanta in 1895. The essence of his racial philosophy was contained in this statement: "In all things that are purely social we can be as separate as the fingers, yet one as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress." Washington also advised African Americans to remain in the South instead of seeking advancement in the North.

After Washington's Atlanta speech, he was hailed as the spokesperson for his race and the successor to Frederick Douglass, who had died that same year. In 1896, Harvard University awarded Washington an honorary degree. Two years later, he received President William McKinley at Tuskegee, and in 1901, he dined at the White House with President Theodore Roosevelt, who consulted him on appointments and on Southern and racial policies. During Roosevelt's administration and that of William Howard Taft, Washington had more influence than any other African American.

In keeping with Washington's philosophy of economic self-help, he organized and became the head of the National Negro Business League, established in 1900 to help develop and support African American-owned businesses. In 1901, Washington published his autobiography, *Up from Slavery*. A bestseller in the United States and translated into more than a dozen languages, the book established Washington as a prototype of the self-made African American man.

Yet many African American intellectuals, notably Harvard-educated W. E. B. Du Bois, sharply criticized Washington's philosophy and methods. They charged that his emphasis on industrial education over academics limited African Americans to low-paying jobs. They also accused Washington of giving the nod to segregation and the disenfranchisement of African Americans. In fact, recent research has shown that although in public Washington was an accommodationist, in private he worked against disfranchisement and other forms of discrimination. Finally, Washington's critics attacked what they called the Tuskegee Machine, a vast network of graduates and followers, by which Washington maintained his power and sought to silence his opponents.

Washington used his influence in the white community and with African American editors to defend himself and his policies. He tried to weaken both the Niagara movement, started in 1905 by African Americans who disagreed with him, and the biracial National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, founded in 1909. By the time of his death from overwork on November 14, 1915, his philosophy of race relations had fallen out of favor. Nevertheless, Washington's ideas on economic self-reliance remained his lasting legacy.

McGuire, William, and Leslie Wheeler. "Booker T. Washington." *American History*. ABC-CLIO, 2012. Web. 11 Nov. 2012.