Dear Chancellor Wrigley,

On behalf of the University System of Georgia (USG) Naming Advisory Group, I submit this letter and attached recommendations to signify the conclusion of a review related to the appropriateness of the names shown on campus buildings and colleges, as directed by USG's Board of Regents. We thank you for the opportunity to allow for a focused discussion on a topic that will undoubtedly impact USG now and in the future. The Group accepted your charge to conduct this critical review for USG, and hopes you will find the information informative and worthy of the trust and time committed to this project.

It was an honor to work with a group of colleagues that believe in higher education's impact on students. Members of the Naming Advisory Group dedicated significant time away from their daily lives to conduct the review and support this collective effort.

The charge given to the Naming Advisory Group to thoroughly review the named colleges and buildings at all 26 University System of Georgia institutions has been no small undertaking and represents a monumental task on behalf of a variety of stakeholders. While members of the Group represent a number of those with a vested interest in USG and its institutions, there are many more whom these decisions will impact. However, there is no one constituency the Group thought of more in this process than the one on campus daily – the students. Due to this work's significance, we believe it is essential to not only simply provide recommendations but also provide context related to our Group's purpose, goal and process.

We defined our Group's purpose as follows: to help ensure names associated with USG colleges and buildings support the stated USG vision, mission and goals. This purpose provided guideposts for meaningful deliberation by the Group. The stated vision for USG is to provide a strong, unified, academically excellent system of public higher education for Georgians. Additionally, USG's stated mission and goals include the galvanizing concept of charging collective intellectual power, including critical elements of unity, diversity, cultural and social advancement. These elements are clearly written; however, we needed additional factors to form adequately a naming recommendation based on individual contributions.

Because opinions differ widely based on context, perspectives, experiences and publicly available facts, the Group recognized the need to establish a clear goal and process to complete our work. Our goal was to provide a comprehensive, objective and transparent review of all named buildings and colleges on USG campuses based on publicly available information, and also provide the Chancellor and the Board with thoughtful recommendations to help USG achieve its stated vision. The goal informed our ability to develop a process and decision framework, which we then used to frame our discussions and, eventually, our decisions. Our review started with best efforts to identify which of the 3,861 buildings and colleges across USG were named. Of these, we identified 878 buildings and colleges named for individuals or groups of individuals, companies or landmarks. This list became the focus of our review. The decision matrix included five broad inquiries as follows:

1. Did the person or entity support any mistreatment towards humanity?
2. Was the person or entity affiliated with beliefs and actions that hindered the advancement of humanity?

3. Did the person or entity willingly fight or support obstacles that hindered the advancement, health, or well-being of humanity?

4. Did the person or entity support or have a positive impact on humanity?

5. Was the person or entity consistent in support of positive behaviors and actions?

To be consistent, we evaluated individuals based on documented findings; we did not assume to know their personal opinions or beliefs. Most importantly, the Group made a concerted effort to focus our recommendations on individuals' direct statements and actions and not make recommendations based on family relationships or indirect associations. Our goal was to evaluate each individual independently.

At the conclusion of our review, which included 838 named buildings and 40 named colleges, the Group now offers the following recommendations to include the removal of 75 buildings and colleges, representing 58 individual’s names. Overall, this represents approximately 8.54% of the total names reviewed and roughly 1.94% of all buildings on USG campuses. Additionally, the group has recommended 21 names be kept with context. The context included with the 20 named building and one named college is at the discretion of the individual institutions. The Group hopes these recommendations will allow USG's more than 341,000 students to know that no building included on the system’s campuses holds the name of someone who does not reflect the USG published standards. You can find the link to the building writes-ups [here](#).

It is important to highlight that the Group's work was completed in a condensed timeframe supported by a single historian. As a Group, we were dedicated to being thorough, deliberate and concise. However, additional information not available to us during our review may become available at a later time. If so, further assessments may be helpful if information becomes available that could change the Group's recommendation. We recommend this for all USG buildings or colleges.

In closing, we believe the Group achieved our goal of providing a comprehensive, objective and transparent review of all named buildings and colleges on USG campuses based on publicly available information.

We are inspired by the vision of USG to provide a strong, unified, academically excellent system of public higher education for Georgians, and thankful the vision was in place to guide our review. We believe our recommendations support this vision.

Sincerely,
President Marion Ross Fedrick, Albany State University, Chairwoman, USG Naming Advisory Group
Michael Patrick, Atlanta, Georgia
The Honorable Herbert Phipps, Retired, Georgia Court of Appeals
Neal J. Quirk, Attorney, Executive Vice-Chairman, University of Georgia Foundation Board of Trustees
Dr. Sally Wallace, Dean, Andrew Young School of Policy Studies, Georgia State University
<table>
<thead>
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Buildings and Colleges Recommended for Change
Who Was Aderhold?
The University of Georgia's Aderhold Hall was named for Omer Clyde “O.C.” Aderhold (1899-1969), a president of the university as well as former dean and faculty member.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Aderhold was a committed segregationist who used his leadership position to fight against integration and otherwise limit the human rights.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As president of the University of Georgia, Aderhold used his position to fight against integration at the university. In 1950, when law school applicant Horace Ward appealed his rejection as one made on the basis of race, Aderhold appointed known segregationists to review it. He then supported the committee’s conclusion that upheld Ward’s rejection. Later, when the university finally admitted its first Black students, Charlayne Hunter and Hamilton Holmes (1961), Aderhold suspended them as the cause of the white supremacist riots on campus.

More Biographic Details
Aderhold was born on November 7, 1899 in Lavonia, GA to Mary Catherine Faremer and Jospeh Peter Aderhold. He married Elizabeth M. “Bessie” Parr. They had two children.

Aderhold received his B.S.A. and M.S. from the University of Georgia, worked as a high school principal in Jefferson County, GA, served as the superintendent of schools for the county, and then began his career at the University of Georgia as an associate professor of education in 1929. While employed at the university, he earned his Ph.D. in Education from the Ohio State University. He became dean of Georgia’s College of Education in 1945 and the university president in 1950.

During Aderhold’s presidential term (1950-67) the university grew immensely. The university constructed more than 18 new buildings, the value of the physical plant boomed from $12 million to $100 million, and the research budget for the university went from $2 million to $13 million. The growth corresponded with a push to expand both teaching and research at the university as well as a new commitment to serving the citizens of Georgia. These activities included increased involvement in agricultural extension programs and experiment programs.

Although he publicly proclaimed and even testified that Black students were assessed for admittance on the same standards as white students, Aderhold’s actions and the complete lack of admission for any Black students into the university until the court ordered it demonstrated otherwise. Upon his entry into the presidency, Aderhold immediately used his position to resist efforts to desegregate the university. In 1950, African American Horace Ward protested his rejected application to the law school on account of his race. Aderhold put together a committee of segregationists to “investigate.” The three-member committee consisted of law school dean J. Alton Hosch, law professor Robert L. McWhorter, and history professor E. Merton Coulter. As expected, the committee rejected Ward’s appeal and contended that Ward was a tool of the NAACP and its efforts to desegregate the university. Ward, the committee stated, did not actually wanted to attend the university.
A decade later, Aderhold continued to resist court-ordered attempts to integrate the university or otherwise protect the interests of Black students upon their admission to the university. Aderhold responded to the court’s order to integrate with both silence and complicity, leaving the public unsure as to whether or not he would comply. He did little to address the protests of white supremacist who opposed the admission of the first two Black students to the university. When protesters rioted for three days after the admission of Charlayne Hunter and Hamilton Holmes, the first African American students to attend the university, Aderhold did little to contain it. Rather than protect the rights of Hunter and Holmes, he suspended both of them in January 1961 “in the interests of your personal safety and for the safety and welfare of more than 7,000 students at the University of Georgia.”


Works Cited:
Pratt, Robert A. We Shall Not Be Moved: The Desegregation of The University of Georgia. University of Georgia Press, 2005.
Who Was Ashley?
Valdosta State University’s Ashley Hall was named for the street it sits on, Ashley Street, which was named for William Ashley (1832-1867), a physician and slaveholder.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Ashely demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally. Citizens in the city of Valdosta have proposed changing the name of Ashley Street (and several others) because of his slaveholding.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Ashley enslaved at least seventeen African Americans during his lifetime. The 1860 census includes the enslaved people in his household. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life.

More Biographic Details
Ashley was born in Telfair County, GA in 1832 to Desire Burroughs Maxcy and Cornelius Ashley, a farmer. He married Juliet Maxcy Ashley. Their son, Cornelius Raines Ashley was born in Georgia in 1858. They lived in Texas in 1860, where Ashley enslaved seventeen people between the ages of 2 and 50.

Ashley’s son helped create the South Georgia State Normal College for Young Ladies (now Valdosta State University) and served on the school’s board of trustees as treasurer.

Ashley died in 1867.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Who Was Bonner?
The University of West Georgia’s Bonner House was named for Thomas Bonner (1807-1881), an enslaver built the house and whose plantation is now part of the university campus.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Bonner demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Bonner enslaved at least twenty-four African Americans during his lifetime. The 1850 census includes five enslaved people in his household and the 1860 census includes twenty-four enslaved people in his household. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life.

More Biographic Details
Bonner was born on November 11, 1807 to Susan Johnson and Zadok Augustus Bonner, Sr. He married Lucinda Ridgeway.

Bonner rode with the Carroll Rangers militia during the Creek War (1836). He built the house (c. 1843) as a part of his plantation. In 1850 Bonner enslaved five African Americans, and by 1860 he enslaved 24 African Americans. He served as an early sheriff of Carroll County. He moved to Alabama after the Civil War.

Bonner died in Clay County, AL on November 11, 1881.

Works Cited:
Who Was Brooks?
The University of Georgia’s Brooks Hall was named for Robert Preston Brooks (1881-1961), a longtime history professor and administrator at the university.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
In his writings Brooks expressed hostility toward African Americans, countered the idea of racial equality, and otherwise spoke out against humanity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Brooks wrote extensively on the idea that enslavement was good for African Americans and a burden on the white South. He defended white enslavers by stating that they were judged by a small number who acted out of cruelty, but that the overwhelming number of enslavers were kind, parent-like and benevolent. He decried post-war emancipation for leaving African Americans too much responsibility and power. They were, he explained, unprepared and ill-equipped for freedom. In his discussions of emancipation, he explained that strict laws were needed to force African Americans to work because they could “preserve them [Blacks] and the South from the evils of the transitions from servitude to freedom.” Brooks also justified white resistance to Reconstruction and its ultimate end as it was necessary to end the “excesses of freedom.”

More Biographic Details
Brooks was born in Milledgeville, Ga on July 23, 1881 to Anna M. Moore and the Reverent James Henry Brooks, a Methodist minister. Brooks married Josephine Edmundson Reid in 1908. They had several children.

After graduating from Georgia Military College in Milledgeville (1899), Brooks took a job as secretary to John W. Akin, the president of the Iron Belt Railroad and Mining Company, the Cherokee Ochre and Barites Company, and the Southern Plaster Company. After six months with Akin in Cartersville, GA he spent the next two years working for the Valdosta Foundry and Machine Company.

Brooks used the skills he had acquired through these positions to help pay for his studies at the University of Georgia; he worked as secretary to the chancellor as he attended classes. After graduating from the University of Georgia as a Rhodes Scholar (1904-07), Brooks earned a doctorate from the University of Wisconsin (1910).

Brooks returned to Athens in 1910, where he started work as an adjunct professor of Georgia History and Sociology at the University of Georgia. He was promoted to assistant professor (1912) and then became the DeRenne Professor of Georgia History (1914). He served as the first dean of the School of Commerce (now the College of Business Administration) from 1920 until 45.

Brooks’ numerous publications focus on the South (Georgia in particular), agrarianism, and commerce. The writings profess of a longing for the efficiency and traditions of the slave South. In his History of Georgia, he sought to bring “justice to the slaveholder.” He explained the “burden” of slaveholding, that most enslavers wished they could justly rid themselves of their human property but it would leave Black people destitute, and enslavers who used cruelty were “exceptions to the
rule” and shunned by society. In short, he concludes that “slaves were on the whole well treated, when we look at slavery from the point of view of the economic welfare of the South, the picture was less cheerful.” Throughout his writings, he assumes and asserts that Black people (enslaved and free) lazy and ignorant, and that white Georgians had an obligation to rule them for their own good.


**Works Cited:**
Ancestry.com
Who Was Brown?
The Georgia Institute of Technology’s Brown Residence Hall was named for Julius L. Brown (1848-1911), a Confederate veteran and attorney.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Brown supported mistreatment toward humanity throughout his life. His service in the Confederate army helped support a commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south. After the war he continued to actively prevent African Americans from exercising their civil rights by using convict labor in his Dade Coal Company and, as a lawyer, by arguing successfully to keep racial segregation legal on railroad carriages.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Brown enlisted in the Confederacy at sixteen to fight to preserve white southerners’ right to enslave African Americans. He continued to deny freedpeople civil rights in the post-war era. In the 1870s, Brown’s Dade Coal Company leased three hundred African American convicts as laborers in the coal mines. These leased laborers faced dismal living conditions, starvation, and inadequate clothing at the mine’s camp. In addition, Brown supported their mistreatment by the repeated use of water cure torture on the workers at his coal mine. Furthermore, as an attorney for his father’s railroad company, Brown argued successfully to maintain racially segregated railway cars.

More Biographic Details
Brown was born in Canton, GA on May 31, 1848 to Elizabeth Grisham and Joseph Emerson Brown, the Civil War governor (1857-65) of Confederate Georgia who later became a U.S. Senator (1880-91). He married Francis Gilmer Fort around 1871.

Brown joined the Confederate army in 1864, at the age of sixteen. He was admitted to the Georgia Bar in 1869 and graduated from Harvard Law School in 1870. In 1873, he became part owner with his father of the Dade Coal Company and served as the company’s attorney. Their company depended on convict labor for their mining endeavors. The company leased 100 convicts in 1874 and then added 200 more to that number in 1876. They won the bidding for the convict lease laborers by offering each convict $11 per year plus sufficient clothing and food. However, critics at the time compared conditions at Brown’s convict labor camp to those at the dreaded Civil War prisoner of war camp, Andersonville. In addition, after his father’s death a legislative commission determined that conditions in Brown’s mines did not meet even the minimum of standards. Convicts used in the Dade Coal Company mines had to deal with starvation, did not have adequate clothing, and faced water cure torture.

Brown served as the assistant to the United States District Attorney J.D. Pope (1870-1872) and, beginning in 1887, as counsel for his father’s Western & Atlantic Railroad. As the attorney for the railroad company, Brown argued for a carrier’s right to separate passengers by race. The suit brought before the Interstate Commerce Commission by William H. Councill, a black passenger who was beaten and ejected from a train for refusing to ride in the Jim Crow car, was ruled in the railroad’s favor.

Brown died in Atlanta, GA on September 4, 1911.
Works Cited:


Who Was Brown?
Valdosta State University’s Brown Residence Hall was named for Joseph Mackey Brown (1851-1932), the governor of Georgia (1909-11 and 1912-13) when the school opened.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Though his various anti-Semitic writings, Brown instigated and justified the lynch mob that killed Leo Frank in 1915. In doing so, Brown demonstrated a disregard for the humanity of Jews.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
In 1913, Leo Frank, a Jewish factory manager faced false accusations that he raped a murdered a white 13-year-old factory employee. Brown fueled the public’s anger and directed it toward Frank by publishing a series of editorials that connected Frank, anti-Semitic stereotypes, and the brutal crime. After a jury found Frank guilty and gave him the death penalty and after Georgia’s Governor John Slaton commuted the sentence, Brown made explicit calls for the public to enact extralegal justice of Frank. He told his readers to be sure not to accept that “anybody except a Jew can be punished for a crime.” Instead, he urged “the people to form mobs” which they did in August 1915 when the hanged Frank.

More Biographic Details
Brown was born in Canton, GA on December 28, 1851 to Elizabeth Grisham and Joseph Emerson Brown, Georgia’s governor (1857-1865) during the secession crisis and the Civil War. He married Cora Annie McCord in 1889. They had three children.

Brown graduated from Oglethorpe University (1872). He studied law at Harvard as well as at the law practice of one of his brothers and passed the bar in 1873. However, Brown’s failing eyesight prevented him from practicing law, so he enrolled in an Atlanta business college. He went to work for the Western and Atlantic Railroad, first as a clerk and eventually rising through the ranks to become the traffic manager for the Western and Atlantic Railroad system (1889). After his time with the railroad, Governor Joseph M. Terrel appointed Brown to the Georgia State Railroad Commission (1904-07). He lost his post for disagreeing with the next governor, Hoke Smith, who wanted to lower passenger fares.

Following in his father’s footsteps, Brown ran for governor in 1908, defeating Smith. He made no public speeches during his campaign. Instead, Brown depended on and played off of the unpopularity of Smith’s economic policies, using the campaign slogan “Hoke and Hunger, Brown and Bread.” Their political feud continued throughout Brown’s political career as the two adversaries jockeyed for political office. Smith defeated Brown in the 1910 gubernatorial primary as well as in the general election (Brown ran as an independent). When Smith left office to fill a vacated U.S. Senate seat, Brown won the unopposed 1912 gubernatorial election. They ran against each other for a seat in the U.S. Senate in 1914, when Smith again defeated Brown. As governor, Brown supported prohibition, lower tax rates, and a state labor department. He signed bills that required the registration of cars as well as of revolvers.

Between 1913 and 1915 Brown published incendiary anti-Semitic editorials against factory manager Leo Frank, who was falsely accused of and convicted of raping and murdering a thirteen-year-old
female factory employee. When Governor John Slaton commuted Frank’s sentence, Brown continued to agitate against Frank telling Georgians not to accept that “anybody except a Jew can be punished for a crime.” He later promoted “the people to form mobs” to carry out what he insisted was justice. Brown’s written missives helped instigate the men who kidnapped and lynched Frank in August 1915.

Brown was the author of *The Mountain Campaigns in Georgia* (1886) and *Astynax* (1907). He served as the director and vice president of the First National Bank of Marietta and as the owner of Cherokee Mills.

Brown died on March 3, 1932.

**Works Cited:**
CANDLER HALL (1901) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Candler?
The University of Georgia’s Candler Hall was named for Allen Daniel Candler (1834-1910), a Confederate veteran, state Representative (1873-78), state Senator (1878-80), U.S. Representative (1893-91), Georgia Secretary of State (1894-98), and governor of Georgia (1898-1902).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Candler's service in the Confederate army helped support a commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south. He further displayed his inhumanity toward African Americans as a postbellum politician who advocated for racial segregation and the disenfranchisement of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a young man Candler supported the continuation of racial slavery by fighting in the Confederate army. After the Civil War he used his political authority to create and enforce the system of segregation that became the postbellum norm. He obtained his reputation as a civic leader after the war by being a leading voice against Reconstruction—in particular the federal government’s attempts to ensure the constitutional protections recently extended to all African Americans. In these and other actions, Candler worked to deny the humanity of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Candler was born in Auraria, GA on November 4, 1834 to Nancy Caroline Matthews and Daniel Candler, a farmer. He married Eugenia Thomas Williams on January 12, 1864. They had eleven children.

Candler graduated from Mercer University (1859) and then studied law. He taught in Banks County briefly and then enlisted in the Confederate army in 1862. By the end of the Civil War, he had earned promotion to colonel in the Army of Tennessee. After the war he became a farmer in Jonesboro, GA and then Gainesville, GA.

Candler began his long political career as the mayor of Gainesville, GA (1872). As he moved up the political ladder he fought against Reconstruction and worked to maintain segregation. He served in the Georgia House of Representatives (1873-78), Georgia Senate (1878-80), and U.S. House of Representatives (1893-91). He also served as Georgia’s Secretary of State (1894-98).

As the governor of Georgia (1898-1902) he advocated for pensions for Confederate widows as he limited state services to African Americans and poor whites. He reduced state taxes as well as expenditures. Candler worked tirelessly to solidify the disfranchisement of African American voters by allowing corrupt elections and extra-legal violence. In addition, he argued for the legality of an exclusive all-white Democratic party as a private organization. Candler purposefully ignored the rampant lynching of African Americans that had become a common intimidation tactic in the Jim Crow South.

After retiring from his political career (1902), he organized and published the state of Georgia’s historical documents. Over the next eight years he published twenty-one volumes of colonial records, three volumes of Revolutionary era records, and five volumes of Confederate records. He
also co-authored an encyclopedia of Georgia history (1906). He also published racist columns in newspapers.

Candler died on October 26, 1910.

**Works Cited:**


Who Was Vinson?
Georgia College and State University’s Carl Vinson House was named for Carl Vinson (1883-1981), a legislator who served in the Georgia General Assembly (1908-12) and in the U.S. House of Representatives (1914-65).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his political opposition to racial integration, Vinson worked to deny the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Vinson denied the humanity of African Americans throughout his career. For most of his career, his support of racial segregation was shared by the entire Democratic Party in the one-party South. Even within this context, Vinson distinguished himself with his defense of racial segregation. Although he did not face much opposition in a lifetime of elections, his behavior in his contested elections revealed a commitment to Jim Crow racial segregation. In these elections, he positioned himself as the candidate most opposed to integration and described his opponent as being weak on the issue. This attitude was most apparent in the 1920 election to the House of Representatives. It later became clear in his opposition to federal demands to integrate after Brown vs. Board (1954), in his signing of the “Southern Manifesto” (a public declaration by white Southern Democrats to oppose the landmark Supreme Court Brown v. Board ruling by every legal means), and in his repeated efforts to prevent or slow down the integration of the armed forces.

More Biographic Details
Vinson was born on November 18, 1883 in Baldwin County, GA to Annie Adela Morris and Edward Storey Vinson. He went to college at Middle Georgia Military and Agricultural College and earned a law degree from Mercer University (1902). He married Mary Green in 1921. They had no children.

Before his career as a politician, Vinson had a short stint as an attorney in Milledgeville, GA. He then became county court solicitor and then sat in the Georgia General Assembly. In 1912, he re-ran for the post and lost his only political election. Almost immediately afterwards, he was appointed judge of the Baldwin County Court.

In 1914, he won a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives, a seat that he would hold for 25 consecutive terms. For most of his fifty years in Congress, Vinson faced little opposition in his reelection campaigns. The only exception was in 1918, when he faced and defeated Thomas Watson. During Vinson’s time in Congress, he became most known for his work in shaping the U.S. military. He chaired the House Naval Affairs Committee and later the House Armed Services Committee for a total of thirty years. In these posts, he spearheaded the efforts to make the U.S. Navy a “two-ocean navy.” This foresight became especially important with the United States’ entrance into World War II.

Throughout his career, Vinson was a committed segregationist. In the 1920 election, for example, he exploited what he saw was a weakness in the campaign of his rival—the federal financial support of public schools. Vinson argued that racial integration would be mandated with federal aid. His
argument was so disingenuous that his own hometown newspaper disavowed the claim and warned them not to trust a politician like Vinson who used “prejudice instead of reason.” Vinson’s strategy, however, worked, so throughout his career he continued to appeal to the racism of white Georgian voters.

After the 1954 Brown v Board ruling, he campaigned on a promise to limit the power of the U.S. Supreme Court and otherwise invalidate the ruling. In signing the “Southern Manifesto” (1956) he joined other white politicians to vehemently defend Jim Crow (legal race-based segregation) as they argued against Brown v. Board. They asserted that the ruling had no basis in American legal precedent; they criticized the Supreme Court justices as partisan, incapable, biased, and dishonest; and they claimed that the Brown decision would destroy race relations in the south. Similarly, Vinson opposed the Civil Rights Act of 1963 and the Voting Rights Act of 1964. Vinson was quick to defend the cause and defend his record in favor of segregation. He introduced very little legislation on the issue and rarely spoke on the Congressional floor on the topic.

Vinson’s most notable segregationist sentiments related to his work with the military—the centerpiece of his Congressional Career. He opposed legislation designed to insure the integration of the military—including opposition to an amendment that limited funding to segregated National Guard and Reserve units (1955). He opposed the promotions of African American officers, objected to the forced desegregation of the military and military bases, and at the end of his political career objected to the findings of the President’s Committee on Equal Opportunity in the Armed Forces (1963). In each case, Vinson declared that integrating the military would weaken American defenses, and he often stated that integration was the federal government’s attempt “to impose a new social order throughout the United States through the use of our armed forces.”

In 1964, Vinson decided not to seek re-election and received the Presidential Medal of Freedom. The following year, he left Congress and returned home to Milledgeville. He died on June 1, 1981.

Works Cited:
Who Was Church?
The University of Georgia’s Church Hall was named for Alonzo S. Church (1793-1862), the president of the University of Georgia (1829-59) and an enslaver.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Church demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Church enslaved at least thirteen African Americans during his lifetime. The 1850 census includes 9 enslaved people in his household; the 1860 census includes 13 enslaved people in his household. In addition, the probate record shows that he owned six enslaved people at the time of his death. These he bequeathed to his children. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life.

More Biographic Details
Church was born in Brattleboro, VT on April 9, 1793 to Elizabeth Whipple and Reuben Church, a Revolutionary War veteran. He married Sarah Tripp in 1817. They had two children.

Church graduated from Middlebury College (1816). He moved to Georgia, where he founded a classical school in Putnam (c. 1818). In 1819, he joined the faculty of the University of Georgia as a math professor. In addition to his teaching, in 1820 he was licensed to preach as a Presbyterian minister and in 1824 ordained as an evangelist at Bethany Church in Green County, GA.

Church served as the president of the University of Georgia from 1829 until 1859. He had frequent clashes with the faculty as well as with the student body, especially concerning Church’s ideas about discipline. These clashes led to declining attendance and the dismissal of some faculty. In 1855 the Board of Trustees formed a commission to examine the school’s problems. The resulting Mitchell Report (1859), written by William L. Mitchell, proposed the creation of schools of science, law, teacher education, civil engineering, applied mathematics, and agriculture; the addition of a professor of modern languages; the creation of scholarships and fellowships; and new campus buildings.

Church died in Athens, GA on May 18, 1862.

Works Cited:
Who Was Thomas R.R. Cobb?
The University of Georgia’s Cobb House was named for Thomas Reade Rootes Cobb (1823-1862), a lawyer, advocate of slavery, Southern nationalist, writer of the Confederate constitution, and Confederate general.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Cobb supported mistreatment of humanity throughout his life. As an enslaver and a public advocate for the enslavement of African Americans he used his wealth and position to encourage the mistreatment of African Americans. His book, *An Inquiry into the Law of Negro Slavery in the United States of America* (1858), offered a legal justification of race slavery as both necessary and benevolent. In addition, as one of the authors of the Confederate Constitution he demonstrated his commitment to commit treason in order to maintain the system of slavery.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Cobb was raised on a Georgia plantation with over 200 enslaved African Americans and later personally enslaved twenty-two African Americans at his home in Athens. In his book, *An Inquiry into the Law of Negro Slavery in the United States of America* (1858), Cobb actively showcased his disdain for African Americans and used his knowledge of the law to support of their continued enslavement. His book likely convinced other whites of the legality of race slavery and it prevented African Americans from achieving any social, legal, or racial equality. Through a series of essays in a Boston paper Cobb also actively worked to mislead those outside of the slaveholding south of the “benefits” of enslavement. Cobb continued to defend enslavement during the secession crisis by pushing Georgia to secede, helping to draft the state’s ordinance of secession, and helping to write the Confederate Constitution. To further ensure the continuation of the enslavement of African Americans, Cobb raised and led a regiment to fight against the United States in the Civil War.

More Biographic Details
Cobb was born at Cherry Hill Plantation in Jefferson County, GA to Sarah Robinson Rootes and John Addison Cobb on April 10, 1823. At the time of his birth, more than 200 enslaved African Americans worked on the 6,000-acre plantation. The family soon moved to a plantation in Athens, where John enslaved 209 African Americans. He lost much of his money in the financial depression of the 1830s. John Cobb served on the Boards of Directors of the Georgia Railroad and the Athens branch of the State Bank of Georgia. He also helped found the Athens Baptist Church. Thomas’s older brother, Howell Cobb, would later become a prominent politician in the antebellum South and the Confederacy.

Thomas Cobb graduated from Franklin College (later University of Georgia) and was admitted to the Georgia bar in 1842. In 1844 Thomas Cobb married Marion Lumpkin, the daughter of Judge Joseph Henry Lumpkin. The couple had six children, but only three survived to adulthood. Cobb owned a farm in Athens where he enslaved African Americans. From 1849 to 1857 Cobb served as a reporter for the Supreme Court of Georgia and had a thriving legal practice. During that period, he wrote the official codification of state law, published as *The Digest of the Statute Laws of the State of Georgia* (1851). He later wrote significant parts of the *Code of the State of Georgia* (1861). Cobb spent much time dedicated to issues in his community. He served as a leader in the local Presbyterian Church. In 1859 he, his father-in-law, and a family friend founded the state’s first law school,
Lumpkin Law School. Cobb taught at the law school. Cobb also opened the Lucy Cobb Institute (1859), a female academy in Athens named for his recently deceased daughter.

Cobb used his law prowess to support the enslavement of African Americans. In *An Inquiry into the Law of Negro Slavery in the United States of America* (1858), he presented a legal justification of race slavery as both necessary and benevolent. To convince lawyers outside of the slaveholding south of the inherent goodness of the system, Cobb cited historical precedence, property rights, and morality to emphasize the necessity for the enslavement of African Americans. Cobb insisted that his “inquiry into the physical, mental, and moral development of the negro race” showed them “as peculiarly fitted for a laborious class.” He further argued that African Americans were uniquely “capable of great and long-continued exertion…. incapable of successful self-development, and adapt[ed] …for the direction of the wiser race.” Using racist rhetoric, he claimed that “Their moral character renders them happy, peaceful, contented and cheerful in a status that would break the spirit and destroy the energies of the Caucasian or the native American” (46). Cobb also vigorously defended the enslavement of African Americans through a series of essays that he published in a Boston Papers. He wrote these “Letters from an Honest Slaveholder” to contradict the messages in Harriet Beecher Stowe’s best-selling anti-slavery novel, *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*.

During the secession crisis Cobb, like his brother, initially espoused unionist ideas because he thought unionism would protect slavery. In December 1860 Cobb called for “immediate and unconditional secession” to preserve slavery and protect white Georgians from enslaved African Americans. He was elected to the state’s secession convention, where he actively pushed the other delegates to vote for secession and then helped draft Georgia’s ordinance of secession. He was elected to the Confederate provisional Congress, where he headed the committee that wrote the Confederate Constitution. He resigned from the Confederate congress in August 1861, returned to Georgia, and raised a regiment to fight in the Civil War. Governor Joseph Brown commissioned him as a colonel in Cobb’s Legion. He was promoted to brigadier general in 1862, now as commander of Cobb’s Brigade, which included his original legion, as well as two Georgia regiments and one from North Carolina. Thomas Cobb died on December 13, 1862 from wounds received during the Battle of Fredericksburg.

**Works Cited:**


Who Was Price?
The University of North Georgia’s Price Memorial Hall was named for William Pierce Price (1835-1908), a Confederate veteran, state Representative (1868-70, 1877-78, and 1894-95), state Senator (1880-81), U.S. Representative (1870-73), and founding Trustee of the school (1870-1908).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Price’s service in the Confederate army, legislation on public schools, and opposition to the Federal Enforcement Act of 1871 demonstrate his support of white supremacy.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Price, like all southern Democrats at the time, opposed extending or protecting the rights afforded to African Americans by the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments to the Constitution. He routinely voted against and spoke against attempts by the Republican-led federal government to enforce these laws. Instead, Price insisted that southern states should be free from federal intrusion.

Price only made two speeches while in Congress. Notably, in one of them he spoke emphatically against the Enforcement Act of 1871, also known as the Ku Klux Klan Bill. This Congressional Act intended to allow the federal government to enforce the fourteenth amendment—the constitutional amendment that guaranteed African Americans full citizenship and guaranteed all citizens equal treatment before the law. In particular, the law sought to protect the rights of African Americans to vote, run for and hold office, and otherwise have a full political voice. The law was deemed necessary in 1871 because the rights of recently emancipated African Americans were being routinely violated by a combination of the Ku Klux Klan and local officials who sought to “redeem” the south to white rule. Price’s objection to the law was an attempt to allow the further disfranchisement of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Price was born in Dahlonega, GA on January 29, 1835 to Sarah Denton Williams and William Pierce Price. His father died when he was three years old. Price married Martha A. Matilda Martin in 1856.

After apprenticing in the printer’s trade, Price relocated to Greenville, SC (1850). He enrolled at Furman University but left before graduating to establish the Southern Enterprise newspaper (1854). He was admitted to the bar in 1856. During the Civil War Price served as an orderly sergeant in the 2nd South Carolina. He received a discharge after getting wounded in October 1861 but continued with the Confederate army on staff duty.

Price served in the South Carolina House of Representatives (1864-66) before returning to Dahlonega, GA in 1866 where he became the president of the Conservative Democratic Club of Lumpkin County. He served in the Georgia House of Representatives (1868-70), where he was chosen Speaker pro tempore, and then in the U.S. House of Representatives (1870-73). He served again in the Georgia House of Representatives (1877-78 and 1894-95) and in the Georgia Senate (1880-81).

Georgia established its public school system during Price’s term as Speaker pro tempore. Price insisted that a statement that held “that children of the white and colored races shall not be taught together
in any sub-district” be included in the bill. As such, he helped solidify the segregated school system in Georgia. When he served in the U.S. Senate he protested what he saw as unfair treatment of white southerners in the Enforcement Act of 1871.

In 1870, Price secured the United States Mint building in Dahlonega for use as the North Georgia Agricultural College. He served as the president of the North Georgia Agricultural College Board of Trustees from 1870 until 1908. After that building burned down (1878), the school built the current building (1879). It was renamed in Price’s honor in 1934.

Price died in Dahlonega, GA on November 4, 1908.

Works Cited:
Who Was Dillingham?
Columbus State University’s Dillingham Place was named for George W. Dillingham (1804-1834), a city councilman for whom the nearby Dillingham Bridge was named.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of Black Americans, Dillingham behaved in ways that violated and negated the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Little is known of Dillingham’s private life or his use of enslaved labor. When he died, the administrator of his will advertised in the Columbus Enquirer that he would be liquidating all Dillingham’s “real estate and negroes.”

More Biographic Details
Dillingham was born on October 20, 1804 in Lee, MA to Rebecca and Nathan Dillingham. He was the second youngest of eleven children. He moved to the Georgia frontier in the late 1820s and to the Columbus area shortly after. As a young adult, Dillingham was a merchant, enslaver, and eventually local politician. He was serving on Columbus’s city council when he married fellow New Englander Lucy E. Ticknor on July 13, 1832. Their only child, George Washington Ticknow Dillingham, was born the following year.

Little is known of Dillingham’s private life or his use of enslaved labor. He worked as a merchant, and when he died, all of his “real estate and negroes” were sold at auction when his estate was settled.

One of his commercial enterprises involved creating a private company that purchased lands directly from Creek Indians who had obtained private title to the lands through the Treaty of 1832. His actions skirted state and federal laws that prohibited private individuals from buying lands directly from sovereign tribes because technically the Indian lands had been converted to private lands ahead of time. This particular form of land speculation typically involved fraud on the part of white Americans.

Dillingham died in 1834 at the age of 30. The city council on which he served later named the bridge in his memory.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Notice in Columbus Enquirer. January 16, 1835.
Who Was Fanning?
Augusta University’s Fanning Hall was named for Alexander Campbell Wilder Fanning (c. 1788-1846), a life-long military officer who served in the War of 1812, the First Seminole War, and the Second Seminole War, who was stationed across the country during his, and who also briefly commanded the Augusta Arsenal.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Fanning was involved in activities harmful to humanity in his role as an officer of the United States Army during the First (1816-1818) and Second (1835-1842) Seminole Wars. The wars, in which the U.S. military committed many atrocities against Native Americans, resulted in the deaths or forced removal of more than 90% of the Seminole people. A career soldier, Fanning had little to no role in the planning of the wars. He did, like all soldiers, wage war on Indian civilians and Indian towns. He is not known to participate in any specific atrocity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Fanning was involved in activities harmful to humanity in his role as an officer of the United States Army the First (1816-1818) and Second (1835-1842) Seminole Wars. A career soldier, Fanning did not initiate any actions that fell outside of standard military operations, but Fanning and the U.S. military more generally waged war on civilians and committed what many Congressmen and other officials considered to be atrocities at the time.

In two notable instances, Fanning was involved in humanitarian controversies. During the First Seminole War, he was part of the court martial of two British traders who General Andrew Jackson accused of aiding the Seminole enemy. In 1816, during the invasion of Spanish Florida and Seminole lands, Jackson arrested Robert Ambrister and Alexander Arbuthnot. Jackson had them stand trial without witnesses or legal representation. Fanning served as a member of the all-officer jury. The jury quickly found the two men guilty and the judge, General Edmonton P. Gaines, gave Arbuthnot the death sentence and ordered that Ambrister receive fifty lashes and a year’s labor as punishment. Despite this ruling, Jackson, with Fanning acting as the Provost Marshall (head of the military police), executed both men. The trial and executions were widely condemned in the United States Congress and elsewhere as a violation of U.S. military justice.

During the Second Seminole War (1835-1842), Fanning also participated in a series of campaigns that targeted Seminole civilians and their homesteads as part of the U.S. military’s strategy. On several occasions, U.S. soldiers under Fanning’s command scoured the wetlands of the Florida interior. They burned villages, destroyed crops, and otherwise tried to force the Seminoles to agree to move west to Indian Territory. These tactics were used throughout the theater of operation as well in other U.S. campaigns against Native Americans.

More Biographic Details
Fanning was born around 1788 in Boston, MA to Caroline Henson Orne and Barclay Fanning. He graduated from West Point in 1812, was commissioned 1st Lieutenant, and embarked on a career in the military.
His career as a soldier occurred even though he had most of his arm amputated in 1808 after his musket accidentally discharged while he was mustering. During the War of 1812, Fanning was stationed in the Niagara region and saw his first significant fighting shortly after. He was wounded at the Battle of York in 1813 when the British powder magazine exploded. In 1814, after a series of distinguished action in the U.S. Corps of Artillery, he was promoted to Brevet Major.

In 1818, during the First Seminole War, Fanning invaded Spanish Florida under the command of General Andrew Jackson. He occupied St. Marks and served as commander of the occupied town. There, Fanning served on the jury and then as Provost Marshall at the controversial court martial and executions of British traders Ambrister and Arbuthnot for aiding the enemy.

After the fighting ended in the First Seminole War, Fanning commanded the garrison at Florida’s Ft. Gadsden (1819-1820) before being re-stationed at Detroit and Fort Mackinac in Michigan and at Fort Columbus in New York (1820-1825). In 1827 he took over the command at the Augusta Arsenal, a post he held until he was sent to Fort Monroe in Virginia (1833-1834). By that time Fanning had been promoted to Major.

In 1835, at the start of the Second Seminole War, Fanning returned to Florida where he was stationed at Fort King. He saw significant action at the Battle of Withlacoochee and the Battle of Lake Monroe. In the process, Fanning earned a reputation for waging “savage warfare.” On December 31, 1835, on orders from his commander, Fanning led 600 men across the Withlacoochee River where the enemy had been awaiting their arrival. Approximately one third of the U.S. soldiers were killed, and Fanning is credited for a series of bayonet charges that allowed the rest to survive an assault in which the Seminoles had outmanned and out maneuvered them. Most of Fanning’s Second Seminole War service took place along the lower Suwanee River, where he and his men waged a war of attrition against the Seminoles. They scoured the region for several years, burning villages, destroying crops, and otherwise trying to force the Seminoles that moving west to Indian Territory was preferably to staying on their Florida homelands.

After the Second Seminole War, Fanning was re-stationed and served as an army recruiter in New York and in the Ohio Valley.

Fanning died on August 18, 1846 in Cincinnati, OH.

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FLYNT BUILDING (1928) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Flynt?
The University of Georgia’s Flynt Building was named for John James Flynt (1872-1949), a Georgia legislator and judge.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a leader of Georgia’s Democratic Party in the early 20th century, Flynt was a proponent of racial segregation and used his position to solidify white rule. In doing so, he worked to deny the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Flynt rose the ranks in Georgia politics at a time when a commitment to white supremacy was a necessary precondition to public office. Flynt did not leave a large public record of statements about race, but the records he left reveal someone in lockstep with other southern Democrats. He supported legislation designed to limit Black voting, instituted policies and issued judgements that treated African Americans differently than other U.S. citizens, and otherwise protected the system of racial segregation in the South. When he was state chair of the Georgia Democratic Party, for example, he was instrumental in writing and then passing the party platform. It called for the securing of the racial status quo and an affirmation of segregated norms. It chastised “whoever by arousing prejudices of a racial, religious or other nature creates discord and strife among our people.”

More Biographic Details

Flynt served in the Georgia House of Representatives (1900-06, 1926-28, and 1933-36) and the Georgia Senate (1907-08, 1919-20, and 1937-38). He served as Chairman of the House special judiciary committee (1905-06). He was appointed a judge of the Griffin City Court in 1909 and served as the Georgia Democratic state chair (1915-20). In each of these positions, Flynt worked to sustain Jim Crow segregation.

Flynt died in Griffin, GA on July 28, 1949.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Who Was Gilbert?
The University of Georgia’s Gilbert Hall was named for alumnus Francis Howard Gilbert (1906-1932) and his grandfather Jasper Newton Gilbert (1830-1898), an enslaver, physician, and Confederate veteran. Francis Gilbert was the son of and Jasper Gilbert was the father of Georgia Representative (1888-93), Georgia Supreme Court judge (1916-37), and University System of Georgia Board of Regents member (1943-50), Stirling Price Gilbert, Sr., who dedicated the building in their memory.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Francis Gilbert does not appear to have supported any mistreatment toward humanity.

As an enslaver of African Americans, Jasper Gilbert demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally. In addition, his service in the Confederate army helped support a commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south. He did not make any public statements in favor of or against the mistreatment of humanity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
There does not appear to be anything objectionable about Francis Gilbert in terms of his attitudes or actions toward humanity.

Jasper Gilbert enslaved at least 5 African Americans during his lifetime. The 1860 census includes the enslaved people in his household. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life. In addition, he enlisted in the Confederate army to fight for the continuation of enslavement in the south.

More Biographic Details
Francis Gilbert was born on July 5, 1906 to Mary Ella Howard and Stirling Price Gilbert. He married Mary Brown Middleton on November 5, 1932. Gilbert earned degrees from the University of Georgia (1927) and Yale Law School (1930). He practiced law in Atlanta as a member of his own law firm, Marshall & Gilbert. He contracted influenza on December 1, 1932 and died on December 8, 1932.

Jasper Gilbert was born On December 27, 1830 to Margaret and Thomas Gilbert. He married Sarah Redding on October 18, 1859. They had two children. Gilbert was a doctor and druggist. In the 1860 census he is listed as having 5 enslaved people between the ages of 7 and 32 in his household. Gilbert served in Cobb’s Legion to fight for the Confederacy during the Civil War. He died on April 1, 1898.

After Francis Gilbert’s death, his father, a member of the University System of Georgia’s Board of Regents, had the building named in memory of his son as well as his father.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
“Francis Gilbert, Jurist’s Son, Dies.” Atlanta Constitution. December 9, 1932.
GORDON HALL (1951) Gordon State College
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Gordon?
Gordon State College’s Gordon Hall was named for John Brown Gordon (1832-1904), a Confederate general, postwar politician, and head of Georgia’s Ku Klux Klan.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Gordon supported mistreatment of humanity throughout his life. As an enslaver and as a Confederate general, he directly worked to keep African Americans from basic human rights and freedom. He advocated white supremacy and racism throughout his life. As a United States Senator and Georgia’s governor after the Civil War he used politics and the law to prevent African Americans from gaining equal rights. Although he denied his ties to the First Ku Klux Klan (KKK), scholars recognize Gordon as the head of Georgia’s KKK, a white supremacist group that used violence and campaigns of terror to keep African Americans from basic freedoms.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Gordon grew up on a plantation with enslaved people and continued to enslave African Americans as an adult. During the Civil War, he fought for the Confederacy to preserve slavery and remained committed to white supremacy after the war. As both a citizen and public official, Gordon worked to undermine the political and social rights won by African Americans during Reconstruction. He restricted the rights of freedpeople because he saw their equality as a threat to him and other white southerners. He was the head of Georgia’s Ku Klux Klan, a secret white supremacist hate group. As such he encouraged others to stop African Americans from enjoying their rights as citizens and free people.

More Biographic Details
Gordon was born in Upson County, GA to Malinda Cox and Zachariah Gordon on February 6, 1832. His father was a minister and plantation owner. The family moved from Upson County to Walker County, GA where by 1840 his father enslaved 18 African Americans. Gordon went to the University of Georgia (1851-2) but left and went to Atlanta to study law before he graduated. While in Atlanta, he met and married Rebecca “Fanny” Haralson (1854). Once admitted to the Georgia bar Gordon began his own legal practice. As he struggled as an lawyer, he invested in coal mines in Tennessee and Georgia and moved to Dade County, GA to run a coal mine with his father. When the war began, he owned a 14-year-old African American girl who managed his father’s coal mine.

Gordon began the war as the captain of a company of men from Georgia and Alabama known as the “Racoon Roughs.” Despite his lack of formal military training, Gordon quickly rose in the ranks. As a result of his successes, he achieved the rank of major general and led half of Robert E. Lee’s Army of Northern Virginia by the end of the Civil War. Gordon led the army in formal surrender to Ulysses Grant at Appomattox Courthouse, VA on April 12, 1865.

After the Civil War, Gordon returned to Atlanta where he became a leading proponent of the Lost Cause and the New South creed, two overlapping ideals that privileged white supremacy. He invested in local sawmills, lumber, insurance, and publishing companies in order to keep money in the South. After losing the 1868 governor election, Gordon successfully won bids for US Senator (1873-1880 and 1891-97) as a Democrat; he became the first former Confederate to preside over the US Senate (1879). Gordon adamantly opposed Reconstruction and saw himself as part of the
“Redeemers” who worked to reclaim Georgia from Republican rule. In doing so, he sought legislation that created segregated public facilities and services. As a Senator, Gordon hastened the end of federal Reconstruction by helping orchestrate the compromise of 1877 that made Rutherford B. Hayes president in exchange for the removal of Federal troops from the former Confederacy.

When Gordon resigned his Senate seat in 1880 to become general counsel for Western and Atlantic Railroad, Governor Colquitt immediately appointed wartime governor Joseph E. Brown to that Senate seat. The ensuing controversy did not, however, affect Gordon’s political future. In 1886, with help from newspaper editor Henry Grady, Gordon won the governor’s race. He served as Georgia’s governor until 1890, and then returned to the US Senate (1891-7).

Gordon actively promoted ideas of reconciliation that romanticized the Confederate war effort and emphasized the ideals of the Lost Cause. In 1893 he began touring the country, delivering “The Last Days of the Confederacy” to hundreds of sold out audiences in the north and south. This lengthy speech (2-2.5 hours long) promoted a view of the war that held that all soldiers, Confederate and US, fought bravely and for an equally just cause. Similarly, in an open letter published in papers around the nation in August 1900, Gordon asserted that his goal was to promote “the truth of history, for justice to the South, and to all sections for fostering our cherished memories and for the obliteration of all sectional bitterness and for the settlement of all sectional controversies on a basis consistent with the honor the manhood and the self-respect of all.” Gordon further emphasized his romanticized view of the war in his Reminiscences of the Civil War (1903) where he expressed his hope that “unseemly things which occurred in the great conflict between the States should be forgotten, or at least forgiven, and no longer permitted to disturb complete harmony between North and South” (464-5). He placed himself at the center of the Confederate narrative and his account of the war states that he believed if his superiors had listened to him the Confederacy would have won.

After the war, many white Georgians considered Gordon to be a living embodiment of the slaveholding Confederacy. In an 1887 Memorial Day speech he “urged southerners” to deny the centrality of slavery to the war, or otherwise “challenge northern misrepresentations of their motives and actions in the Civil War.” As a result of his wartime position, continued support of southern issues, support of the New South movement and reconciliation, the United Confederate Veterans elected him as their first commander in 1890. He also served as the head of Georgia’s KKK, a hate group that used campaigns of terror to prevent African Americans from living freely.

John Brown Gordon died on January 9, 1904 while visiting his son in Miami, FL.

Works Cited
Gordon, John B. Reminiscences of the Civil War. Scribner’s Sons, 1903.
GORDON STATE COLLEGE (1852)
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who was John B. Gordon?
Gordon State College was named for John Brown Gordon (1832-1904), a Confederate General, postwar politician, and head of Georgia’s Ku Klux Klan.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Gordon supported mistreatment of humanity throughout his life. As an enslaver and as a Confederate general, he directly worked to keep African Americans from basic human rights and freedom. He continued to advocate white supremacy and racism throughout his life. As a United States Senator and Georgia’s governor after the Civil War he used politics and the law to prevent African Americans from gaining equal rights. Although he denied his ties to the First Ku Klux Klan (KKK), scholars recognize Gordon as the head of Georgia’s KKK, a white supremacist group that used violence and campaigns of terror to keep African Americans from basic freedoms.

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Gordon grew up on a plantation with enslaved people and continued to enslave African Americans as an adult. During the Civil War, he fought for the Confederacy to preserve slavery and remained committed to white supremacy after the war. As both a citizen and public official, Gordon worked to undermine the political and social rights won by African Americans during Reconstruction. He restricted the rights of freedpeople because he saw their equality as a threat to him and other white southerners. He was the head of Georgia’s KKK, a secret white supremacist hate group. As such he encouraged others to stop African Americans from enjoying their rights as citizens and free people.

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John Brown Gordon died on January 9,1904 while visiting his son in Miami, FL.

Works Cited
Gordon, John B. Reminiscences of the Civil War. Scribner’s Sons, 1903.
Who Was Gorgas?
Augusta University’s Gorgas Road Toilet was named for the street it is on which was named for Josiah Gorgas (1818-1883), Chief of Ordnance for the Confederate army (1861-65) and later the president of the University of Alabama (1878-79).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Gorgas’s service as the Chief of Ordnance for the Confederate army helped supply the weapons and ammunition that supported the south’s commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As the Chief of Ordnance for the Confederate army, Gorgas gathered, manufactured, and distributed the weapons and ammunition that ensured the continuation of the Confederate war effort to maintain the enslavement of African Americans. After the war he opposed the Fourteenth Amendment and giving African Americans the vote: “It is unwise, to give votes to uneducated people, black or white, & still more unwise, to the negro, who is but an infant in intelligence & especially in moral training,” he explained. “The negro will disappear in any event before the moral & intellectual superiority of the white.”

More Biographic Details
Gorgas was born in Running Pumps, PA on July 1, 1818 to Sophia Atkinson and Joseph Gorgas, a clockmaker, mechanic, innkeeper, and farmer. He was the youngest of their ten children. The family moved to several other Pennsylvania towns. Although he had little formal education, Gorgas took an apprenticeship with a New York paper and then studied law with New York congressman Graham Chapin. Chapin would later nominate him for West Point.

Gorgas graduated from West Point (1841) and joined the U.S. army’s Ordnance Corps. He served at Watervliet Arsenal (NY) and at the Detroit Arsenal, before taking a European trip to study foreign ordnance (May 1845-April 1846). He returned to Watervliet Arsenal in 1846. During the Mexican-American War, Gorgas served in Vera Cruz building army batteries and then managing the ordnance for General Winfield Scott (1847-48). He then served at Champlain Arsenal (VT) before heading back to Watervliet, then at New York Arsenal, Pittsburgh Arsenal, Fort Monroe Arsenal, and Mount Vernon Arsenal (AL).

In 1853, while serving in Alabama, he met Amelia Gayle, the daughter of a former governor of Alabama. They married on December 29, 1853. They had six children. For the next few years Gorgas remained stationed in Alabama, but also oversaw the upkeep and upgrade of installments in Pensacola, FL. He took command of Kennebec Arsenal (ME) in 1856 and then served in South Carolina.

After initially refusing an appointment in the Confederate army in February 1861, Gorgas resigned from his post at the Frankford Arsenal (PA) in March 1861 to serve in the Confederate army. Once committed to the Confederacy, Confederate President Jefferson Davis appointed Gorgas as the Chief of the Confederate Bureau of Ordnance on April 8, 1861. In that position he had to figure out how to supply the army with only one working foundry in the newly formed Confederacy. To do so
he coordinated the importation of arms and supplies from Europe as well as the blockade running necessary to get those supplies to the Confederacy, creating the Bureau of Foreign Supplies; the scavenging of weapons from battlefields; and the building of an industrial complex in the south.

To manufacture supplies in the Confederacy, Gorgas established cannon foundries in three Georgia towns—Augusta, Columbus, and Macon—as well as the Augusta Powder Works. He appointed his West Point classmate, George Washington Rains, as the commander of the Augusta Powder Works and as the head of the Augusta Arsenal. At the outset of the war, the Confederacy had only the Tredegar Ironworks in Richmond, VA to manufacture war materiel. Gorgas also established an ironworks in Selma, AL; munitions factories in Salisbury, VA and Montgomery, AL; and a Nitre and Mining Bureau. His efforts ensured that Confederate soldiers had enough arms and munitions, an accomplishment that he relished. In 1864 he proudly recorded that “Where three years ago we were not making a gun, a pistol nor a saber, no shot nor shell (except at the Tredegar ironworks)—a pound of powder—we now make all these in quantities to mee the demand of our large armies.”

In 1866, Gorgas bought the Brierfield Iron Works (AL), which he fixed up and began to operate. He later leased it out when it became a financial burden. He became head of the Junior Department at the University of the South (TN) in 1868 and then the school’s vice chancellor in 1872. He became the president of the University of Alabama in 1878. He resigned in July 1879, after a massive stroke. The trustees appointed him as an honorific university librarian. He remained in the president’s residence until his death.

Gorgas died in Tuscaloosa, AL on May 15, 1883.

Works Cited:


Who was Grady?
The University of Georgia’s Grady College of Journalism and Mass Communication was named for Henry W. Grady (1850-89), an Atlanta journalist and civic leader who was the leading proponent of the “New South” at the turn of the twentieth century.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his work as a journalist, his promotion of the development of Atlanta, and in his speeches, Grady promoted ideas of white supremacy and silenced African American critics. Although it is unclear if he was a member of the Ku Klux Klan, he voiced his support for their use of violence against African Americans to maintain the region’s racial order.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Grady, as both a newspaper editor and promoter of the region, repeatedly supported the violence and extralegal efforts of the Ku Klux Klan and others to prevent African Americans from enjoying their recently won freedom. In the 1870s, he rose in the ranks as a journalist by opposing the efforts of the Republican Reconstruction government and the Freedman’s Bureau more generally. In particular, in his Rome Courier he chastised Governor Rufus Bullock for supporting Reconstruction, decrying the Ku Klux Klan, and advocating liberties for African Americans. In addition, a newspaper and political rival reported seeing him at a Klan rally, a charge that remained with Grady throughout his life and led to his being scheduled to testify to a Congressional committee looking into Klan violence. Grady called Klan violence an “inexorable necessity.”

Grady also helped create a false image of the racial harmony of the region in his promotion of the New South. He called Atlanta “a city of the ‘crackers,’ by the ‘crackers,’ and for the ‘crackers,’” but otherwise tried to draw outside investors by declaring the ways of the Old South were gone. Grady also justified segregation and racial inequality. “The supremacy of the white race of the South must be maintained forever,” he explained “and the domination of the negro race resisted at all points and at all hazards, because the white race is the superior race.”

More Biographic Details
Grady was born in Athens, GA on May 24, 1850 to Anne Gartrell and William S. Grady. He was the oldest of seven siblings, four of whom died in infancy or childhood. His household also included the five enslaved African Americans. His father, a merchant, died near the end of the Civil War while serving as a Confederate major. Grady graduated from the University of Georgia and briefly pursued law at the University of Virginia.

In 1869, Grady returned to Georgia when he began to capitalize on his talents as a writer. After writing a few pieces for the Atlanta Constitution he took a full-time position with the Rome Courier where he became executive editor. Less than a year later, he purchased the Courier and then the Rome Daily. The paper frequently attacked Governor Rufus Bullock for supporting Reconstruction, decrying the Ku Klux Klan, and advocating liberties for African Americans. During his time in Rome, Grady faced allegations from newspaper and political rivals that he was a Klan member. The rumors and evidence were enough for him to be scheduled to testify for a special Congressional committee looking into Klan violence, but he was never called to testify. Grady never used his
position to oppose the Klan violence, but instead explained that although sometimes it was an “inexorable necessity,” it should be done seldomly.

When his paper went bankrupt, Grady jumped between newspaper jobs. He attracted greater attention and more writing assignments in 1874 when he published an article entitled “The New South” in the *Atlanta Daily Herald*. In 1876, he started a three-year stint writing for the *New York Herald*. In 1879, he became a reporter for the *Atlanta Constitution* and four years later became its managing editor. In this role, he has been credited for transforming the paper from a small and struggling newspaper to one with a distinguished national reputation.

Grady constantly promoted the interests of Atlanta, Georgia, and the South in general. In doing so, he became the leading voice and promoter of the “New South”—the notion that the post war South would be built on the backs of modernization, industrialization, and agricultural diversification rather than the monoculture agriculture that distinguished the Old, or antebellum, South. Although he and others had used the term before, Grady established himself as the spokesperson for the movement in an 1886 speech in New York City. In the speech, and elsewhere, he promoted the idea that industrialization and modernization of the region could allow the former Confederate states to reunify as equals in the nation. He urged northern investors to help rebuild the region, even as he insisted that white southerners rebuild the South on their own terms. Under a headline that asked “Who Built Atlanta,” for example, Grady bragged that “Of all cities, this is preeminently the home of the ‘crackers’—built by his energy and dominated by his ideas.”

By attracting outside finances and promoting a new image of Atlanta, Grady contributed to the city’s post war growth. Much of his work occurred as a member the Atlanta Ring, of a group of city promoters. Grady and the Ring declared that making peace with and attracting northern investors was the key to Atlanta’s future. The Ring organized thee cotton expositions to attract outside investments, and it was instrumental in the founding of Georgia Tech in the 1880s. Grady, along with Nathaniel E. Harris, helped create the college to train a workforce specifically with the new skills required for the New South economy.

Grady promoted Atlanta and the South with descriptions that ignored the ways it was built on white supremacy, declaring to national audiences that the overt racism of the Old South was gone and that the New South was a land of opportunity for whites and Blacks alike. African Americans, and many others, were rightfully skeptical. Even as he proclaimed racism gone Grady simultaneously justified the continued separation of the races. “The supremacy of the white race of the South must be maintained forever…and the domination of the negro race resisted at all points and at all hazards, because the white race is the superior race.” The Black press repeatedly declared that Grady’s portrayals of the region allowed non-Southerners to ignore the expansion of Jim Crow segregation and increased violence against Black southerners. Grady died on December 23, 1889.

Works Cited:
Who Was Hardman?
The University of Georgia’s Hardman Hall was named for Lamartine Griffin Hardman (1856-1937), a physician, farmer, state Representative, and governor.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Hardman, through his work as a scientist and a politician, acted upon his belief that African Americans were biologically inferior to whites and otherwise worked to secure white supremacy in Georgia.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his work as a scientist, Hardman worked to demonstrate the biological inferiority of African Americans. He practiced phrenology, the measuring of skulls to determine character traits, and concluded that he could measure criminality in this manner. As with other phrenologists of the time, he made the evidence fit his preconceived stance by eliminating data that did not fit with the hypothesis. In the end he argued that African Americans were naturally prone to criminality and therefore undeserving of equality.

His disregard for the humanity of African Americans in his political career mirrored that of his scientific endeavors. As a leader of Georgia’s Democratic Party at the turn of the century, Hardman led the effort to create and enforce a system of racial segregation. During this era, a commitment to segregation was a necessary precondition for all candidates to state office. Hardman’s public statements attest to this belief. After his first election to the governorship, Hardman used his position to ask a local mayor to protect the unstated racial line in his town by rescinding a permit already granted to an African American who wanted to build a home on Hardman’s street. After his reelection, he questioned his credibility of his Democratic opponent because of a lack of commitment to racial segregation. Hardman mocked his opponent, E.D. Rivers, for proclaiming that he would rather elect “the blackest negro” instead of a Catholic to the presidency.

More Biographic Details
Hardman was born in Harmony Grove (now Commerce), GA on April 14, 1856 to Elizabeth Susan Colquitt and William Benjamin Johnson Hardman, a physician and preacher. His mother was related to four governors of Georgia. He was one of ten children. He married Emma Wiley Griffin in 1907. They had four children.

Hardman graduated from Georgia Medical College (1877). He did post-graduate courses as the New York Polyclinic, the University of Pennsylvania, and Guy Hospital (London). He returned to Harmony Grove in 1890 to join his father’s medical practice. He co-founded the Hardman Sanatorium (1899). During this time, he also experimented with anesthesia.

As a businessman, Hardman was involved in banking and textile manufacturing companies. He owned the Harmony Grove Cotton Mills and the Hardman Roller Mills. He also owned approximately 10,000 acres of peach and apple orchards across the state.

Hardman began his political career in the state legislature. He served in the Georgia House of Representatives (1902-07) and in the Georgia Senate (1908-10). During his time in office, he
sponsored prohibition legislation based of his religious and medical background, sponsored a bill to establish a State Board of Health, and sponsored several agricultural bills. He served as a member of the state fuel administration during World War I.

After losing two gubernatorial bids (1914 and 1916), Hardman won the governorship in 1926 and 1928. As governor, Hardman modernized the state capitol, relocated the state archives, opened a license plate factor. He also created the Allen Commission on Simplification and Coordination, a study of government efficiency.

Hardman ascribed to the racist science of phrenology and while in office, measured the heads of people set to be executed to see if they were inherently “criminal.” He further advanced his racist ideas through an essay, “The Science of finger print as relates to mentality, physical constitution, moral character, as well as the identification of the Negro race as distinguished from the white — and the need of these studies as applied to the civilization virtues” (1930). He earned renown nationwide for his racist theories on inborn criminality and met with FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover in 1933 to discuss them.

Hardman served as a trustee for Georgia State College of Agriculture (now part of the University of Georgia) and Mercer University.

Hardman died on February 18, 1937.

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Who Was Harris?
The Georgia Institute of Technology’s Harris Residence Hall was named for Nathaniel Edwin Harris (1846-1929), a Confederate veteran, Georgia legislator (1882-86 and 1895-95), and governor of Georgia (1915-17) who sponsored legislation that created the Georgia School of Technology (now Georgia Institute of Technology).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Harris’s service in the Confederate army helped support a commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south. In the post-war era he continued to promote racist ideologies and worked to prevent African Americans from exercising their right to vote as well as other civil rights.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Harris joined the Confederate army at sixteen years old and joined other white Southerners as they fought to keep African Americans enslaved and without civil rights. He continued to deny civil rights to African Americans after the Civil War. For example, in his autobiography, Harris recounted how he and a mob of “Minute Men” worked to prevent African Americans from voting in 1870. Furthermore, he used racist stereotypes and language throughout his life and in his book.

More Biographic Details
Harris was born in Jonesboro, TN on January 21, 1846 to Edna Rachel Haynes and Alexander Nelson Harris. He spent his childhood in Bartow county. In 1873 he married Fannie Burke and they had seven children. After her 1898 death, he married Harriet “Hattie” Jobe in 1899.

Harris served in the Confederate army (1862-65), rising through the ranks to end the war as an officer in the Sixteenth Virginia Cavalry. He returned to Georgia after the war and after earning an A.B. from the University of Georgia (1870), he lived in Sparta where he taught school and practiced law for several years (1870-73). He served as a public attorney in Macon, GA from 1874 until 1882 when he was elected to the Georgia General Assembly. During his tenure in office (1882-86) he sponsored and oversaw a bill that successfully created the Georgia School of Technology (now the Georgia Institute of Technology) and became the Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Georgia School of Technology (1885-1929). He served in the Georgia Senate (1894-95). The University of Georgia awarded him an honorary LL.D. (1910). He served as a judge for the Macon Superior Court (1912).

Harris became Georgia’s sixty-first governor. During his time as governor (1915-17) he licensed drivers, integrated banks into the Federal Reserve system, passed a prohibition bill, professionalized teachers, and required compulsory education. He also dedicated much of his energy to trying to find member of the mob that lynched Leo Frank.

Harris returned to his private legal practice after his gubernatorial term ended. In 1924 and 1925 he served as Georgia’s pension commissioner as well as the president of the state’s Electoral College. He sat on the Boards of Trustees for Georgia Tech, Wesleyan College, and the University of Georgia. Harris died in Hampton, TN on September 21, 1929.
Works Cited:
Who Was Herring?
Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College’s Herring Hall was named for John Lewis Herring (1866-1923), a local newspaperman and editor of the Tifton Gazette (1897-1923) who encouraged Tifton as a location for the Second District A & M School (now Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his published writing and through the stories he published while the editor of the Tifton Gazette, Herring showed disdain for the humanity of African Americans. Herring used racist content in his newspaper in many of his attempts to advocate for the “improvement” of Tifton.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Herring’s publications perpetuated racist stereotypes about African Americans. In Saturday Night Sketches: Stories of Old Wiregrass Georgia (1918) he used the term “shiftless negroes” (146) and employed other tropes to reiterate racist attitudes about African Americans. Furthermore, as the editor of the Tifton Gazette he published many articles that supported and promoted racist ideas and language.

More Biographic Details
Herring was born on December 8, 1866 in Albany, GA to Rebecca Levicia Paul and William Jasper Herring, an enslaver and Confederate veteran. The family moved to Isabella, GA (Worth County) when he was an infant. Herring married Martha Susan Greene on December 22, 1886 and they had ten children.

At sixteen Herring began an apprenticeship at The Worth Star, his introduction to the world of newspapers. At the start of his newspaper career, Herring briefly worked with his father in the mercantile business. He later worked with small newspapers in Ty Ty and Isabella, GA and then joined a group that purchased the Tifton Gazette (1895). He briefly worked with the Tampa Tribune and the Savannah News before securing the controlling interest of the Tifton Gazette. He served as the editor of the Tifton Gazette for the rest of his life. As editor, he launched a daily version of the Tifton Gazette (1914) to help readers keep up with war news. He also used the paper as a way to encourage community improvements including improved mail delivery and train service, crop diversification, and Tifton as the site of the Second District A & M School (now Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College).

Herring’s Saturday Night Sketches: Stories of Old Wiregrass Georgia (1918) began as a series of columns in the Savannah Morning News, where he served as an associate editor (1912-18). These popular tales remove agency from African American characters, presenting them as pawns and drunkards. Herring used racist tropes and language, and he referred to Blacks as “shiftless negroes” (146).

For his impact on the community, Herring received many posthumous accolades. He was inducted into the Georgia Newspaper Hall of Fame (1964) and his descendants were awarded the 2020 Family Legacy Award by the ABAC Alumni Association. There is also a memorial monument to him at Fulwood Park in Tifton, GA.

Herring died on October 6, 1923.
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HOKE SMITH ANNEX (1940) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who was Smith?
The Hoke Smith Annex was named for Michael Hoke Smith (1855-1931), a prominent Democratic politician who, among other political positions, served as the Governor of Georgia.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As Governor of Georgia and the U.S. Secretary to the Interior, Smith used his political position to advance policies designed to ensure the unequal treatment of African Americans and the dispossession of Natives Americans from their land.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Smith’s actions against humanity occurred in two capacities. As Secretary of the Interior (1893-1898) Smith advocated for and advanced a policy known as allotment which was codified as the Dawes Act (or General Allotment Act) in 1897. This policy eliminated tribal governments without the consent of the tribes and turned Native lands into private property. It also created and mandated that Indians use new race-based definitions to determine who was and who was not Indian. Under the Dawes Act, citizens of tribal nations received allotments (160 acres for a family or 80 for an individual). The unallotted lands were sold at auction, almost entirely to non-Indians. When allotment began, Native Americans reservations contained about 138 million acres of land. When it ended, they contained around 48 million acres.

Smith’s other significant assault on human rights—his assault on African American equality—came during his terms as the Governor of Georgia (1907-11) and as U.S. Senator (1911-1920). During his gubernatorial campaign Smith used his newspaper and public speeches to position himself as a candidate of segregation. He frequently printed fictitious stories of white women being assaulted by African American men, declared a need to restrict Black voting, and otherwise pushed for the expansion of Jim Crow segregation. In particular, Smith declared a need for the white community to restrict the behavior and power of a growing Black middle and upper class in Atlanta and elsewhere. In a primary campaign where both he and his opponent tried to portray themselves as the defender of the white race and of white women in particular, Smith emerged victorious. Indeed, the state’s newspapers routinely reported that his campaign was “anti-corporation and anti-ni**er.”

As governor, Smith fulfilled his campaign promises on segregation and the denial of human rights to Georgia’s African American citizens. As governor he oversaw and signed into a law a literacy test for Georgia voters and made property ownership a voting requirement. To ensure these laws did not limit white voters, he inserted a grandfather clause. His advocacy and leadership in the push for Jim Crow led historian Numan V. Bartley to write: “Segregation, disfranchisement, and other forms of racial proscription grew from indigenous roots…. The general recognized leader of the movement was Michael Hoke Smith.”

More Biographic Details
Smith was born on September 2, 1855 in Newton, North Carolina to Mary Brent Hoke and Hildreth H. Smith, Catawba College president and former university professor. Two years later, the family moved to Chapel Hill where his father took a position as a professor at the University of North Carolina. Smith’s family moved to Atlanta in 1872. In Atlanta he taught himself law, passed the bar
Smith was born in 1856 in Athens, Ohio. He graduated from the University of Cincinnati in 1873 at 17-years-old, and began his practice. He focused primarily on personal injury law; in particular he represented railroad workers who were hurt on the job.

Smith purchased the *Atlanta Journal* in 1887 and served as its editor until 1900. During this time, he served as a delegate to the Democratic National Convention (1892). His support of Grover Cleveland at the DNC led to his appointment as Secretary of the Interior (1893). As the Interior Secretary Smith reformed the Civil War pension system and pushed for the Allotment Policy for Native Americans. Allotment, simply put, disbanded Indian governments, took away their collective self-determination, and broke up reservations into individual parcels (allotments) of land to be controlled by Indian families as private property. Most reservation lands that were taken under the allotment policy were not distributed to Native Americans. Instead, on Hoke’s urging, the United States sold millions of acres of reservation land to non-Indians in order to fund federal Indian policies, despite the expressed interests of its inhabitants.

Smith resigned as Interior Secretary in 1898 after the Democratic nomination of William Jennings Bryan. Bryan supported the abandonment of the gold standard by coining silver as well; Smith defended the gold standard. Upon leaving federal office, Smith returned to Atlanta where he served as president of the Atlanta Board of Education (1896-1907) and returned to his work as a newspaper editor. As editor, he promoted various “progressive” reforms. He sought to eliminate abuses in the convict lease system and in the juvenile courts, and he tried to create regulations to protect railroad workers. In the American South, Hoke, like other white progressive reformers, also advocated for the increased use of racial segregation to solve the region’s problems.

Smith, as a Democrat, was elected governor twice (1907-9 and 1911). As governor, he oversaw and promoted the emergence of legal segregation and disfranchisement of African Americans in the state. During his first campaign for governor, he declared that Black voters were “ignorant” and “purchasable.” As governor he used his authority to disfranchise Black voters. Smith successfully pushed for laws that established literacy tests and property ownership requirements for voting. He also created a grandfather clause to ensure that illiterate and landless white voters would be spared from these restrictions.

Shortly after his reelection in 1911, he was selected to assume the U.S. senate seat of Alexander S. Clay who had recently died. Smith lost in his bid for reelection in the Democratic primary in 1920 but remained to work as a lobbyist in D.C. until his return to Atlanta in 1925.

Michael Hoke Smith died in 1931.

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(1873) at 17-years-old, and began his practice. He focused primarily on personal injury law; in particular he represented railroad workers who were hurt on the job.

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Michael Hoke Smith died in 1931.

**Works Cited**


Who Was Howell?
The University of Georgia’s Howell Hall is named for Clark Howell (1863-1936), the owner of the Atlanta Constitution and life-long politician.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Howell, though his political and journalistic career, upheld and defended racial segregation and the racist stereotypes that justified it. In doing so, he violated the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Howell used his steadfastness to racial segregation as a platform in his political campaigns and questioned his opponents’ the commitment to white supremacy. Through his newspaper, The Atlanta Constitution, he similarly justified the use of violence to maintain the racial order, ran sensationalized stories that knowingly and falsely accused African American men of violating white women, and printed stories that used inflammatory language that justified Jim Crow laws designed to reinforce white supremacy and segregation. Despite this commitment to racial segregation and inequality, at least in comparison to many of his white peers in the South, Howell was considered a moderate. He supported Booker T. Washington’s self-help approach to racial uplift, and in the end white voters chose his opponent as the better defender of white supremacy.

More Biographic Details
Howell was born in Erwinton, SC on September 21, 1863 to Julia A. Erwin and Evan P. Howell, a Confederate soldier who later became part owner of the Atlanta Constitution. The family moved to Atlanta shortly after the Civil War. Howell married three times. He first married Harriet Glascock Barrett in 1887. They had two children together before her 1898 death. In 1901, he married Annie Comer and they had three children together. After her 1922 death he married Margaret Cannon Carr in 1923.

Howell graduated from the University of Georgia (1883) and worked for newspapers in New York and Philadelphia. In 1884, he worked as night editor for the Atlanta Constitution while pursuing a political career. He spent the next few decades as both an editor and a politician.

Howell won a seat in the Georgia House of Representatives in 1885. As he held the seat, he became managing editor of the Constitution when Henry Grady passed away in 1889. From there, his political and journalistic paths intersected. He, like many nineteenth century editors, used his newspaper to promote his policies. He put his weight behind many issues, including his opposition to convict leasing and his support keeping college football at the University of Georgia after the death of a student. In 1892, he served as a committeeman at the Democratic National Convention.

In 1900, Howell won a seat in the Georgia senate and immediately became its president. In 1901, he bought a majority share in the Constitution. In 1906, he lost a bid for the governorship. In the race, both Howell and his opponent (Hoke Smith) agreed on the importance of maintaining racial segregation. They both declared that the most pressing problems that the state faced were the result of African Americans who were increasingly straying from their submissive place in society. They both tried to question each other’s commitment to white supremacy. The Constitution ran stories that falsely blamed Black men for acts of sexual impropriety with white women and endorsed lynching to
restore order. Smith went further, calling for the Ku Klux Klan to restore order, and he won the race. The vitriol of the race helped lead to the Atlanta Race Riot.

Howell’s political loss was his last attempt at elected office, but he did not leave the political realm. He served on several national commissions in the 1920s, helped Franklin D. Roosevelt’s 1932 presidential campaign, and served as the chair of the relatively new Federal Aviation Commission. Howell also became a more national figure for journalists, in part because of his journalistic success with the *Atlanta Constitution*. He served as director of the Associated Press in 1900 and held the position until he died, and he sat on various boards including that of the Southern Newspaper Publishers Association. Howell remained an active journalist throughout his life, and his efforts brought national attention to the *Atlanta Constitution* as well. The paper won its first Pulitzer Prize in 1931 on account of Howell’s uncovering of a web of political corruption in Atlanta.

Howell died on November 14, 1936

**Works Cited:**


Who Was Howell?
The Georgia Institute of Technology’s Howell Residence Hall was named for Clark Howell (1863-1936), a newspaper editor, Georgia politician, and federal administrator.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a legislator, Howell enacted Jim Crow laws that denied the humanity of African Americans and supported white supremacy. In addition, he promoted racial segregation and white supremacy in his paper, the *Atlanta Constitution*.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
In his prominent role with the Georgia Democratic Party and with the influence he exercised in various public offices, Howell was an important legislative gatekeeper who championed white supremacy and oversaw the passage of Georgia’s first Jim Crow laws. As the editor-in-chief of the *Atlanta Constitution*, he capitalized on these themes to advance his political career, contributing to a violent race riot in 1906 as well as to the disfranchisement of African Americans in Georgia at least until the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

More Biographic Details
Howell was born in Erwinton, SC on September 21, 1863 to Julia Erwin and Evan Park Howell, an attorney and Confederate veteran. His father purchased a controlling interest in the *Atlanta Constitution* in 1876 and became the paper’s editor-in-chief. He married three times, to Harriet Glascock Barrett (1868-1898) in 1887, Annie Comer (n.d.-1922) after Harriet’s death, and Margaret Cannon Carr in 1924. He had four children who survived to adulthood.

After graduating from the University of Georgia (1883), Howell had an apprenticeship at the *New York Times* and the *Philadelphia Press* (1883-84). He served as the night editor (1884), managing editor (1889), editor-in-chief (1897), and then principal owner (1901) of the *Atlanta Constitution*. In 1931 he launched a probe into Atlanta corruption that won a Pulitzer Prize for the *Constitution*.

Howell’s political career began with three terms in the Georgia House of Representatives (1886-93), including time as Speaker of the House (1891-93). During his time in office, the House enacted Jim Crow laws that wrote racial segregation into law. Next Howell served two terms in the Georgia Senate (1901-05). He ran for governor in 1906 but lost to Hoke Smith. Much of this race hinged on the issue of black disfranchisement. Howell and Smith, both newspaper publishers, stoked the flames of racial discontent for political gain on the pages of their rival Atlanta newspapers. There is a general consensus among historians that these newspaper articles contributed to the tension that resulted in the 1906 Atlanta Race Riot. Although Howell’s positions were more moderate than his opponent’s Tom Watson-backed populist platform, Howell still advocated white supremacy and argued that Hoke was not the separatist he claimed to be.

Howell also had roles in the national government. He served on National Coal Commission during the Harding Administration and the Federal Transportation Commission during the Coolidge Administration. He chaired the Federal Aviation Commission during the Roosevelt Administration.
Howell died in Atlanta, GA on November 14, 1936.

**Works Cited:**
Who Was Huntington?
Fort Valley State University’s Huntington Administration Building is named for Collis Potter Huntington (1821-1900), a railroad magnate, railroad lobbyist, and philanthropist.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Huntington’s support for African American educational institutions in the south served the interests of humanity at a time when Black institutions were severely underfunded. However, his treatment of the Chinese laborers who laid the tracks for his railroads shows severe mistreatment of humanity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Huntington’s philanthropy extended to several Black education institutions in the South, including the Hampton Institute in Virginia. However, his company’s use of Chinese labor to build the railroads is well documented as abusive and repressive. The complaints by the Central Pacific Railroad’s Chinese laborers during their 1867 strike reveal some of the hardships they faced as non-white laborers. They complained of beatings, unequal pay, and long working hours. In response, Huntington’s company broke the strike by withholding food and deputizing local white men as an extralegal enforcement group.

More Biographic Details
Huntington was born in Harwinton, CT on October 22, 1821 to Elizabeth Vincent and William Huntington, a farmer. He grew up farming his family’s land. He left school early (1835) and began peddling goods in various areas. When he moved to New York City (1836), he sold watches. In 1842, Huntington established a successful general store in Oneonta, NY, with his brother, Solon Huntington. He married Elizabeth Stillman Stoddard on September 16, 1844 and, after her 1883 death, married Arabella D. Worsham on July 12, 1884.

Huntington moved west during the Gold Rush to open a general store in Sacramento, CA (1849) that sold mining supplies and other goods. He then turned his attention toward the fledgling railroad industry. In the late 1850s he joined with Leland Stanford, Charles Crocker, and Mark Hopkins to form the Central Pacific Railroad Company (1860) and ultimately create what would become the nation’s first transcontinental railroad. Huntington moved back east in 1861 to represent the railroad’s interests in Washington as a lobbyist. In 1869, the tracks of the Central Pacific Railroad joined the tracks of the Union Pacific Railroad at Pomontory Point, UT, creating the first transcontinental railroad in the U.S.

After the Civil War, Huntington and his three partners also helped establish the Southern Pacific Railroad, which ran from New Orleans, LA to California and covered more than 9,000 miles. He also began acquiring lands in the Virginia Tidewater region, which did not have railroads. Huntington took over the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad in 1869 to oversee its completion from Richmond, VA to the Ohio River. In 1880 he created Old Dominion Land Company to secure railroad right-of-way in Virginia using some of the land he had bought immediately after the war. He began to expand the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad through the Virginia Peninsula to Newport News. Once the town had railroad access, Huntington built a hotel and founded the Newport News Shipbuilding and Drydock Company. Huntington became the president of the Southern Pacific Railroad Company in 1890.
Huntington’s corruption, primarily in his role as the Central and Southern Pacific’s lobbyist in Washington, was legendary. In 1883, published letters documented his involvement in corruption through lobbying and bribery of government officials to advance his business interests. In particular, he worked as a lobbyist to block federal support for a rival company’s transcontinental railroad project. He also sought to postpone and cancel the payment of $28 million in loans that the government had made to the Central and Southern Pacific Railroads. After very public opposition to his proposal, the company eventually paid off the loans in 1909.

In 1867, Huntington’s Central Pacific Railroad broke a strike by Chinese laborers, who made up 80%-90% of the Central Pacific workforce in the late 1860s, in the Sierra mountains. The strikers’ demands included an end to beatings, equal pay with white laborers, and shorter working hours. The railroad broke the strike by withholding food from the strikers as well as by bringing in a mob of deputized whites.

Huntington died in Raquette, Lake, NY on August 13, 1900. After his death, his nephew, Henry E. Huntington, took over many of his industrial projects. In addition, his estate donated $25,000 to Fort Valley High and Industrial School for construction of a dorm (1908).

Works Cited:
Who Was Illges?
Columbus State University’s Ilges Hall was named for John Paul Illges, Sr. (1881-1957), a local businessman.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Illges leased and mistreated African American convicts that he used as laborers for his brick company.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Illges used African American convicts as his laborers at the Muscogee Brick Company. He was obliged to house the laborers, but did so in a minimal way, forcing them to stay in cages half the size of a boxcar. In addition, Illges’ company also attached spikes to the African American laborers’ ankles to prevent them from escaping.

More Biographic Details
Illges was born Mary 4, 1881 to Mary Lou Barnett and Abraham Illges, an investor and Confederate veteran. Abraham Illges left school at 13 and then moved from Pennsylvania to Columbus, GA at 18. After serving with the Confederacy as an intelligence agent, he returned to Columbus and invested in mills, industrial endeavors, manufacturing companies, and banks in Georgia and in Birmingham, AL. John Paul Illges went into business with his father in 1902.

The Illges family ran textile mills and cotton gins. Abraham Illges became president of Golden’s Foundry and Machine Company in the 1890s. John became a stockholder in April 1902. In 1903 Illges served briefly as Captain of City Light Guards (Fourth Regiment of the Georgia State military service) Columbus’s new military company. He resigned later that year to return to his business obligations. He chaired his first meeting for Golden’s on January 17, 1911 and then rose up through the ranks of the business. He served as Secretary and Treasurer (1910s), as President of the company (1937-1942), and then as Chairman (1942-1957). As he moved up in Golden’s Foundry, Illges simultaneously worked in other businesses. He served as vice president of Shannon Hosiery Mill. Years later the Muscogee School Board, with the help of Illges’s brother-in-law, James Waldo Woodruff, purchased that building (1958) for the establishment of Columbus College.

Illges used convict labor at one of his businesses, the Muscogee Brick Company. The brick company, like other businesses in the area that used convict labor, housed the convicts in rolling penitentiaries—cages half the size of a boxcar. Illges’ company also attached spikes to the African American laborers’ ankles to prevent them from escaping. The mistreatment of convict laborers in the South led to a series of congressional reforms in the 20th century to limit these inhumane acts.

Illges married Dorothy Shannon on January 19, 1905. The couple had one son. They created the John P. Illges and Dorothy S. Foundation (1949). In addition to other charitable endeavors, the couple raised funds for St. Francis Hospital and served on the hospital building committee. John Paul Illges died December 27, 1957.

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Who Was Wilson?
Kennesaw State University’s J. M. Wilson Building was named for Joe Mack Wilson (1919-1993), a state legislator (1961-88) and mayor of Marietta, GA (1990-93).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson expressed sentiments and pursued policies designed to maintain de facto segregation in suburban Atlanta. In doing so, he displayed a disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson’s actions toward African Americans reveal him as a politician committed to limiting the progress of African Americans in Georgia and otherwise protecting the interests of white families who had fled Atlanta for the suburbs.

Through his opposition to mass transit for his constituents, Wilson made it clear that he did so to maintain segregation. “They love that [Chattahoochee] River,” he said of his white constituents. “They want to keep it as a moat. They wish they could build forts across there to keep people from coming up here.” Wilson did his best to fulfill their wishes to maintain segregation. He helped create a 10-foot-wide city called Chattahoochee Plantation in order to use a legal technicality to ensure that Marietta would not be annexed by Atlanta. More explicitly, he fought against attempts to reapportion districts after the 1980 census. In particular, he opposed an attempt to create a district that reflected the racial makeup of Atlanta. His rationale: “I don’t want to draw ni**er districts.” Wilson also earned a reputation for opposing any legislation that was presumed to help African Americans, legislation he was known to deride as “ni**er legislation.” Although he denied the charge, the District Court for the District of Columbia concluded “he is a racist.”

More Biographic Details
Wilson was born in Marietta, GA on December 11, 1919 to Annie Ruth McKelvey and Joe D. Wilson, a jeweler. He and his wife, Mary, had four children. After her death he married Jackie Bettis.

Wilson served in the U.S. Navy during World War II. He then followed in his father’s footsteps and owned and ran a jewelry store for more than a decade. In 1961, he started a second career as a long-serving member of the Georgia House of Representatives (1961-88). Among other things, he chaired the Ways and Means Committee. He was a consistent voice for his largely white suburban constituents, opposing mass transportation connections between Marietta and Atlanta and hindering efforts to redistrict Georgia in a manner that would encourage the legislature to look more like the state. He was also instrumental in developing Kennesaw Junior College (now Kennesaw State University) into a four-year degree granting institution. He followed up his legislative career by winning the election for mayor of Marietta, Georgia (1990-93). Although he wavered on the issue of extending a commuter line to Marietta, in the end he concluded that the risks of importing crime outweighed the benefits it could provide commuters.

Wilson received many accolades for his public service. His awards include the Cobb County Citizen of the Year award, the Georgia Municipal Association’s Public Service Award, the Georgia Vocational Rehabilitation award, the Georgia Mental Health Association’s Most Effective Legislator of the Year award, and the Cobb County Bar Association’s Liberty Bell award.
He died in office on May 17, 1993.

Works Cited:
Who Was Brown?
The University of Georgia’s Joseph E. Brown Hall was named for Joseph E. Brown (1821-1894), Georgia’s governor (1857-1865) during the secession crisis and the Civil War.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Brown supported mistreatment toward humanity throughout his life. He defended the enslavement of African Americans throughout his life and his career. As a slaveholding governor he pushed Georgia to secession in order to protect slavery in the state. He never renounced his support of the enslavement of African Americans or the use of unfree labor. After the Civil War Brown built his fortune on the labor of leased African American convicts, who he mistreated.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Although born into a middle-class farming family, Brown’s growing wealth in the 1840s led him to enslave five African Americans by 1850 and 19 at the time he became governor in 1857. As governor, Brown fought for the rights of white people of all classes at the expense of African Americans. Brown vehemently supported Georgia’s secession specifically to preserve citizens’ ability to enslave African Americans. Brown supported the mistreatment of humanity through his support of the enslavement of African Americans, the Confederacy, and postwar white supremacy. In the 1870s, he leased three hundred African American convicts as laborers in his coal mines. These leased laborers faced dismal living conditions, starvation, and inadequate clothing at the mine’s camp. In addition, Brown supported their mistreatment by the repeated use of water cure torture on the workers at his coal mine.

More Biographic Details
Brown was born in Long Creek, SC on April 15, 1821 to farmers Sally (Rice) and Mackey Brown. He spent his childhood in the north Georgia mountains but left the family farm to attend school at private academies. He then attended Yale Law School (1845-6). He began practicing law in Georgia in 1847, the same year that he married Elizabeth Grisham. A successful lawyer, Brown invested his earnings in real estate, farmland, and mining properties. He was elected to the Georgia state Senate in 1849. He was elected a circuit judge in 1855.

In 1857 Brown decisively won the governorship. He became very popular as governor because he fought for the interests of poor white citizens as well as for those in the planter class. The state reelected him as governor in 1859. As an ardent secessionist, he advocated for Georgia to leave the Union and tied that necessity to the state’s dependence on slavery and white supremacy. In a December 7, 1860 speech, Brown urged fellow Georgians to call a secession convention because “I do not doubt… that submission to the administration of Mr. Lincoln will result in the final abolition of slavery. If we fail to resist now, we will never again have the strength to resist.” He also warned of the “evils” of miscegenation and racial equality inherent in the end of slavery, appealing to all white Georgians to support slavery and secession. Even before Georgia’s secession, he ordered the seizure of Fort Pulaski, a federal installment in the state. The state became the fifth to secede on January 19, 1861.

Once the state seceded, Brown worked to protect Georgia’s interests from the larger interests of the Confederacy. He refused to send weapons to Confederacy, wanted to be in charge of appointing
officers for Georgia regiments, and pushed to supply Georgia troops without the help of Confederate government. He also fought Confederate impressment of local supplies and decried the use of conscription by the Confederate government. He ultimately kept over 8000 Georgia men out of Confederate service by giving them exemptions. He also insisted on a separate hospital for members of the Georgia militia. As he challenged the Confederate government, Brown provided aid to citizens of his state. He set up relief funds for soldiers’ families, redistributed necessities such as salt to poor residents and widows, and sent cotton through the blockade to trade for blankets, clothes, and medicines for Georgia soldiers. His support for citizens of the state led to his reelection as governor in 1861 and 1863.

After a brief post-war imprisonment in Washington for his role in the rebellion, Brown gained a full pardon from President Andrew Johnson in September 1865. He became a member of the Republican Party (1868) and voiced his support for Johnson’s Reconstruction policy. He served as chief justice of the Supreme Court of Georgia for the next two years. He returned to the Democratic Party in 1870. Brown’s law practice and his investments—in agricultural land, real estate, railroads, and iron and coal mines—resulted in his status as Georgia’s first millionaire. In 1870 he became the head of the Western and Atlantic Railroad and he later served as the president of the Dade Coal Company (mining) and the Southern Railway and Steamship Association. He also presided over Georgia’s Board of Education in the 1870s as they set up segregated public school districts.

As president of the Dade Coal Company, Brown depended on convict labor for his mining endeavors. He leased 100 convicts in 1874 and then added 200 more to that number in 1876. He won the bidding for the convict lease laborers by offering each convict $11 per year plus sufficient clothing and food. However, critics at the time compared conditions at Brown’s convict labor camp to those at the dreaded Civil War prisoner of war camp, Andersonville. In addition, after Brown’s death a legislative commission determined that conditions in Brown’s mines did not meet even the minimum of standards. Convicts used in his Dade Coal Company mines had to deal with starvation, did not have adequate clothing, and faced water cure torture.

In 1880, Brown was elected to the US Senate where he served until 1891. He never renounced his support of enslavement or unfree labor, although he promoted public education for all children. John Emerson Brown died in Atlanta on November 30, 1894.

Works Cited:
JOE MACK WILSON STUDENT CENTER (1977) Kennesaw State University
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Wilson?
Kennesaw State University’s Joe Mack Wilson Student Center was named for Joe Mack Wilson (1919-1993), a state legislator (1961-88) and mayor of Marietta, GA (1990-93).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson expressed sentiments and pursued policies designed to maintain de facto segregation in suburban Atlanta. In doing so, he displayed a disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson’s actions toward African Americans reveal him as a politician committed to limiting the progress of African Americans in Georgia and otherwise protecting the interests of white families who had fled Atlanta for the suburbs.

Through his opposition to mass transit for his constituents, Wilson made it clear that he did so to maintain segregation. “They love that [Chattahoochee] River,” he said of his white constituents. “They want to keep it as a moat. They wish they could build forts across there to keep people from coming up here.” Wilson did his best to fulfill their wishes to maintain segregation. He helped create a 10-foot-wide city called Chattahoochee Plantation in order to use a legal technicality to ensure that Marietta would not be annexed by Atlanta. More explicitly, he fought against attempts to reapportion districts after the 1980 census. In particular, he opposed an attempt to create a district that reflected the racial makeup of Atlanta. His rationale: “I don’t want to draw ni**er districts.”

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Works Cited:
Who Was Langdale?
Valdosta State’s Langdale College of Business Administration was named for Harley Langdale, Jr. (1914-2013), the owner and operator of the largest naval gum stores in the world.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through the use of debt peonage at his turpentine camps, Langdale showed a disregard for the humanity of his mostly African American workers. Scholars have likened the early 20th century camps to a new form of slavery in that they restricted the freedoms of workers and prevented them from leaving or negotiating for better compensation.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Langdale’s denial of the humanity of his workers manifested itself in many ways. Following in the footsteps of his father and others in the turpentine industry, he implemented a system of debt that ensured that his workers could not legally leave the work camps, his overseers routinely used violence to keep workers from moving, and the labor conditions in the turpentine industry were notoriously inhumane. Local officials noted these conditions, and those of other turpentine camps in the region, and deemed them necessary to ensure a labor force. In other words, only compulsion would lead workers to take this employment.

More Biographic Details
Langdale was born on September 8, 1914 to Thalia Lee and Harley Langdale in Lynchburg, VA. His father owned a large turpentine business that was the largest gum naval stores producer in the world. Langdale inherited part of this company and added acreage in his lifetime. He ultimately owned around 200,000 acres of land in Georgia.

Langdale attended the Citadel before graduating from the University of Georgia with a degree in forestry. He then returned home and transformed his holdings into The Langdale Company, a diversified forestry company that harvested and produced turpentine, lumber, and other products. As chairman of the company, he used his background in forestry to both extract turpentine and other products more efficiently and to conserve the actual forest rather than strip it bare.

The labor conditions in the turpentine camps were notoriously inhospitable. Langdale, especially early in his career, relied almost exclusively on a violent system of debt peonage to keep his largely African American labor force compliant and stable. Turpentine workers were notoriously underpaid, they suffered from the noxious fumes from its processing, and were often injured during the process of hand slashing the pines. As a result, Langdale typified the industry in his use of a combination of debts, violence, and legal coercion to keep workers in place. Langdale, aided by technological improvements in the industry that were often of his devise, changed his policies as peonage and labor laws mandated.

The harsh realities of the turpentine industry did not limit Langdale’s social standing. A well-respected businessman, Langdale served as a director of various companies and sat on many boards and executive committees. For example, for several decades he served as a director of the Georgia Southern and Florida Railway Company, director of the Citizens and Southern National Bank, and was a director of Georgia International Life Insurance Company.
Langdale played a leading role in the development of Georgia’s and the south’s modern forestry industry. Among his many positions, he served as a chairman and president of Southern Forest Products Association, President of Forest Farmers Association, President of the Georgia Forestry Association, Chairman of the Forest Research Society (Southeastern Section), and Chairman of the Society of American Foresters (Southeastern Section). These contributions resulted in various honors, including the National Forest Products Association’s Forest Management Award, the Forest Farmer Award, J.W. Fanning Leadership Georgia Award, the Georgia Man of the Year Service to Agriculture Progressive Farmer Award, the University of Georgia School of Forest Resources, and the Georgia Forestry Association Wise Owl Award.

Langdale died on February 10, 2013.

**Works Cited:**
**Who Was Langdale?**

Georgia Museum of Agriculture and Historic Village at Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College’s Langdale Nature Center was named for Harley Langdale, Jr. (1914-2013), the owner and operator of the largest naval gum stores in the world.

**Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity**

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**Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity**

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Langdale died on February 10, 2013.

Works Cited:
Who Was Langdale?
Valdosta State University’s Langdale Hall was named for John Wesley Langdale (1860-1911), an early businessman in southern Georgia and the founder of one of the state’s largest turpentine enterprises. His grandson and namesake served on the university’s Board of Trustees.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
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Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Langdale’s denial of the humanity of his workers manifested itself in many ways. He implemented a system of debt that ensured that his workers could not legally leave the work camps, his overseers routinely used violence to keep workers from moving, and the labor conditions in the turpentine industry were notoriously inhumane. Local officials noted these conditions in Langdale’s work camps, as well as in those of other turpentine camps in the region, and deemed them necessary to ensure a labor force. In other words, only compulsion would lead workers to take this employment. The physical conditions of the camps led Langdale to conclude that they were not appropriate living conditions for the women of his family. He moved his wife and daughters to Florida to escape the stench and other horrors of the system.

More Biographic Details
Langdale was born at Blount’s Ferry, GA on the Suwanee River on February 10, 1860 to Elizabeth and Noah H. Langdale. His father died in 1862 while he was serving in the Confederate army.

Langdale married Nancy Burnsed in 1884, and they raised several children at a home in Clinch County, GA. In 1898, with the arrival of the railroad, Langdale expanded and diversified his business interests. At first, he largely herded small herds of cattle and hunted various animals for their hides. He was a self-described woodsman. After the arrival of the railroad, he became more connected to global markets and focused his attention on naval stores and the lumber industry more generally. He purchased thousands of acres of mostly forested land and continued to purchase land for many years. From these holdings, he became one of the most prominent leaders of the region’s lumber and timber industry and one of the wealthiest men in the region.

His workers—almost entirely African American—suffered from the plights common to the turpentine industry. Langdale established turpentine camps on each of his holdings, used a system of debts to keep his workforce from leaving, and used violence to ensure that workers were productive and did not leave the camps without permission. Local officials allowed this form of peonage to continue despite its abusiveness because few leaders could imagine the turpentine industry without these abuses. With few, if any, safety standards, turpentine workers suffered from the effects of toxic fumes and physical injuries quite frequently.

In 1905, Langdale’s wife and daughters moved away from the turpentine fields of south Georgia and made a home in Jasper, FL. Langdale and his sons remained with their turpentine interests in south
GA. In 1908, Langdale helped create the nearby town of Council, the location of a sawmill that he operated.

He died on June 7, 1911.

Works Cited:
LECONTE HALL (1938) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was LeConte?
The University of Georgia’s Le Conte Hall was named for Joseph LeConte (1823-1901), a professor of natural history and geology at the University from 1852-1856.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
LeConte supported mistreatment toward humanity throughout his life. As an enslaver of more than 200 African Americans and a public advocate for white supremacy after emancipation, LeConte used his position to hinder the ability of African Americans to enjoy basic human rights and otherwise supported obstacles to hinder the advancement of African American freedom.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
LeConte was raised on and later inherited a Georgia rice plantation, Woodmanston, where he and his family enslaved more than 200 African Americans. In 1860, he personally owned more than 60 enslaved African Americans in Columbia, SC. During the war he worked for the Confederate government as a scientist, especially in the production of gunpowder. He remained an ardent Confederate even after defeat. During Reconstruction, he continued to fight against racial equality. When the University of South Carolina integrated African Americans into their Board of Trustees and student population after the war, he publicly protested and left the university. LeConte’s loyalty to the Confederacy and his post-war sympathies limited his ability to find another faculty position in the post-war South. In response, he moved west to become a part of the fledging University of California (Berkeley). There, LeConte remained an unrepentant and unreformed white supremacist. He published books and articles that promoted the presumed inferiority of African Americans; advocated for the exclusion of African Americans from American educational institutions, voting booths, and equality; supported laws that excluded African Americans from social and legal protections, including those that punished miscegenation, called for the disenfranchisement of African Americans, and insisted on the need for poll taxes and tests to keep African Americans from voting. His attitudes about the superiority of the white race and inferiority of African Americans did not waver at any point in his life. Even his ultimate critique of slavery came out of persistent belief in the inferiority of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
LeConte was born in Liberty County, GA to Anne Quarterman and scientist Louis LeConte on February 26, 1823. Both of his parents came from enslaving planter households. Joseph and his five siblings grew up at the LeConte family's Woodmanston Plantation, the largest slave plantation in the area, located in Riceboro, Georgia. The LeContes used the labor of approximately 231 enslaved African Americans for everything necessary for daily life at Woodmanston, including rice cultivation, tanning, masonry, carpentry, and household operation. Alexander Stephens, future vice president to the Confederacy, tutored LeConte and they remained friends throughout their lives. LeConte graduated from Franklin College, University of Georgia in 1841 before attending the College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York. He married Caroline Nisbet in 1847. LeConte practiced medicine in Macon, Georgia before giving it up to pursue a degree in science at the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard where he worked with naturalist Louis Agassiz. After completing his studies, he taught natural history at Oglethorpe University, the University of Georgia (1852-1856), and the South Carolina College (1857-1869). He chaired the chemistry and geology department at South Carolina College (later the University of South Carolina) from 1856 until he resigned in 1868.
When South Carolina College closed during the Civil War, LeConte worked for the Confederate government. Initially he worked exploring nitre caves and as a chemist making medicines for Confederate troops. In 1864, he and his brother John became chemists with the Confederate Nitre and Mining Bureau in Columbia. On February 15, 1865, as U.S. Gen. William T. Sherman and his troops approached the city, LeConte fled Columbia to move the lab to Richmond, Virginia. He brought with him enslaved people who he used as lookouts and laborers along the way. LeConte avoided capture, but U.S. soldiers seized his horses, wagons, supplies, and papers.

After the Civil War, LeConte returned to the faculty of South Carolina College (now University of South Carolina). In the post war era, the university fully integrated, placing African Americans on the Board of Trustees and enrolling freedpeople as students. As a result, LeConte quit his post at the university in 1869 and joined the faculty at a new university forming in California. His brother, John, became the first president of the University of California Berkeley and Joseph became the chair of Geology, Zoology, and Botany. In California LeConte co-founded the Sierra Club, served as the chair of the Sierra Club’s Board of Directors (1892-1898), and served as president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science (1892). Through all of these roles he continued to champion the ideals of white supremacy. In his autobiography, written in the years just before his death, he made his hostility to equality and his denial of the humanity of African Americans clear: “The sudden enfranchisement of the negro without qualification was the greatest political crime ever perpetuated by any people” (LeConte, Autobiography, 238).

Works Cited:
LeConte, Joseph. The Race Problem in the South. Appleton & Co., 1892.
Who Was Lipscomb?
The University of Georgia’s Lipscomb Hall was named for Andrew Adgate Lipscomb (1816-1890), the chancellor of the University of Georgia (1860-74).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans and the author of an anti-immigrant tract, Lipscomb demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Lipscomb advocated nativist beliefs, especially against Irish Catholics, and he enslaved at least two African Americans during his lifetime. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier or later in his life.

More Biographic Details
Lipscomb was born in Washington, D.C. on September 5, 1816 to Phoebe Adgate and William Corrie Lipscomb. He and his wife, Henrietta Blanche Richardson, had two children. After her death, he remarried to Susan Andrew Dowdell in 1857 and they had one son.

Lipscomb entered the ministry at Alexandria, VA (1834) and then served in Methodist Protestant Ministry in Maryland and Washington, D.C. (1835-42). During his time as the pastor of the Bibb Street Methodist Protestant Church in Montgomery, AL (1842-49) he wrote a nativist tract, Our Country: Its Danger and Duty (1844) which warned of the “danger” of Irish immigration to the United States, especially as it would result in the spread of Catholicism. He also enslaved two African Americans during this period.

Lipscomb founded the Metropolitan Institute for Young Ladies in Montgomery, AL (1849). He served as the president of the Tuskegee Female College of the Methodist Episcopal Church South (now Huntingdon College) from 1856 until 1859. He was the chancellor of the University of Georgia from 1860 until 1874. As the head of the university, he encouraged public service. The school closed for part of the Civil War (fall 1863-January 1866). When it reopened, Lipscomb had reorganized it into six divisions—University High School, Arts and Sciences, Agriculture, Engineering, Law, and Elective. In addition, the State Agricultural College began in Athens in 1872. He taught briefly at Vanderbilt University and published two books after leaving the University of Georgia. He spent the rest of his life in Athens, GA.

Lipscomb died in Athens, GA on November 23, 1890.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Who Was William Jones Lowndes?
Valdosta State University’s Lowndes Residence Hall is named for William Jones Lowndes (1782-1822), a prominent South Carolina politician for which Lowndes County, GA is also named.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver, Lowndes acted upon his beliefs of racial inequality and worked against human rights.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Lowndes enslaved African Americans throughout his life, although the size of his enslaved population varied. His parents gave him some enslaved people, he also obtained some through his marriage, and he also bought and sold African Americans throughout his life. At his death, his will included 119 African Americans as his property.

More Biographic Details
Lowndes was born February 11, 1782 at the Horseshoe Plantation in St. Bartholomew’s Parish, SC to Sarah Jones and Rawlins Lowndes. His father was a prominent enslaver and member of the general assembly of South Carolina. Lowdes married Elizabeth Breton Pinckney, daughter of a South Carolina governor. Together, they had three children.

Lowndes suffered from rheumatic fever as a child, leaving him weak throughout his life. Nonetheless, he distinguished himself in private schools in both Charleston and England, and returned home to study law. He began practicing law in 1804. That year, he won election to the state’s general assembly and served until 1808 when he lost a state Senate race.

Throughout his life, Lowndes owned and managed several rice plantations in South Carolina and used enslaved men and women to cultivate them. Throughout his life, the size of his enslaved population varied. He bought and sold enslaved people, and moved them between his rice plantations as work demands dictated. For most of his life, he relied on overseers to tend to these absentee plantations. At his death his will listed 119 African Americans as his property.

In 1810, Lowndes returned to political office by winning a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives. A talented orator, Lowndes took a leading role among Congressmen seeking a strong U.S. military. He pushed aggressively for a military response to Great Britain’s incursions of U.S. sovereignty, sought to buttress the nation’s defensive capabilities, and was a leader in congressional fight to engage Great Britain in the War of 1812.

Lowndes also played influential roles in the creation of the Second Bank of the United States, the coinage of money, naval affairs, and the establishment of protective tariffs. He also wrote a plan that led the United States to pay off its national debt. Finally, and most importantly, he worked alongside Henry Clay to pass the Missouri Compromise (1820). The multipart set of legislation brought the slave state of Missouri into the United States in return for limits on slavery in other territories.

Lowndes left public service as his health declined. He resigned from Congress in 1822, and he died on October 27, 1822 en route to England where he hoped a change in climate would resolve his ailments.
Works Cited:
Who was Lumpkin?
The University of Georgia’s Lumpkin House was named for Wilson Lumpkin (1783-1870), a Georgia and U.S. congressman, governor, Cherokee commissioner, and UGA trustee.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
In his personal and public actions, Wilson Lumpkin acted in ways that denied human rights to African Americans and Native Americans. He demonstrated this attitude as an enslaver of African Americans, and as the architect of the forced removal of Native Americans from Georgia. Near the end of his life he remained steadfastly proud of his eviction of the Cherokees and became a vocal supporter of secession because of his stated desire to preserve slavery.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson Lumpkin was a lifelong enslaver who repeatedly justified the inhumane treatment of African Americans. He used his positions in Georgia and US politics to secure the privileges afforded to white slaveholders and near the end of his life advocated secession in order to preserve slavery. Lumpkin was the central architect of the forced removal of the Cherokees from their homelands in Georgia. The policy stemmed from Lumpkin’s political ambitions, his racist belief that Native Americans and whites were incapable of living together peacefully, and his paternalistic idea that relocating Cherokees against their will was in their best interests. In order to institute removal, Lumpkin had two religious leaders arrested, ignored two U.S. Supreme Court rulings, and otherwise disregarded the protests of Native Americans and white Americans who saw removal as inhumane. Even as the Cherokees lived on the land, Lumpkin pre-distributed the plots to white Georgians through lottery. The ensuing Trail of Tears resulted in the deaths of several thousand Cherokees.

More Biographic Details
Lumpkin was born in Virginia on January 14, 1783 to Lucy Hopson and John Lumpkin, himself a public official for most of his life. They moved to Wilkes County, Georgia when Wilson was an infant. Wilson received an informal legal training from his father who served as a justice of the peace, the judge of the inferior court, and the clerk of the superior court of Clarke County. Lumpkin married twice. He had six surviving children with his first wife—Elizabeth Walker. He had three with his second wife—Annis Hopkins. He lived a life marked by farming and politics. Lumpkin owned around 20 slaves throughout his time in Athens. Today his Athens estate forms a large part of the University of Georgia’s campus.

Lumpkin spent much of his life employed as a public official—at first holding many positions in local government and the Georgia legislature. He then served three terms in the US House of Representatives (1815-1817 and 1827-1831). In between, he served as a commissioner to designate treaty boundaries with the Cherokees (1818, 1819, 1821), boundaries that the Cherokees and others stated had violated Indian sovereignty. After his reelection to Congress (1831), he chose to not serve a fourth term. Instead, he ran for Georgia Governor. In doing so, he became the leading voice for Indian removal in Georgia. The removal of the Cherokees was a politically popular among Georgia’s white electorate. White Georgians coveted Cherokee lands for the expansion of slavery and cotton, and their willingness to violate the rights of the Cherokees became even greater with the discovery of gold in north Georgia. Lumpkin won the election and served two terms as governor (1831-1835). He then served as Commissioner to the Cherokee Indians (1836-1837).
Lumpkin had his most profound impact in his treatment of the Cherokees, and he boasted about this “success” throughout his life. Lumpkin repeatedly expressed the idea that Native Americans and whites could not coexist peacefully. Like many white Southerners, Lumpkin insisted that forcibly removing “insolent” Native Americans to Indian Territory (Oklahoma) was for their own good. Before removal, Lumpkin pushed for laws that expanded Georgia legal jurisdiction into the Cherokee nation. Lumpkin shared powerful allies including President Andrew Jackson, but his opposition was formidable. In addition to the Cherokees, many other Americans opposed the removal policy. These opponents included many Congressmen (the 1830 Indian Removal Act only narrowly passed in the Senate) as well as religious and business leaders across the nation. Lumpkin dismissed these protests as the “impertinent intermeddling” of “Northern fanatics.”

Lumpkin worked closely with Jackson on the removal policy, recognizing that as much as he believed in state’s rights, Georgia needed the coercive power of the federal government and military to forcibly remove the Indians from their homes and homelands. After all, Lumpkin insisted John Ross would resist removal despite “the very liberal terms of the [removal] Treaty.” If the Cherokees would not move voluntarily, Lumpkin stated it was his duty to “promote the interests and preserve the lives of this unfortunate remnant of deluded Indians.” Extending Georgia’s authority into Cherokee country resulted the arrest of two missionaries, Samuel Worcester and Elizur Butler, for living in Cherokee society—actions sanctioned by the Cherokees but deemed illegal by Georgia. The Cherokees and the missionaries protested the arrests which resulted in two US Supreme Court Cases (Cherokee Nation v Georgia and Worcester vs. Georgia). In both instances, the court ruled the Cherokees were a sovereign nation and therefore Georgia and the federal government did not have the ability to remove the Indians. Lumpkin ignored the ruling with the support of Jackson and proceeded with the forced relocation policy that ultimately became known as the “Trail of Tears.”

Lumpkin represented Georgia in the US Senate from 1837-1841, the last elected office he held. After his life as a public servant, he worked as a surveyor and helped create the Western and Atlantic Railroad. He also served as a trustee at the University of Georgia.

In 1860, after several years out of the public eye, Lumpkin vocally supported secession. He justified Georgia’s leaving the United States because the election of the “Black Republican” Lincoln had only one purpose—“the overthrow and final destruction of the institutions of the slaveholding States.” Secession, he stated, was the “best remedy to secure the interests of the Southern States against the … implacable and irresponsible enemy of every slaveholder.” Wilson Lumpkin died in 1870.

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Who was McIntosh?
Georgia College and State University’s McIntosh House was named for Lachlan McIntosh (c. 1725-1806), a prominent enslaver and Revolutionary leader in eighteenth-century Georgia.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans and a soldier engaged in Indian campaigns, Lachlan McIntosh acted in ways that dehumanized non-white Americans. Although a supporter of the revolutionary movement against the British Crown and colonial freedoms more generally, McIntosh’s actions against the enslaved rejected his father’s anti-slavery sentiments and those espoused by white leaders in early Georgia.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Little has been published about McIntosh’s connection to slavery. We know he owned a sizable rice plantation on the Altamaha River, a region where planters routinely used enslaved men and women to perform the manual labor required for rice as they used their expertise in rice cultivation. At the time, this region of South Carolina relied overwhelmingly on enslaved labor with the majority of the population being enslaved. McIntosh’s attitudes toward African Americans also seemed to parallel the racist norms of white society, as one of his few extant statements about African Americans refers to the “vicious and immoral company” of black women. Finally, as a commander in the Georgia militia, McIntosh determined that his soldiers would not return or allow to remain free Black men and women who fled their enslavement in Spanish Florida. Instead, McIntosh allowed the soldiers to keep and enslave the fugitives as war bounty.

McIntosh’s connections to the dispossession of Indians from their lands is well documented. As an officer in the Continental Army, McIntosh was deployed to the Ohio Valley to convince the region’s Delaware and other Indians to abandon their alliance with the British and declare their neutrality, if not friendship, with the United States. McIntosh warned Delaware leaders that they could either acquiesce to American demands or face the wrath of the U.S. army.

More Biographic Details
McIntosh was born in Scotland, to Marjory Fraser and John McIntosh Mohn between 1725 and 1727. In 1736, McIntosh’s family emigrated to Georgia with 100 Scottish families. They established and settled the town of Darien. John McIntosh earned the good graces of James Oglethorpe, the leader of Georgia, by supporting the colony’s early prohibition of slavery.

In 1740, during the War of Jenkin’s Ear, Spanish forces captured McIntosh’s father and held him prisoner for two years. Lachlan and one of his sisters went to live at George Whitfield’s Bethesda Orphanage just outside of Savannah. The rest of his siblings remained with their now impoverished mother who took refuge at Fort Palachacola. At the orphanage, McIntosh came under the influence of Oglethorpe who guided him in the study of military affairs. McIntosh left the orphanage to join the militia at Fort Frederica. When his father was released from captivity, the family briefly reunited in Darien. Lachlan did not stay long. In 1748, McIntosh received a grant of 500 acres the Newport River. Too poor to make much of the lands, he instead chose to move to Chares Town, South Carolina where he began clerking at the counting house of Henry Laurens, a wealthy planter and merchant. McIntosh lived with Laurens, who became his political and economic mentor. In 1756, he
married Sarah Thredcraft with whom he had eight children, returned to Georgia, and started a rice plantation along the Altamaha River delta with Laurens as his business partner. McIntosh relied on the labor of enslaved men and women to build his Georgia estate.

By 1770, McIntosh was opposed to the colonial policies of the British Crown. He helped recruit delegates to the Provincial Congress from his region (1775), and he joined the Continental Army at the start of the war. He served as a colonel in the Georgia militia and he ultimately rose to the rank of brigadier general. McIntosh began his service in Georgia where he was largely responsible for setting up defenses against feared attack from Spanish Florida. There, under his orders, his men established the custom of keeping as plunder enslaved men and women who were either captured or who had escaped from Spanish Florida.

McIntosh’s rise in military rank led to a dispute with a jealous Button Gwinnett, a signer of the Declaration of Independence. Both men were wounded in the resulting duel. Gwinnet died a few days later. McIntosh was acquitted of committing murder. Nonetheless, he fled Georgia and joined General George Washington at Valley Forge in 1778 where he participated in the crucial winter engagements. He later led a command against Native Americans in the Ohio Valley. He established two forts and used threats of war to push the Delaware Indians to declare their neutrality. McIntosh returned to Georgia in 1779 in a failed attempt to liberate Savannah from British occupation. In 1780, he was captured while defending Charles Town. After his release, he was relieved of duty and returned to his rice plantation. There he discovered that it was largely destroyed by the British who occupied it during the war. With the use of enslaved labor, he rebuilt the rice plantation.

Despite the inglorious end of his military career and his financial struggles after the war, McIntosh’s public reputation survived. He became a member of the Society of Cincinnati (1784), an organization for officers of the Continental Army. He also represented the state of Georgia in the Continental Congress (1784) and served as a commissioner to settle a 1787 boundary dispute between Georgia and South Carolina.

McIntosh died on February 20, 1806.

Works Cited:
Who Was McWhorter?
The University of Georgia’s McWhorter Hall was named for Robert Ligon McWhorter (1891-1960), an alumnus (1914), football player, and law professor at the university (1923-58).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a known segregationist, McWhorter was chosen to sit on a University of Georgia committee that purposefully denied admission to the law school to an African American student.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a member of the law school faculty and of the committee assigned to review the lawsuit brought by African American applicant Horace Ward, McWhorter fought integration at the university.

More Biographic Details
McWhorter was born near Athens on June 4, 1891 to Sally Pharr and Hamilton McWhorter, a judge and cotton planter. He grew up on his family’s plantation. He married Louise Walker on October 12, 1921. They had one son.

McWhorter earned an A.B. from the University of Georgia (1914), where he played halfback on the football team (1910-13). He was all-Southern four times, and the University of Georgia’s first Parke Davis All-America selection (1913). He earned a law degree from the University of Virginia (1917).

After law school McWhorter returned to Athens, GA to practice law. He was a law professor at the University of Georgia (1923-58). While on the faculty, McWhorter, a known segregationist, was assigned to serve on a committee to investigate the rejected law school application of African American Horace Ward (1950). The other two members of the committee were law school dean J. Alton Hosch and history professor E. Merton Coulter, both also avowed segregationists. As expected, the committee unanimously rejected Ward’s appeal and contended that Ward was a tool of the NAACP—as opposed to an interested student—and its efforts to desegregate the university. Ward, the committee stated, did not actually want to attend the university.

McWhorter also served as the mayor of Athens, GA (1940-47) and as president of the Bulldog Club. He was the first University of Georgia player to be inducted into the National Football Foundation’s Hall of Fame (1954).

McWhorter died on June 28, 1960.

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Who Was Mell?
The University of Georgia’s Mell Hall was named for Patrick Hues Mell (1814-1888), the chancellor of the University of Georgia (1878-88).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
In his role as a minister, Mell provided intellectual support for the institution of slavery in the antebellum South. His Slavery; a Treatise, Showing that Slavery is Neither a Moral, Political, Nor Social Evil (1844) publicly justified the enslavement of African Americans. His service in the Confederate army further supported the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Mell’s pro-slavery pamphlet, Slavery; a Treatise, Showing that Slavery is Neither a Moral, Political, Nor Social Evil (1844) justifies the enslavement of African Americans through a religious explanation. He also claims that enslaved people are protected in that condition, and he dismisses their frequent abuse by slaveholders. The pamphlet was written to convince readers to continue and even expand the system of enslavement, and in doing so, worked to continue the dehumanization of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Mell was born in Walthourville, GA on July 19, 1814 to Cynthia Sumner and Benjamin D. Mell. He married Lurene Howard Cooper in 1840. After her 1861 death he married Eliza Cooper. He had fourteen children.

Mell studied at Amherst College from 1833 to 1835, but he did not graduate. He was appointed as a professor of Ancient Languages at Mercer University (1841) and a professor of Ancient Languages at the University of Georgia (1856). He became vice-chancellor of the University of Georgia in 1860 and then chancellor of the University of Georgia (1878-88).

Mell took up a ministry in Bairdstown, GA (1848) and in Antioch, GA (1852). He served these churches for thirty years. He was elected president of the Georgia Baptist Association (1857) and president of the Southern Baptist Convention (1863-71 and 1880-87).

During the Civil War, Mell served with the Confederate army. His first wife’s death (1861) prevented him from leaving the state, but he served throughout the war. He served as the captain of a volunteer company and then, in 1863, was appointed as a colonel of a defensive command in North Georgia.

Mell published Slavery; a Treatise, Showing that Slavery is Neither a Moral, Political, Nor Social Evil (1844), a pro-slavery pamphlet originally published as a series. In it, he also takes aim at the sins of abolitionist and women’s rights activists, particularly the Grimké sisters, as violating the words of the Bible.

Mell died in Athens, GA on January 26, 1888.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com


Who Was Milledge?
The University of Georgia’s Milledge Hall was named for John Milledge (1757-1818), a lifelong public servant who served as U.S. Representative (1792-1801), U.S. Senator (1806-09), and governor of Georgia (1802-06). He also played a prominent role in the American Revolution and in the founding of the University of Georgia.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans and promoter of the dispossession of Indian lands in Georgia, Milledge actively harmed humanity and supported the ideals of white supremacy.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver and architect of the dispossession of Indian lands in Georgia, Milledge acted in ways that violated the human rights of both African Americans and Native Americans. Throughout his life, he bought, sold, and mortgaged enslaved people. Born into a slaveowning family, Milledge continued and expanded on this practice as an adult and expected that his children continue the practice as well. At his death, he owned at least 35 African American men, women, and children. He also used his position as an officeholder to protect and expand the interests of enslavers. He served on and helped organize slave patrols. In addition, throughout his political career, Milledge oversaw and advocated for the creation of various laws that protected the interests of enslavers.

Milledge also helped oversee the expansion of slavery in the state though his aggressive pursuit of Indian lands. Through a series of controversial land cessions with the Creek and Cherokee nations, agreements that a majority of Native Americans opposed at the time and that were signed under dubious circumstances, the state of Georgia confiscated hundreds of thousands of acres of Indian lands. Milledge expanded his popularity among the white electorate by designing and creating the resulting land lottery—the process by which Indian lands were distributed to white Georgian men throughout the early nineteenth century. Milledge created the system in 1803 and it was first used in 1805 to re-distribute Creek lands to white Americans.

More Biographic Details
Milledge was born in 1757 near Augusta, GA on his parents’ Sand Hills plantation. His parents, Ann and John Milledge, Sr., were among the most prominent and wealthiest settlers in the colony. He studied with private tutors, entered military service, and ultimately became a lawyer in Savannah. Milledge married Martha Galphin (1796) and after her death he married Ann Lamar (1811). He had four children.

Milledge participated in many of the pre-revolutionary protests against Great Britain, including in the 1776 seizure of gunpowder held at the British magazine in Savannah. After independence, Milledge served as attorney general of the newly formed state of Georgia and was an influential leader in the Patriot cause. He fled Savannah when the British captured it during the war, and he rose to colonel in the Georgia militia. After his stint as attorney general, he served in the Georgia House of Representatives (1782-1790), represented Georgia in the U.S. Congress for two terms (1792-1801), held one term as Governor of Georgia (1802-1806), and served as a United States Senator (1806-1809). His political career ended when he resigned his position in 1809 on account of his wife’s sickness.
Milledge was the prototypical planter-politician. At his Sand Hills plantation, he employed overseers for much of the daily oversight of his enslaved workers on his cotton plantation, and he used the resulting wealth and leisure to maintain his public stature. The number of men and women he held as slaves varied throughout his life, but his bequeathed 35 men, women, and children to his heirs. Not much has been written about his plantation, but the evidence points to the common combination of his amassing of great wealth through the harsh treatment of enslaved Black men and women.

Throughout his career in public service Milledge pursued the interests of the planter class. Most notably, as governor he oversaw the dispossession of Creek Indian lands and the subsequent lottery that distributed them. Under his guidance, commissioners arranged controversial land cessions from both the Creek and Cherokee nations in Georgia. Representatives from both nations declared that the treaties were secured fraudulently, but Milledge began the process of distributing the lands. The land lottery, the first in the state’s history, occurred even as the details and legality of the forced removal of the Creeks and Cherokees were being disputed. As a result, white Georgians flooded into lands still occupied by their Indigenous owners. Milledge also oversaw the construction of a road that cut through Indian country, in violation of Indian sovereignty.

Milledge was also responsible for the establishment of the University of Georgia in Athens. In 1801, he purchased 633 acres, named it Athens, and then served on the committee that chose it for the university’s location. Milledge donated all 633 acres for the university and city.

After his wife died, Milledge spent the last decade of his life on the Sand Hills plantation. He died February 9, 1818.

**Works Cited:**
Ancestry.com
MOORE COLLEGE (1874) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Moore?
The University of Georgia’s Moore College was named for physician Richard Dudley Moore (1809-1873), a member of the University of Georgia’s Board of Trustees who served as mayor of Athens and helped raise money to build the State College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts (now part of the University of Georgia).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans and a supporter of secession, Moore demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Moore enslaved at least eleven African Americans during his lifetime. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people prior to 1850. He supported nullification and secession, both actions directly tied to a continued dedication to the fight to protect the enslavement of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Moore was born on May 20, 1809 to Frances Cary and Alsa Moore. He married Elizabeth Ann Stockton and, after her 1865 death, Emma McAllister. He was the father of five children.

Moore graduated as valedictorian from the Medical College of Georgia (now Augusta University) in 1844. He helped found the local YMCA (1857). During the Civil War, Moore treated the local families of Confederate soldiers for free. Then, during the post-war smallpox epidemic Athens, he cared for patients in a makeshift hospital.

By 1850, Moore enslaved eleven African Americans and in 1860 he had 9 enslaved people between the ages of 5 and 42 in his household. He supported the South’s nullification of federal law and secession from the United States prior to the Civil War.

Moore served as mayor of the city of Athens as well as a member of the University of Georgia’s Board of Trustees in the 1870s. During his time in office, he convinced citizens in Athens to donate money to build a structure for the State College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts (now part of the University of Georgia).

Moore died on October 31, 1873.

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Who Were Newell and Watts?
Georgia College and State University’s Newell-Watts House was named for merchant Isaac Newell (1797-1866), nurse Lois Mary Dills Watts (1924-2005), and her husband local attorney James Motes “Jimmy” Watts, Jr. (1916-1995). The Newell family lived in the house for over a hundred years; the Watts lived in the house after the Newells.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Newell demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

There is no evidence that Jimmy Watts was directly involved in activities which were actively harmful to humanity, but he is likely, through his participation in events run by Lost Cause organizations, to have held beliefs and supported causes that harmed African Americans and supported white supremacy.

Lois Watts does not appear to have supported any mistreatment toward humanity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Newell enslaved at least 29 African Americans during his lifetime. The 1850 and 1860 censuses include the enslaved people in his household. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life.

There is no direct evidence that Jimmy Watts was involved in activities which were actively harmful to humanity, but as a member of the Sons of Confederate Veterans he participated in events that glorified the Confederacy and promoted the ideals of the Lost Cause—a mythology that stressed a romanticized and idealized Southern plantation past as a “benevolent” and necessary system of enslavement, that upheld the righteousness of southern secession, and that stressed the honor and almost infallibility of Confederate soldiers. This mythology simultaneously ignored the humanity of and denied the equality of African Americans as it worked to justify and enforce white supremacy.

There does not appear to be anything objectionable about Lois Watts in terms of his attitudes or actions toward humanity.

More Biographic Details
Newell was born in Southington, CT on July 4, 1797 to Mary Warren and Isaac Newell. He married Pamela Duncan in 1826. They had six children. Newell, a merchant, relocated to Georgia in the early nineteenth century and built the house. He enslaved 29 African Americans in 1850 and 15 in 1860, according to the slave schedules of the census carried out in those years. Newell died in Milledgeville, GA on October 11, 1866. The Newell family lived in the house for more than 100 years.

Jimmy Watts was born in Jackson, GA on April 4, 1916 to Annie Mallet and James Mote Watts. He married Sara Sears in 1941. After her 1955 death he married Louis Mary Dills. Lois Watts was born in Canton, GA on June 5, 1924 to Ella Elizabeth Parris and William Leonard Dills. Jimmy and Lois Watts bought the house in the mid-twentieth century.
Jimmy Watts earned an A.B. and LL.B. from Mercer University. He began practicing law in Milledgeville, GA around 1940. In the 1970s he became the Baldwin County State Court solicitor. He served as the chairman of the Georgia Prosecuting Attorneys Council and of the Baldwin County Department of Family and Children Services’ Board of Directors. He was a member of the Baldwin County and Ocmulgee Bar Association, the Old Capitol Historical Society, the Milledgeville Heritage Foundation, the Knights of Columbus, the Sons of the American Revolution, and the Sons of the Confederacy.


**Works Cited:**
Ancestry.com
Who Was Patterson?
Valdosta State University’s Patterson Hall was named for James W. Patterson (1823-1862), an attorney and Confederate soldier.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Patterson’s enslavement of African Americans as well as his service in the Confederate army helped support a commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south. He did not make any public statements in favor of or against the mistreatment of humanity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Patterson enslaved at least fourteen people prior to the Civil War. At the first news of war Patterson raised an infantry company for the Confederacy and joined other southerners as they fought to preserve the enslavement of African Americans in the south.

More Biographic Details
Patterson was born in King William County, VA in 1823 to Susan G. and Thomas Patterson. He graduated with a law degree from Brown University and then moved to Forsyth County, GA to practice law there. He married Mary Frances Stephens on October 29, 1851.

The Pattersons moved to Troupville in 1854, where he practiced law and taught school until 1860. The 1860 census lists him as a lawyer and a planter with fourteen enslaved people, ranging in age from 50 years old to 1 year old, in his household. They moved to Valdosta in 1861, where he continued practicing law.

With the outbreak of the Civil War, Patterson organized a company of infantry in Lowndes County, GA. The men elected him as their captain before they left Valdosta for Richmond, VA on June 20, 1861. Their company joined the 12th Georgia Regiment as company I. He was killed at the Battle of McDowell on May 8, 1862.

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Ancestry.com
“Capt James W. Patterson, Twelfth Georgia.” Confederate Veteran. 20 (1917): 473.
Who Was Peters?
The Georgia Institute of Technology’s Peters Parking Deck was named for Richard Peters (1810-1889), a transportation and real estate magnate who made an early donation of land to the Georgia School of Technology (now Georgia Tech).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Peters’ actions as an enslaver of African Americans as well as those to aid Confederate blockade running during the Civil War demonstrate his commitment to restricting the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Peters used enslaved laborers for agricultural labor as well as in his household in Atlanta. In addition, during the Civil War, he voluntarily provided an essential rail link to Confederate blockade runners, thereby supporting the war efforts of a state committed to maintaining the enslavement of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Peters was born in Germantown, PA on November 10, 1810 to Catherine Conyngham and Ralph Peters. His grandfather, Richard Peters, was a Revolutionary leader and a federal judge. Peters married Mary Jane Thompson on February 18, 1848 and they had nine children.

Peters became a transportation magnate in Georgia. First, he was appointed assistant engineer of the Georgia Railroad (1835) and then superintendent of the Georgia Railroad (1837). As the Railroad Superintendent, Peters changed the name of Marthasville to Atlanta (1846). He also created a stagecoach line (1844). He became president of the Georgia Western Railroad in 1860.

In 1847, Peters purchased 1,500 acres in Calhoun, GA where he established Belmont plantation. He used enslaved African Americans for labor on this estate and also used enslaved labor in his Atlanta home. As his fortune grew, he established a large flour mill in Atlanta (1856) and purchased 400 acres (now the heart of Midtown Atlanta) to use as a source of lumber for his mill.

During the Civil War, Peters used his resources to support the Confederate war effort. He sold the mill’s steam engine to the Augusta Powder Works (1861) to aid the Confederacy in the production of munitions. Throughout the war, he used his railroad to supply cotton to blockade runners in Virginia.

He continued in the railroad business after the war, joining the directors of Atlanta and West Point Railroad and the directors of Western & Atlantic Railroad (1870). He founded the Atlanta Street Railway Company in 1871. He donated four acres to the Georgia School of Technology (later Georgia Tech) in 1887.

Peters died on February 6, 1889.

Works Cited:

PORTER HALL (1939) Georgia College and State University  
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Porter?
Georgia College and State University’s Porter Hall was named for Anthony Porter (1788-1869), a Savannah planter and merchant.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Porter demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Porter enslaved at least 56 African Americans during his lifetime. The 1850 census includes the enslaved people in his household—5 in Savannah, GA and 51 in Liberty County, GA. The 1860 census shows him having 5 enslaved African Americans in Savannah. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life.

More Biographic Details
Porter was born in Greene County, GA on December 8, 1788 to Margaret Watson and Oliver Porter, a Revolutionary War veteran. He married Louisa Alexander on December 16, 1824.

Porter served as the secretary to Georgia governor David Brydie Mitchell (1809-13) and established a bank in Milledgeville, GA in 1815. He relocated to Savannah (1816), where he was elected as Teller for the Bank of State of Georgia in Savannah. He became President of the Bank of State of Georgia in Savannah in 1860. Porter served on the Court of Ordinary in Savannah (c. 1828-c. 1839).

Porter enslaved at least 56 African Americans to work at his Liberty County, GA plantation and at his home in Savannah, GA. After he sold the plantation sometime between 1850 and 1860, he retained five enslaved Blacks at his home in Savannah.

Porter died in Savannah, GA on December 1, 1869.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com

Who Was Rains?
Augusta University’s Rains Hall was named for George Washington Rains (1817-1898), a Confederate officer in charge of munitions production at the Augusta Powder Works and a professor at the Medical College of Georgia.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
In his role as the founder and manager of the Confederacy’s Augusta Powder Works, Rains was directly involved in activities which were harmful to humanity. His work supported the Confederate government, a government committed to the enslavement of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an active participant in the Confederate war effort, Rains supported the enslavement of African Americans. In addition to creating and overseeing the Augusta Powder Works to provide war materiel for Confederate troops, Rains promoted the use of enslaved labor at the factory. Early in the war the factory forced about thirty enslaved African Americans to work there. By the end of the war close to one hundred enslaved people labored at the Powder Works. They helped with production, moved powder, hauled and chopped wood, and kept the fires burning.

More Biographic Details
Rains was born in Craven County, NC in 1817 to Hester Ambrose and Gabriel M. Rains. He married Frances Josephine Ramsdell in 1856.

After graduating from West Point (1842), Rains was appointed 2nd Lieutenant and assigned to 4th Artillery at Fort Monroe, Virginia. He returned to West Point in 1844 as Assistant Professor of chemistry, geology, and mineralogy. In 1846 he went with the 4th Artillery to Point Isabel, Texas for service in Mexican American War. He earned several promotions for his service in that war—1st Lieutenant and breveted Captain for fighting at Contreras and Churubusco, and then breveted Major after action at Chapultepec. Rains resigned from military service (1856) to become President of Washington Iron Works and Highland Iron Works in Newburgh, NY. Rains received patents for steam engine and boiler inventions (1860-61).

During the Civil War, Rains joined the Confederacy. He was commissioned Major in the Confederate Corps of Artillery and assigned to procurement of powder served. As the officer in charge of Confederate munitions he toured the south for a suitable location and chose Augusta, where he established and supervised the Augusta Powder Works. By the war’s end, the Augusta Powder Works produced 2.75 million pounds of gunpowder. Rains also served as commanding officer of all troops in Augusta until an officer was sent in late 1864 to defend against the invasion by U.S. General William T. Sherman. His older brother, Gabriel Rains (1803-1881) also fought for the Confederacy, and invented landmines for the Confederate war effort.

After the Civil War, Rains joined the faculty at the Medical College of Georgia as a Professor of Chemistry. In 1867, he earned his M.D. from the Medical College, became Dean of the College, and became a regent of the Academy of Richmond County. He resigned as Dean in 1883 but remained on the faculty until his 1894 retirement. During his career Rains published several books on chemistry, steam engines, and a history of the Confederate Powder Works.
Rains died on March 21, 1898 in Newburgh, NY.

Works Cited:
Who Was Rankin?
Columbus State’s Rankin Building was named for James A. Rankin (1806-1880), an enslaver, planter, merchant, and hotelier.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans and a supporter of the Confederacy Rankin in his actions consistently acted in ways that supported the mistreatment of humanity.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Rankin enslaved Black men and women for at least two decades, holding 30 enslaved men and women in bondage on the eve of the Civil War. Like other white enslavers, he denied basic human rights to others in the pursuit of his own financial and social gain. Although too old to enlist in the Confederate Army, Rankin supported secession and the war effort. When the war ended, he was required to sign an oath of loyalty to the United States on account of his treasonous support of the Confederacy.

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Rankin began building a home for his family in the 1850s, but the builder, Lawrence Wimberly Wall, did not complete it until after the Civil War. The Rankin family home (The Rankin House) became home to the Historic Columbus Foundation in 1968 and still operates as a museum and research library.

By 1860 Rankin held 30 enslaved African Americans, ranging in age from 1 to 75. In 1864, Rankin purchased a building to open the Rankin Hotel. The wooden structure caught fire during a cold January night in 1879 and burned down to the brick walls. Rankin rebuilt it with brick in 1880. The hotel remained open for 100 years although it changed hands multiple times.

Rankin did not fight in the Civil War, but like most wealthy southerners was required to take a loyalty oath to the U.S. (July 2, 1867) on account of his treasonous behavior through his support of the Confederacy. For many years, Rankin served as the director of the board for the Georgia Home Insurance Company. He was also a member of the board of the National Bank of Columbus and a stockholder.

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Works Cited:
Who Was Redding?
The University of Georgia’s Redding Building was named for **Robert Jordan Redding** (1836-1914), a slaveholder and the first director of the Georgia Experiment Station in Griffin.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Redding’s enslavement of African Americans as well as his service in the Confederate army demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally and showed his commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Redding grew up in a house with enslaved African Americans and as an adult enslaved at least twelve African Americans at his own plantation, thereby denying the humanity of African Americans. He also volunteered in the Confederate army to fight for a cause centered on maintaining the system of slavery and white supremacy. He did not make any public statements in favor of or against the mistreatment of humanity.

More Biographic Details
Redding was born in Monroe County, GA on December 28, 1836 to Susan Randall Jackson and Anderson Westmoreland Redding, the president of the United States Mint in Dahlonega, GA and a slaveholder. Redding married Mary Elizabeth Bivins in 1858. They had six children who survived childhood. After her 1875 death he married Sarah E. Worrill. She died in 1886 and he married Sarah “Sally” Elizabeth Redding (a distant cousin) in 1887 and they had one son.

Redding began practicing law in Pondtown, GA in 1857 and served as a Schley County Inferior Court judge (1857-59). He set up a plantation in 1859 where he enslaved at least twelve African Americans. Redding enlisted in the Georgia Volunteer Infantry, the Schley Rifles, to fight for the Confederacy in 1862. He was wounded at Kennesaw Mountain in 1862 and could not return to service.

In 1875, Redding became the Assistant Commission of Agriculture and then, in 1889, the first director of the Georgia Experiment Station. He also served as the farm editor for the Atlanta Constitution (1893-1914). In 1907, Redding served as the Commissioner of the Georgia building and exhibit at the Jamestown Exposition.

Redding died in Griffin, GA on June 4, 1914.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
RICHARD B. RUSSELL BUILDING SPECIAL COLLECTIONS LIBRARIES (2012)
University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Russell?
The University of Georgia's Richard B. Russell Building Special Collections Libraries was named for Richard Brevard Russell, Jr. (1897-1971), U.S. Senator (1933-71), Governor of Georgia (1930-31), and a co-author of the racist “Southern Manifesto.”

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Russell actively mistreated humanity by using his political power to block and otherwise oppose civil rights for African Americans. As a co-author of the “Southern Manifesto,” he publicly promoted ideas of white supremacy and worked to maintain racial segregation.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Russell used his legal background and his status in the U.S. Senate as a basis to oppose civil rights and preserve white supremacy. In particular, he was one of the leading writers and voices for the “Southern Manifesto,” a public declaration by white Southern Democrats to oppose the landmark Supreme Court *Brown v. Board* ruling by every legal means. His connection to the “Southern Manifesto” was part of a larger personal history in which he used his political power to preserve the status quo and deny equality to Africans Americans.

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Russell was born in Winder, GA on November 2, 1897 Ina Dillard and Richard B. Russell, a state legislator and Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Georgia. His father established Russell, GA in 1902 and raised his family of thirteen children there. One of his brothers, Robert Lee Russell, served as a federal judge. His mother, a graduate of the Lucy Cobb Institute, as well as a number of tutors educated Russell at home until he turned 13. He graduated from the Gordon Institute (later Gordon State College) and then got his law degree from the University of Georgia (1918). After graduation, Russell served briefly in the naval reserve before returning to Winder to practice law with his father. He never married.

Russell’s lifelong political career began with his service in Georgia’s House of Representatives (1921-31), where he presided as Speaker of the House for several years (1927-31). As Georgia’s governor (1931-33) Russell reorganized the state government to make it more efficient, promoted building highways, and supported public education. He also created the University System of Georgia with its Board of Regents. He began his career in the U.S. Senate in 1933 where he remained in office until his death in 1971. As Senator, Russell was one of the most powerful and influential people in politics. The Senate appointed him to the Appropriations Committee as he began his term and he remained on that powerful committee throughout his Senate career. Russell also served on the Armed Services Affairs Committee, Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Aeronautical and Space Sciences Committee, Democratic Policy committee, and as president pro tempore of the Senate (1969-71). In 1951 he chaired the Senate's investigation of Truman's firing of General Douglas MacArthur and he served on the Warren Commission (1960s) that investigated Kennedy’s assassination. Throughout his career Russell promoted bills and supported legislation that aided the farmers of his mostly rural state.
Russell was deeply committed to racial segregation and state’s rights and led other southern legislators in resisting civil rights. As an elected official, he actively blocked any efforts towards granting legal equality to African Americans. In 1935 he protested an anti-lynching bill and he, along with the rest of the Southern bloc, continued to block civil rights legislation through the use of filibusters. In 1954, he railed against the recent Supreme Court decision on Brown v. Board that desegregated schools. He then became one of the drafters of the Southern Caucus’s “Declaration of Constitutional Principles,” better known as the “Southern Manifesto.” In the “Southern Manifesto” Russell, Strom Thurmond, and other white politicians vehemently defended Jim Crow (legal race-based segregation) as they argued against Brown v. Board. They asserted that the ruling had no basis in American legal precedent; they criticized the Supreme Court justices as partisan, incapable, biased, and dishonest; and they claimed that the Brown decision would destroy race relations in the south.

Russell’s commitment to racial segregation limited his national ambitions. He ran for the Democratic Presidential nomination in 1952 but lost the primary because of his commitment to Jim Crow. On behalf of himself and other white Southern senators Russell offered a public repudiation to President Lyndon Johnson’s 1964 State of the Union Address which Russell opposed because, among other things, it stated a commitment to the Civil Rights Bill as well as a commitment to eradicating racism from American immigration policy. Russell’s opposition to the 1964 Civil Rights Bill led him to boycott the Democratic National Convention that year.

Russell was also an isolationist and nationalist, disagreeing with the U.S.’s decision to join the United Nations and opposing the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. He also opposed most foreign aid, stating that it prevented the U.S. from building a strong military to protect itself. He did not support American involvement in Vietnam.


Works Cited:
Who Was Roberts?
Middle Georgia State University’s Roberts Library was named for Lucien Emerson Roberts (1903-1964), the third president of the school (1950-64).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As the president of Middle Georgia State, Roberts maintained racial segregation at a time when the courts had ruled that public schools had to integrate. His defiance of the law showed a disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Roberts decided to maintain the color line at Middle Georgia State University after the Brown v. Board (1954) ruling. In doing so, he defied court orders and otherwise worked to continue a status quo that denied equality for African Americans. Roberts explicitly opposed efforts to force integration. At a national conference on higher education held in Chicago, he warned the audience that “someone is going to get hurt” if the white south was forced to integrate. He blamed African Americans and white agitators from outside of the south for the problem. “Keep the NAACP out of the South for a while and let the white and colored people talk things over.”

More Biographic Details
Roberts was born in Newcastle, AL on June 11, 1903 to Ida Docia McBrayer and Calvin Alexander Roberts. He married Ellen Ballard, the first woman to earn a master’s in European History from the University of Georgia. They had one son.

Roberts earned an A.B. (1924) and M.A. (1927) from the University of Georgia. He worked as a principal at a Fayetteville, GA school (1924-26) and became a professor of history at West Georgia College (now University of West Georgia) in 1933. He published several books on Georgia and European history.

Roberts served as the president of Middle Georgia College (1950-64). The school added several new buildings during his administration. Like most of Georgia’s public schools, the school remained segregated and noncompliant with the federal ruling for desegregation of all public institutions in Brown v. Board (1954).

Roberts died on May 1, 1964.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Who Was Russell?
Georgia College and State University’s Russell Auditorium was named for Richard Brevard Russell, Sr. (1861-1938), politician and Chief Justice of the Georgia Supreme Court (1922-38).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his close affiliation with the Ku Klux Klan, a white supremacist hate group, Russell demonstrated his opposition to racial equality and worked to deny the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Although it is unclear as to whether Russell was an official member of the Ku Klux Klan, he advocated for policies that mirrored those advocated by the Klan, and he worked closely with the Klan and Klan leaders throughout his career. Many scholars state that this relationship gave the Klan undue influence into the highest levels of Georgia law. Russell appears to have courted support from the Klan and shaped his political ambitions accordingly. Historian David Chalmers notes that “the Klan was…close with the elder Richard B. Russell… and Klan leaders conferred with…[him] on state policy. However, in 1924, when Russell wanted to run for U.S. Senator, the Klan dissuaded him by arguing that it was already supporting [the incumbent].”

More Biographic Details
Russell was born in Marietta, GA on April 27, 1861 to Rebecca Harriette Brumby and William John Russell, a textile manufacturer. He married Mary Louise Tyler in 1883; she died in childbirth three years later. He married Blandina “Ina” Dillard in 1891 and they had fifteen children over the next twenty years. One of their sons, Richard Brevard Russell, Jr., became Governor of Georgia (1930-31), a U.S. Senator (1933-71), and a co-author of the racist “Southern Manifesto.”

Russell graduated from the University of Georgia (1879) and then from the law school (1880). When he won election to the Georgia General Assembly (1882), he became its youngest member. While in office pushed for funding for the Georgia School of Technology (now Georgia Institute of Technology) and he wrote a bill for a state-funded women’s college (1887) which did not pass until he had left office.

Russell sat on several education boards. He was a member of the Athens Board of Education (1885-94), the Winder, GA School Board (1897) and the Russell, GA School Board (1903-07). In addition, he served as a trustee of the University of Georgia (1887-89 and 1913-33) and as the chairman (1923-33) of the university’s Board of Trustees. Despite that continued connection to his alma mater, when he was proposed as a potential chancellor of the university in 1925, students protested because of his close affiliation with the Ku Klux Klan. Although it does not appear that he was a member of the KKK, he publicly supported their actions and ambitions. He also sat on the Board of Trustees for the Georgia Normal and Industrial College (now Georgia College and State University) beginning in 1916 and served as the president of the Board from 1918 until 1933. He sat on the University System of Georgia’s first Board of Regents (1932-33).

Russell was elected as a Superior Court judge of Western Circuit in 1898 and reelected in 1902. He was next elected to the Georgia Court of Appeals (1906-16) and served as the chief judge of that
Russell was elected to the state Supreme Court, where he served as Chief Justice from 1922 until his death in 1938.

Russell also had unsuccessful bids for governor (1906 and 1910) and U.S. Senate (1926). When he was not serving in office, he would return home to his law practice. He also helped organize the Athens Street Railway Company (1886), the Athens Savings Bank (1887), and the North Georgia telephone Company (1894). He served as the editor of the *Athens Daily Ledger* (1890-93).

Russell’s ties to the Georgia Ku Klux Klan were well known. Although he denied membership in the white supremacist hate group, he conferred frequently with the leaders of the group, took their advice on policy decisions, and attended Klan-sponsored events, including a banquet in 1923.

Russell died in Atlanta, GA on December 3, 1938.

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Mugleston, William F. “The Press and Student Activism at the University of Georgia in the 1920s.” *Georgia Historical Quarterly* 64:3 (Fall 1980): 241-52.

Who Was Russell?
Middle Georgia State University’s Russell Fine Arts building is named for Richard Brevard Russell, Jr. (1897-1971), U.S. Senator (1933-71), Governor of Georgia (1930-31), and a co-author of the racist “Southern Manifesto.”

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Gordon State College’s Russell Hall was named for Richard Brevard Russell, Jr. (1897-1971), U.S. Senator (1933-71), Governor of Georgia (1930-31), and a co-author of the racist “Southern Manifesto.”

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Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Russell actively mistreated humanity by using his political power to block and otherwise oppose civil rights for African Americans. As a co-author of the “Southern Manifesto,” he publicly promoted ideas of white supremacy and worked to maintain racial segregation.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Russell used his legal background and his status in the U.S. Senate as a basis to oppose civil rights and preserve white supremacy. In particular, he was one of the leading writers and voices for the “Southern Manifesto,” a public declaration by white Southern Democrats to oppose the landmark Supreme Court *Brown v. Board* ruling by every legal means. His connection to the “Southern Manifesto” was part of a larger personal history in which he used his political power to preserve the status quo and deny equality to Africans Americans.

More Biographic Details
Russell was born in Winder, GA on November 2, 1897 to Ina Dillard and Richard B. Russell, a state legislator and Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Georgia. His father established Russell, GA in 1902 and raised his family of thirteen children there. One of his brothers, Robert Lee Russell, served as a federal judge. His mother, a graduate of the Lucy Cobb Institute, as well as a number of tutors educated Russell at home until he turned 13. He graduated from the Gordon Institute (later Gordon State College) and then got his law degree from the University of Georgia (1918). After graduation, Russell served briefly in the naval reserve before returning to Winder to practice law with his father. He never married.

Russell’s lifelong political career began with his service in Georgia’s House of Representatives (1921-31), where he presided as Speaker of the House for several years (1927-31). As Georgia’s governor (1931-33) Russell reorganized the state government to make it more efficient, promoted building highways, and supported public education. He also created the University System of Georgia with its Board of Regents. He began his career in the U.S. Senate in 1933 where he remained in office until his death in 1971. As Senator, Russell was one of the most powerful and influential people in politics. He sat on the Appropriations Committee throughout his Senate career. Russell also served on the Armed Services Affairs Committee, Joint Committee on Atomic Energy, Aeronautical and Space Sciences Committee, Democratic Policy committee, and as president pro tempore of the Senate (1969-71). In 1951 he chaired the Senate’s investigation of Truman's firing of General Douglas MacArthur and he served on the Warren Commission (1960s) that investigated Kennedy’s assassination. Throughout his career Russell promoted bills and supported legislation that aided the farmers of his mostly rural state.

Russell was deeply committed to racial segregation and state’s rights and led other southern legislators in resisting civil rights. As an elected official, he actively blocked any efforts towards granting legal equality to African Americans. In 1935 he protested an anti-lynching bill and he, along
with the rest of the Southern bloc, continued to block civil rights legislation through the use of filibusters. In 1954, he railed against the recent Supreme Court decision on *Brown v. Board* that desegregated schools. He then became one of the drafters of the Southern Caucus’s “Declaration of Constitutional Principles,” better known as the “Southern Manifesto.” In the “Southern Manifesto” Russell, Strom Thurmond, and other white politicians vehemently defended Jim Crow (legal race-based segregation) as they argued against *Brown v. Board*. They asserted that the ruling had no basis in American legal precedent; they criticized the Supreme Court justices as partisan, incapable, biased, and dishonest; and they claimed that the *Brown* decision would destroy race relations in the south.

Russell’s commitment to racial segregation limited his national ambitions. He ran for the Democratic Presidential nomination in 1952 but lost the primary because of his commitment to Jim Crow. On behalf of himself and other white Southern senators Russell offered a public repudiation to President Lyndon Johnson’s 1964 State of the Union Address which Russell opposed because, among other things, it stated a commitment to the Civil Rights Bill as well as a commitment to eradicating racism from American immigration policy. Russell’s opposition to the 1964 Civil Rights Bill led him to boycott the Democratic National Convention that year.

Russell was also an isolationist and nationalist, disagreeing with the U.S.’s decision to join the United Nations and opposing the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. He also opposed most foreign aid, stating that it prevented the U.S. from building a strong military to protect itself. He did not support American involvement in Vietnam.


**Works Cited:**
Who Was Russell?
The University of Georgia’s Russell Hall was named for Richard Brevard Russell, Jr. (1897-1971), U.S. Senator (1933-71), Governor of Georgia (1930-31), and a co-author of the racist “Southern Manifesto.”

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
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Russell used his legal background and his status in the U.S. Senate as a basis to oppose civil rights and preserve white supremacy. In particular, he was one of the leading writers and voices for the “Southern Manifesto,” a public declaration by white Southern Democrats to oppose the landmark Supreme Court Brown v. Board ruling by every legal means. His connection to the “Southern Manifesto” was part of a larger personal history in which he used his political power to preserve the status quo and deny equality to Africans Americans.

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Works Cited:
Who Was Simon?
Georgia Museum of Agriculture and Historic Village at Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College’s Simon’s Cabin is named for Simon Royal (1806-1882), an enslaver and the builder of the cabin (c. 1845).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Simon Royal demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Simon Royal enslaved at least two African Americans during his lifetime. The 1860 census includes the enslaved people in his household, but there is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier in his life.

More Biographic Details
Royal was born in North Carolina on May 6, 1806. He lived in Dooly and Crisp Counties. He built the cabin, which was moved to its current location, in Crisp County around 1845. He married Rachael Varnadore, with whom he had several children. After her death, he married Annie Musselwhite on April 12, 1849. In 1860, Royal enslaved a 9-year-old boy and a 30-year-old woman.

Royal died on November 24, 1882.

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Ancestry.com
Who Was Stafford?
Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College’s Stafford School of Business was named for DeNean Stafford, Jr. (1914-2001), a local businessman.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a leader in the States’ Rights Council of Georgia Stafford actively worked to deny the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Stafford resisted racial integration as a public official and civil leader. Although later in life he stated that integration was inevitable and he insisted that his earlier efforts were to make the transition to an integrated society a peaceful one, his actions at the time demonstrate a commitment to segregation in line with many other white Georgians. He joined and became an officer of the States’ Rights Council of Georgia, lending his reputation to an organization that attracted thousands to the cause of resisting federal demands for integration. His name appeared on letterhead and brochures that demonized the NAACP, he helped with fundraisers for the organization, and he otherwise attempted to help white Georgians maintain racial segregated.

More Biographic Details
Stafford was born in Seneca, MO on August 23, 1914 to Delphine Porter and DeNean Stafford, a banker. He served with the Army Air Corps during World War II as a supply officer. He married Flora “Boo” Christian in 1947 and had three children.

Stafford earned a business degree from the University of Georgia where he served as student body president during his senior year. His roommate was future Georgia governor and U.S. Senator Herman Talmadge. They remained friends throughout their lives. Stafford worked as a manager at Trust Company Bank in Savannah, GA before he served in World War II. After the war, he opened Stafford-Johnson Motors, a Case Tractor and Studebaker Automobile dealership in Tifton (1948) and a John Deere dealership soon after that. He began buying land in 1951 and built his first Holiday Inn in 1964. He continued buying properties and businesses; he owned Wendy’s restaurants, Piggly Wiggly stores, Ramada hotels, and Holiday Inns throughout Georgia.

In the 1950s, Stafford served as a vice president of the States’ Rights Council of Georgia, Inc. which set out to “fight to maintain segregation.” The States’ Rights Council did not shy away from its ambitions to limit the freedoms of African Americans. In its public statements, the organization declared that was devoted to “the maintenance of harmonious race relations in the state through the preservation of the traditional establishment of segregation in both public and private places.” In its communication with prospective members, the organization warned that integrationists would “force race mixing.” Its meetings were open to the public, and its membership rolls contained prominent politicians from across the state. Stafford also served in the State Assembly in the late 1950s.

The Tifton Chamber of Commerce added him to the Tipton Wall of Fame (1996) and the University of Georgia’s Terry College of Business honored him with a Distinguished Alumnus
Award (1996). The Staffords created a foundation to support Abraham Baldwin College and other community organization in 1996.

Stafford died on March 26, 2001.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com

September 25, 1955.
Who Was Clyatt?
Georgia Museum of Agriculture and Historic Village at Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College’s Sumner Clyatt Cabin was named for James Clyatt Sumner (1825-1898), a farmer, enslaver, and Confederate veteran.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver Sumner denied civil rights to African Americans and as a Confederate soldier, Sumner demonstrated his commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Sumner’s enslavement of an African American boy as well as his enlistment in the Confederate army demonstrate his commitment denying humanity to African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Sumner was born on April 20, 1825 to Serina Lavina Yates and Jesse Charles Sumner. He married Mary E. Branch on February 24, 1850. They had several children. In 1850 Sumner also built this cabin in northwest Tift County between the town of Chula and the Whiddon Grist Mill. One of the Sumners’ daughters, Mary Elizabeth married Ben Cravey, the owner and builder of the Cravey House at the Georgia Museum of Agriculture and Historic Village. In 1860, the Sumners enslaved one 10 year old boy. Sumner enlisted in the Georgia Infantry early in the Civil War and mustered in on June 25, 1861 to fight for the Confederacy.

Sumner died on July 25, 1898.

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Ancestry.com
Who Was Talmadge?
Augusta University’s Talmadge Hall was named for Eugene Talmadge (1884-1946), a three-term governor of Georgia (1933-37 and 1941-43) and avowed white supremacist who adamantly supported segregation in all aspects of life.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As governor, Talmadge used his power to deny humanity to African Americans. He used his elected position to promote and enforce racial segregation in the state and in the university system.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As governor, Talmadge used his power to promote and enforce racial segregation in the state and in the university system. In doing so, he demonstrated a life-long opposition to respecting the basic humanity and equality of African Americans.

Throughout his political career as well as in his private affairs, Talmadge positioned himself as Georgia’s most avowed defender of segregation. In each election, he decried his pro-segregationist opponents as being too soft on the issue. He pursued policies and rhetoric that declared that he was the best candidate to protect the interests of white men. Talmadge admitted to attending Klan functions (banquets and other public affairs) and the Klan honored him at his funeral. More ominously, the FBI concluded that he may have sanctioned the lynching of a black man in order to attract votes in a tight election near the end of his career.

Other details of his life point to his general inhumanity to others. In 1936, for example, he praised Hitler’s Mein Kampf and stated that he read many times. His admiration for Adolf Hitler partially explains his opposition to the US involvement in World War II, and scholars often conclude that his pro-Hitler sentiments led him to his predilection to impose martial law during his career.

More Biographic Details
Talmadge was born September 23, 1884 in Fosyth, GA to Carrie Roberts and Thomas Talmadge. He was educated at the University of Georgia where he ultimately earned a law degree. He married Mattie Thurmond Peterson, a widow, and they had three children together.

After a short stint as a lawyer, Talmadge entered local politics. After losing a couple of elections for state legislature, he won a position as agriculture commission. He served three terms (1926-1932). His tenure as Commissioner of Agriculture was marked by corruption and connections to the Klan. His opponents struggled to keep him accountable. The Georgia legislature discussed impeaching him, and it tried to sue Talmadge in order to recover funds that he admitted to using illegally to pay himself and family members. The attorney general, though, refused to press charges.

Talmadge translated his popularity with farmers with a successful bid for the governorship in 1932, the first of four successful elections to the position. He appealed to the conservative rural Democratic base by promoting racial segregation, white supremacy, and limited government.

As governor, Talmadge opposed many New Deal policies of his party, especially those that supporter worker rights over management. He opposed raising the wages of agricultural workers
and used the National Guard to end a textile strike in 1934. He also unilaterally removed elected and appointed officials who opposed his policies. Many of these decisions were done to eliminate political opponents that stood in Talmadge’s way. In 1934, as he plotted his own run for the presidency, Talmadge replaced a Roosevelt partisan with his own appointee as chair of the Georgia Democratic Party. He even used an executive order to lower the price of automobile registrations in order to fulfil one of his campaign promises.

Talmadge briefly flirted with a political partnership with the populist Huey Long. Policy differences, as well as both politicians insisting on being the presidential candidate and the other service as vice president, brought the alliance to an end. Talmadge ran a failed attempt for the Democratic nomination that promoted state’s rights, anti-immigration policies, and diplomatic isolationism. After his second term as governor, the legal limit for consecutive terms, Tallmadge ran twice for the U.S. Senate but lost overwhelmingly in 1936 and then again in 1938.

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Talmadge returned to the governor’s seat in 1940 as the voice of the aggrieved white South. In particular, he sought to oppose and repel any real or imagined attempts at desegregation. This pursuit came to a crisis when a University of Georgia dean (Walter Cocking) hinted at the desegregation of a classroom at the university. The Cocking Affair resulted in a dispute with the board of regents who refused to dismiss Cocking and others, the forced restructuring of the board, and ultimately the firing of Cocking and another faculty member accused of opposing segregation. The actions led the Georgia state university system to lose accreditation with the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Talmadge defended his actions by stating that maintaining segregation was more important than having educational standards at the universities. He was explicit in his public words, repeatedly making public statements including, “We in the South love the Negro in his place—but his place is at the back door.” Talmadge, in large part because of the Cocking Affair, lost the 1942 election.

After he left office, Talmadge remained a critic of Roosevelt. He opposed the nation’s involvement in the war and opposed advances made by African Americans during and because of the war. Talmadge asserted that Roosevelt entered the war in order to pursue domestic reforms that undermined white supremacy.

In 1946, Talmadge ran for governor. Once again, he positioned himself as the strongest voice for segregation. He spent most of the campaign trying to revive the closed primary as a means of denying the vote to African Americans, but his racist rhetoric went far beyond the franchise. As he campaigned, he bragged about flogging Black sharecroppers earlier in his life and about his use of violence to maintain racial segregation. He also defended his attendance at Klan functions. Behind the scenes, Talmadge may have even participated in the 1946 lynching of Roger Malcom, a Black man accused of the stabbing of a white man. If the allegations uncovered by the FBI’s investigation are true, Talmadge aided in the murder in order to curry favor with voters.

Talmage won the election but died that December before taking office. The wreath on his coffin read “KKKK” in honor of the Knights of the Ku Klux Klan.

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TERRELL HALL (1904) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was William Terrell?
The University of Georgia’s Terrell Hall was named for William Terrell (1786-1855), a politician, enslaver, and trustee of the University of Georgia.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of more than 200 African Americans, Terrell acted upon his belief in white supremacy and otherwise dehumanized African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Terrell enslaved more than 300 African Americans during his lifetime and worked to protect the system of slavery that benefited him. He opposed legal efforts to allow owners to emancipate their property.

More Biographic Details
Terrell was born in 1786 Virginia to Joel Terrell and an unknown mother who died when he was very young. His father moved their extended family to Wilkes County, GA when Terrell was still a baby. His father owned two plantations of 500 acres each in Georgia when he died in 1790, leaving Terrell under his uncle Peter Terrell’s guardianship. Terrell married W. Eliza Rhodes in 1818, and they had two children.

In 1802, Terrell received lands through the Georgia lottery and moved to Hancock County. He may have graduated from the Medical College of Philadelphia (now University of Pennsylvania) and was widely referred to as Doctor Terrell.

Terrell had a long career in politics. He served on the Inferior Court (1808-1810) and in the Georgia House of Representatives (1810-1813). In this official role, Terrell worked against efforts of some white Georgians to manumit or free their slaves. As some enslavers grappled with the rhetoric of universal notions of liberty, Terrell pushed back by vetoing laws or rejecting petitions designed to allow private citizens to take these acts. In 1817, Terrell became a member of the U.S. Congress. He protected the interests of enslavers, and white Georgians more generally, and voted for these interests within the Missouri Compromise (1820). In 1826, the governor named him to the state Board of Public Works. During Terrell’s time in the state senate (1840s), he served on the committee on public works and the committee for the lunatic asylum. He supported efforts for a statistical study of Georgia and urged the state to complete the Western and Atlantic Railroad. He also worked to strengthen women’s property rights.

He also served as the first president of the Hancock Planters Club (1837), which held annual agricultural fairs to demonstrate new planting, cultivating, and harvesting techniques. Terrell owned two plantations, one in Hancock County and one in Washington County. In 1852, he owned 326 enslaved African Americans between his two plantations. His commitment to enslavement never wavered. He explained that “We mean at present to keep them in a state of servitude, and to provide for their wants. Whenever the time comes that their labor is not needed, or may be superseded by other labor, He who permitted their introduction among us will provide for their removal, and use the ways and means best suited to His great purpose.”
Terrell served as a trustee of the University of Georgia (1824-28) and in 1854 offered the university $20,000 to establish a professorship of agriculture. That year he also resigned from the Southern Central Agricultural Society, citing his declining health. His resignation letter included a strong defense of slavery, using a common trope among white southerners that claimed that enslaved African Americans had a better life and better working conditions than white industrial laborers in Europe and the northern U.S.

Terrell died on July 4, 1855.

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Ancestry.com
Who Was Tucker?
The University of Georgia’s Tucker Hall was named for Henry Holcombe Tucker (1819-1889), a minister, lawyer, and the chancellor of the University of Georgia (1874-78).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Tucker demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally. In addition, his service in the Confederate army helped support a commitment to the continued enslavement of African Americans in the south. In public speeches after the Civil War, he continued to justify the enslavement of African Americans and did not “repent” for his role in enslavement.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Tucker enlisted in the Confederate army in 1861 to fight for the continuation of enslavement in the south. Four years of war and the emancipation of enslaved people by federal law did little to change his attitudes. By his own admission Tucker enslaved African Americans during his lifetime, although there is no record of what kind of labor they performed. He delivered a sermon to the Georgia Legislature, “God in War,” that blamed the United States for the Civil War “We had no hand in bringing it on. We asked for nothing but our rights….They tormented us without cause…. What we cherish as a heaven-ordained institution they denounce as the ‘sum of all villainies.” Long after the war (1888) he publicly proclaimed himself “a slaveholder from birth until the happy demise of the institution” who was “wholly unrepentant of the share I had in it, and feel that I have nothing to repent of.”

More Biographic Details
Tucker was born in Camak, GA on May 10, 1819 to Frances Henrietta Holcombe Hoff and Germain Tucker. He married Sarah Osgood Stevens. They had two children.

Tucker earned a B.A. from Columbian College (now George Washington University) in 1838. He also earned a D.D. and an L.L.D. He enslaved African Americans, although there is no record of how many or of what type of labor they performed.

At the beginning of the Civil War, Tucker delivered an impassioned speech to the Georgia legislature that blamed the United States for causing the war: “We had no hand in bringing it on. We asked for nothing but our rights. Our desire was for peace. They tormented us without cause while we were with them. What we cherish as a heaven-ordained institution they denounce as the ‘sum of all villainies.”’ He further denounced Lincoln and the U.S. because he claimed they “degraded us from all equality…spurned us from all fellowship…taught their children to hate us.” He also blamed the United States for the violence leading up to the war and for arming abolitionists by “putting weapons of death in the hands of their agents with instructions to murder us.” In this sermon Tucker worked to enflame Confederate loyalty by using common tropes of the rape of white women by Black men. He claimed that Northern actions were “dooming us to death and our wives and daughters to worse than death” and that the U.S. wanted “to filch away our substance, and reduce us to a bondage more degrading than that which they affect to pity in the negro.”
After the Civil War Tucker served as the president of Mercer College (1866-71). When he became the Chancellor of the University of Georgia in 1874, he was the first person born in Georgia to lead the school. Tucker was a proponent of free public higher education in Georgia. As chancellor he worked to keep denominational colleges from siphoning resources from the University. He also wanted to return the curriculum to a class liberal arts curriculum. His tenure as president was short as a result of disagreements between Tucker and the university trustees about curriculum and student discipline. They dismissed him in 1878.

In a post-war letter to the First African Baptist Church in Savannah, Tucker continued to blame the United States for starting the war, rewriting history by asserting that “Not a solitary … Southern man; nor was there a single dollar of Southern Capital engaged in the enterprise [of slavery].” He claimed that the North “foisted slavery upon us” and, therefore, southern slaveholders bore no share of the blame for the enslavement of African Americans: “I always believe that the slaveholder, who inherited this condition was as innocent of wrong as the slave, who also inherited it. I am still of that opinion; and though a slaveholder from birth until the happy demise of the institution, I am wholly unrepentant of the share I had in it, and feel that I have nothing to repent of.”

Tucker died on September 9, 1889.

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Who Was Vinson?
The University of Georgia’s Vinson Hall was named for Carl Vinson (1883-1981), a legislator who served in the Georgia General Assembly (1908-12) and in the U.S. House of Representatives (1914-65).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his political opposition to racial integration, Vinson worked to deny the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Vinson denied the humanity of African Americans throughout his career. For most of his career, his support of racial segregation was shared by the entire Democratic Party in the one-party South. Even within this context, Vinson distinguished himself with his defense of racial segregation. Although he did not face much opposition in a lifetime of elections, his behavior in his contested elections revealed a commitment to Jim Crow racial segregation. In these elections, he positioned himself as the candidate most opposed to integration and described his opponent as being weak on the issue. This attitude was most apparent in the 1920 election to the House of Representatives. It later became clear in his opposition to federal demands to integrate after Brown vs. Board (1954), in his signing of the “Southern Manifesto” (a public declaration by white Southern Democrats to oppose the landmark Supreme Court Brown v. Board ruling by every legal means), and in his repeated efforts to prevent or slow down the integration of the armed forces.

More Biographic Details
Vinson was born on November 18, 1883 in Baldwin County, GA to Annie Adela Morris and Edward Storey Vinson. He went to college at Middle Georgia Military and Agricultural College and earned a law degree from Mercer University (1902). He married Mary Green in 1921. They had no children.

Before his career as a politician, Vinson had a short stint as an attorney in Milledgeville, GA. He then became county court solicitor and then sat in the Georgia General Assembly. In 1912, he re-ran for the post and lost his only political election. Almost immediately afterwards, he was appointed judge of the Baldwin County Court.

In 1914, he won a seat in the U.S. House of Representatives, a seat that he would hold for 25 consecutive terms. For most of his fifty years in Congress, Vinson faced little opposition in his reelection campaigns. The most significant exception was in 1918, when he faced and defeated Thomas Watson. During Vinson’s time in Congress, he became most known for his work in shaping the U.S. military. He chaired the House Naval Affairs Committee and later the House Armed Services Committee for a total of thirty years. In these posts, he spearheaded the efforts to make the U.S. Navy a “two-ocean navy.” This foresight became especially important with the United States’ entrance into World War II.

Throughout his career, Vinson was a committed segregationist. In the 1920 election, for example, he exploited what he saw was a weakness in the campaign of his rival—the federal financial support of public schools. Vinson argued that racial integration would be mandated with federal aid. His
argument was so disingenuous that his own hometown newspaper disavowed the claim and warned them not to trust a politician like Vinson who used “prejudice instead of reason.” Vinson’s strategy, however, worked, so throughout his career he continued to appeal to the racism of white Georgian voters.

After the 1954 Brown v Board ruling, he campaigned on a promise to limit the power of the U.S. Supreme Court and otherwise invalidate the ruling. In signing the “Southern Manifesto” (1956) he joined other white politicians to vehemently defend Jim Crow (legal race-based segregation) as they argued against Brown v. Board. They asserted that the ruling had no basis in American legal precedent; they criticized the Supreme Court justices as partisan, incapable, biased, and dishonest; and they claimed that the Brown decision would destroy race relations in the south. Similarly, Vinson opposed the Civil Rights Act of 1963 and the Voting Rights Act of 1964. Vinson was quick to defend the cause and defend his record in favor of segregation. He introduced very little legislation on the issue and rarely spoke on the Congressional floor on the topic.

Vinson’s most notable segregationist sentiments related to his work with the military—the centerpiece of his Congressional Career. He opposed legislation designed to ensure the integration of the military—including opposition to an amendment that limited funding to segregated National Guard and Reserve units (1955). He opposed the promotions of African American officers, objected to the forced desegregation of the military and military bases, and at the end of his political career objected to the findings of the President’s Committee on Equal Opportunity in the Armed Forces (1963). In each case, Vinson declared that integrating the military would weaken American defenses, and he often stated that integration was the federal government’s attempt “to impose a new social order throughout the United States through the use of our armed forces.”

In 1964, Vinson decided not to seek re-election and received the Presidential Medal of Freedom. The following year, he left Congress and returned home to Milledgeville. He died on June 1, 1981.

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WATSON-BROWN PAVILION (2002) University of Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Were Watson and Brown?
The University of Georgia’s Watson-Brown Pavilion was named for Thomas Edward Watson (1856-1922) and John Judson Brown (1865-1953). Watson was a U.S. Senator, lawyer, and politician who dominated Georgia politics for a couple of decades and was the Populist Party candidate for U.S. President. Brown was a political ally of Watson, the Georgia Commissioner of Agriculture, and vice president of Watson’s publishing house.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Watson’s political ambitions and writings both displayed an increasing hostility toward non-white Americans. Brown shared Watson’s beliefs about the inherent inferiority of African Americans and helped Watson publicize his anti-Catholic and anti-Semitic beliefs.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Both Watson and Brown vocalized their hostility toward African Americans. They acted upon their racist beliefs through their actions and they spread them through their writings. Watson’s attitudes and actions regarding race evolved during his lifetime. Whereas early in his career he advocated for a class-based and biracial coalition of workers, by the end of his career he advocated for segregation, and gave voice to virulently racist, nativist, and anti-Semitic ideas. As a populist, Watson began his political career in support of protecting African American voters. By 1908, however, he ran for President as a self-identified white supremacist and anti-Catholic. In 1914, following the politicization of the Leo Frank case, he began espousing rabidly anti-Semitic views as well. As Watson’s publisher, Brown shared and helped spread Watson’s racist, Nativist, and anti-Semitic ideas.

More Biographic Details
Watson was born in Thomson, GA on September 5, 1856 to Ann Eliza Maddox and John S. Watson. He married Georgia Durham. He attended Mercer University, but left the university before graduating. He briefly worked as a teacher before becoming a lawyer (1875).

Watson’s life defies easy description. He was elected to the Georgia House of Representatives (1882) only to resign due to his frustration at seeing the interests of small farmers being compromised due to political corruption. He was elected through the support of the Farmers’ Alliance to the U.S. House of Representatives and served one term (1890-1892). His experience disillusioned him with the Democratic Party and he formed the Georgia Populist Party (1892) also known as the People’s Party. The party advocated various policies designed to help small farmers in what Watson believed was a political system stacked against them. He served as editor of Atlanta’s People’s Party Paper, and he used the public platform to advocate for the interests of white farmers. In 1896, Watson was almost named the vice-presidential candidate of the Democratic Party (under candidate William Jennings Bryan), as part of an attempt to fuse the Populists with the Democrats. The Democrats chose differently, further pushing Watson and the Populists away. The Populist ticket, with Watson as the vice president, finished in a distant third place.

By 1900, Watson had stopped advocating for a biracial movement. Whereas he had earlier condemned lynching and pointing to the common plights of all poor farmers, after 1900 he increasingly declared that African Americans were the pawns of the Democratic Party. In 1904 and
again in 1908 Watson earned the nomination for U.S. president from the Populist Party. He lost both elections. He published several books through his Jeffersonian Publishing House as well as editorials in various newspapers. His writing increasingly demonstrated his disillusionment with the potential for a Black-white class-based political alliance. In 1913, Watson used his newspaper to enflame anti-Semitic passions during the Leo Frank trial that ultimately resulted in the kidnapping and lynching of Frank. In 1920, after a failed run for U.S. Senate in 1918, Watson rejoined the Democratic Party and won a Senate seat in 1920 as an avowed segregationist. Watson died while in office on September 26, 1922.

Brown was born in Vanna, GA on December 17, 1865 to Susan Campbell and Ira Brown, a teacher. He married Captora Ginn. When he was twenty, Brown moved to Bowman, GA where he ran a general store. In 1910, he was elected mayor of the town. Like Watson, he was pushed toward politics by his frustrations with how the political system alienated small farmers. Their shared frustrations also created a personal friendship and political alliance between them. In 1912 and 1914, and with the endorsement and campaign assistance of Watson, Brown ran two unsuccessful bids for the position of state commissioner of agriculture. Despite his losses, Brown increasingly became recognized as the voice of rural white farmers (as opposed to large landowners and those in the cities). In 1914, he was elected President of Georgia Farmer’s Union. In 1916, he finally won his election for Georgia’s Commissioner of Agriculture—a position that he tried to use to aid white farmers. Brown held the position until 1926, when he lost the election to Eugene Talmadge. Brown returned to his life as a farmer and mounted a series of unsuccessful runs to regain the office in the years that followed.

Brown also served as vice president of Jeffersonian Publishing Company, the printing house that Watson created. Watson and Brown used the printing house to promote their political futures, and spread information to help small farmers, especially in its Market Bulletin, a publication that lasted many decades. The printing house published many of Watson diatribes against forces such as Jews, Catholics, immigrants, African Americans, urban dwellers, and bankers, that he claimed aligned against the poor white farmer. Even the biographies he wrote tended to use the past to make explicit commentaries about the ways in which poor whites are oppressed in the present.

Brown died on December 6, 1953.

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Who Was Whitehall?
The University of Georgia’s Whitehall EQ SHLTR was named for Whitehall Forest named for John White (1798-1881), the owner of the mill around which the town of Whitehall formed (1891).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, White demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
White enslaved African Americans to do the labor in his cotton mill.

More Biographic Details
White was born in County Antrim, Ireland on August 12, 1798 to Elizabeth More and Robert White, Sr. He and his wife, Janet Rosina Richards had four children.

In 1836, White took over the Georgia Manufacturing Company, a cotton mill. The next year, he purchased another mill on the North Oconee River, around which the small town of Whitehall later formed (1891). White used enslaved labor in his businesses, and most likely at this mill in particular. The 1860 census lists twenty-four enslaved people as the property of John White at the “Georgia Factory.” White’s businesses included the Whitehall Yarn Mills, the Athens Foundry and Machine Works, the Athens Compress Company, and the National Bank of Athens.

White died in Athens, GA on April 28, 1881.

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Who Was Whitehall?
The University of Georgia’s Whitehall Headquarters were named for Whitehall Forest named for John White (1798-1881), the owner of the mill around which the town of Whitehall formed (1891).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
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Who Was Whitehall?
The University of Georgia’s Whitehall OFF Complex was named for Whitehall Forest named for John White (1798-1881), the owner of the mill around which the town of Whitehall formed (1891).

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Works Cited:
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Who Was Whitehall?
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White died in Athens, GA on April 28, 1881.

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Who Was Wilson?
Kennesaw State University’s Wilson Annex was named for Joe Mack Wilson (1919-1993), a state legislator (1961-88) and mayor of Marietta, GA (1990-93).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson expressed sentiments and pursued policies designed to maintain de facto segregation in suburban Atlanta. In doing so, he displayed a disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wilson’s actions toward African Americans reveal him as a politician committed to limiting the progress of African Americans in Georgia and otherwise protecting the interests of white families who had fled Atlanta for the suburbs.

Through his opposition to mass transit for his constituents, Wilson made it clear that he did so to maintain segregation. “They love that [Chattahoochee] River,” he said of his white constituents. “They want to keep it as a moat. They wish they could build forts across there to keep people from coming up here.” Wilson did his best to fulfill their wishes to maintain segregation. He helped create a 10-foot-wide city called Chattahoochee Plantation in order to use a legal technicality to ensure that Marietta would not be annexed by Atlanta. More explicitly, he fought against attempts to reapportion districts after the 1980 census. In particular, he opposed an attempt to create a district that reflected the racial makeup of Atlanta. His rationale: “I don’t want to draw ni**er districts.” Wilson also earned a reputation for opposing any legislation that was presumed to help African Americans, legislation he was known to deride as “ni**er legislation.” Although he denied the charge, the District Court for the District of Columbia concluded “he is a racist.”

More Biographic Details
Wilson was born in Marietta, GA on December 11, 1919 to Annie Ruth McKelvey and Joe D. Wilson, a jeweler. He and his wife, Mary, had four children. After her death he married Jackie Bettis.

Wilson served in the U.S. Navy during World War II. He then followed in his father’s footsteps and owned and ran a jewelry store for more than a decade. In 1961, he started a second career as a long-serving member of the Georgia House of Representatives (1961-88). Among other things, he chaired the Ways and Means Committee. He was a consistent voice for his largely white suburban constituents, opposing mass transportation connections between Marietta and Atlanta and hindering efforts to redistrict Georgia in a manner that would encourage the legislature to look more like the state. He was also instrumental in developing Kennesaw Junior College (now Kennesaw State University) into a four-year degree granting institution. He followed up his legislative career by winning the election for mayor of Marietta, Georgia (1990-93). Although he wavered on the issue of extending a commuter line to Marietta, in the end he concluded that the risks of importing crime outweighed the benefits it could provide commuters.

Wilson received many accolades for his public service. His awards include the Cobb County Citizen of the Year award, the Georgia Municipal Association’s Public Service Award, the Georgia Vocational Rehabilitation award, the Georgia Mental Health Association’s Most Effective Legislator of the Year award, and the Cobb County Bar Association’s Liberty Bell award.
He died in office on May 17, 1993.

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Who Was Woodall?
Columbus State University’s Woodall Hall was named for William Clyde Woodall (1878-1971), a local journalist and historian who helped found Columbus College (now Columbus State University).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his public writings, Woodall demonstrated a hostility to integration and disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Woodall’s writing career alternated between covering the commercial trends in the South and offering folksy histories and stories of local interest. His writings on the latter do more than describe the segregated South and its racial inequality. Throughout his writings, he describes both enslavement and racial inequality in the post-emancipation South in ways that justify white rule and mock and disparage the predicaments of African Americans. In at least a few instances, he wrote letters to the editor and newspaper columns that touched directly on issues related to integration and civil rights. When he did so, he questioned the motives of those who demanded equality and deemed them to be “agitators.” Finally, as a member of the Columbus school board, he ignored demands from the African American community improve conditions in Black schools, and their later demands to integrate schools and otherwise follow the Brown v. Board ruling.

More Biographic Details
Woodall was born in Talbot County, GA on October 18, 1878 to Emma Lucy Johnston and William Hardy Woodall, the principal of the Tenth Street School in Columbus and a president of the Georgia State Teachers’ Association. The family moved to Columbus when he was ten years old.

Woodall married Virginia Ethel McGhee (1899) and had several children together before she passed away. After her death, Woodall converted their home (in which Virginia had grown up) into a home for the aged. Woodall later married Julia Powell West.

Woodall began his newspaper career in 1893 with the Columbus Ledger. He remained in the industry for more than seven decades. He obtained notoriety and financial success with his Industrial Index, a periodical he started with his brother. It initially began by covering business news in Georgia and Alabama, and it expanded to cover the entire South. He published it from in 1906 to 1966.

Throughout his life, Woodall also wrote about local history and topics of interest. He contributed columns and other writings on these entertaining topics to local newspapers, and for a while had a regular Sunday column in the Atlanta Constitution. He also published several books on local history and events, including a book of his columns entitled Home Town. His writings tended not to discuss public policy, but they reflected the racial bias of the white South. As a result, his writings used terms like “negro wench” to describe Black women and he used similarly disparaging terms for African Americans and others. Many of his stories mocked the Black community and found humor in depravity and inequality.
Woodall made his opposition to integration and support for white supremacy known in other ways. When Black residents in Columbia entered white churches for “kneel ins” Woodall lambasted their motives as impure. In a letter to the *Atlanta Constitution*, he called the acts “planned invasions” and “part of a deliberate campaign” that were not “for the purpose of worshiping God.” The churchgoers were, in his words, “in no sense just casually going to church.”

As a civic leader, Woodall served on Muscogee County’s board of education (1940-57), and in this role helped create of Columbus College. His term on the board of education coincided with the Supreme Court’s *Brown v Board* ruling, a ruling that was ignored in Georgia and Columbus for several years. African Americans in Columbus protested directly to local officials and the school board on which Woodall served, but Columbus schools remained segregated throughout his term. Throughout his term on the board, segregated schools provided remarkably unequal educations for white and Black students. In dollar terms, white teachers earned almost twice as much as black teachers and funding per student had a similar disparity. Class sizes were also fifty percent larger at the Black schools.

Woodall died on February 18, 1971.

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Who Were Wray and Nicholson?
The University of Georgia’s Wray-Nicholson House was named for two owners of the house, enslaver and cotton planter Thomas Jefferson Wray, Sr. (1805-1860) and John William Nicholson (1824-1886) a local merchant.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wray enslaved at least 81 African Americans during his lifetime. The 1830 and 1850 census both include the enslaved people in his Athens household and on his Greene County cotton plantation. It seems likely that he enslaved a fluctuating number of African Americans throughout his life.

According to the 1860 census, Nicholson was also an enslaver. The 1860 census lists 3 enslaved African Americans in his Athens household.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Wray used enslaved labor in his Athens house (now the Wray-Nicholson House) as well as at his large cotton plantation in Greene County, GA. The use of enslaved people to work in both his domestic and agricultural domains demonstrated a commitment to the institution and the inhumane treatment of African Americans.

Nicholson also used enslaved labor in his Athens home similarly demonstrating his belief in white supremacy and his inhumane treatment of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Wray was born in Georgia in 1805. He married Theodosia Cardwell in the fall of 1831. They had several children. Wray, a cotton planter, cotton merchant, and slaveholder, purchased the Athens house in 1845. He also simultaneously owned a cotton plantation in Greene County, GA. In the 1830 census, Wray had 36 enslaved people in his Athens household and 36 at his cotton plantation in Greene County. In the 1850 census, he had 9 enslaved people in the Athens household and 75 enslaved African Americans at his plantation. The numbers of enslaved people in his household and at his plantation varied over the years, but he appears to have continually enslaved people throughout his life. Wray died in April 1860.

Nicholson was born in Georgia in 1824 to Martha Madison and James Nicholson. On November 18, 1852, Nicholson married Martha Matilda Gartrell, the sister-in-law of his future business partner. The Nicholsons had several children. They purchased the house in 1867.

Nicholson worked as an agricultural laborer and in a carriage-building shop in Oglethorpe County. After he moved to Athens in 1843, he began working as a post office clerk. By December 1849 he was a clerk in William S. Grady’s store. He lived in the Grady household, which included Grady’s infant son future newspaperman Henry W. Gray, in 1850. By 1852, the two men were partners in the business. Nicholson also purchased ten shares of the High Shoals Factory (1857), the local paper mill, and an interest in Grady’s gas works. In 1860 Nicholson enslaved three African Americans in his Athens household. He may have served in the 24th Regiment of the Georgia Militia to fight for the Confederacy during the Civil War. Nicholson died on April 30, 1886.
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Buildings and Colleges Recommended to Keep with Context
Who Was Caldwell?
The University of Georgia’s Caldwell Hall was named for Harmon White Caldwell (1899-1977), a law professor (1929-33), dean of the School of Law (1933-35), and president (1935-48) of the University of Georgia. He also served as Chancellor of the University System of Georgia (1948-64).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Caldwell showed a disregard for the humanity of African Americans by justifying and supporting racial segregation.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
On repeated occasions in his life, Caldwell justified the segregationist norms that he maintained as a university administrator. Caldwell served as president of the University of Georgia and Chancellor of the University System of Georgia when legal ruling and social activists demanded racial integration. Throughout his career, Caldwell maintained the color line. Although he largely implemented policies of segregationist leaders in Georgia, he did not do so unwillingly. Instead, in his words, he declared that “we do wish, in our institutions, and so far as possible, to preserve the segregation of the races.”

More Biographic Details
Caldwell was born in Meriwether County, GA to Lillie D. Reynolds and Lucius Alexander Caldwell. He and his wife, Mary Gwendolyn Burton, had two children.

Caldwell served in the U.S. military during World War I. He earned an A.B. from the University of Georgia (1919) and LL.B. from Harvard University (1924). He taught in Georgia public schools for the two years before he went to law school. After law school, he became an assistant professor of law at Emory University (1924-26). He was admitted to the Georgia bar in 1926.

Caldwell became a professor of law (1929) and dean (1933) at the University of Georgia School of Law in 1929. He became the president of the University of Georgia in 1935. As president he oversaw the creation of the University of Georgia Press (1939), created the first Statues of the University, reorganized the Graduate School (1937), and expanded the campus with new buildings and acreage. In 1937 he also convinced the Board of Regents to purchase the DeRenne Library of Georgianna, the foundation of the university’s Hargrett Library Special Collections. During World War II, the university was home a Navy Preflight School. Under Caldwell’s administration student enrollments increased, in part due to the post-World War II influx of students.

Caldwell also presided over the university during the Cocking Affair (1941), part of Governor Eugene Talmadge’s effort to purge the Georgia universities of any real or imagined integrationist sentiments. The controversy largely focused on Walter Cocking, a dean of education at the University of Georgia, who Talmadge charged with attempting to integrate the university. This accusation misrepresented Cocking’s public views—he had advocated for improving the curriculum, infrastructure, and budgets of Georgia’s Black colleges. The Board of Regents supported Cocking’s proposed reforms and refused to fire Cocking when Talmadge requested it at the outset of the controversy. The Cocking Affair resulted in a dispute with the board of regents who refused to dismiss Cocking and others, the forced restructuring of the board, and ultimately the firing of Cocking and another faculty member accused of opposing segregation. The actions led the Georgia
state university system to lose accreditation with the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. During this affair, Caldwell struck a middle ground. Rather than defend racial integration, he threatened to resign if he could not convince the regents to allow Cocking to testify in order to clear his name. In doing so, he fought against the segregationist Tallmadge but not against segregation itself. He made this clear: “Neither I nor any of the eight Regents voting to reelect Dr. Cocking at the hearing on Monday believes in social equality for Negroes and whites. All of us are strongly of the opinion that the policy of segregation of the races must be maintained and that whites and Negroes must be taught in separate schools. We adhere as firmly as anyone to the traditions of our Southland.” Caldwell later served as Chancellor of the University System of Georgia from 1948 until his retirement in 1964.

Emory University (1935), Mercer University (1935), and Tulane University (1938) each awarded Caldwell an honorary LL.D. Caldwell served as a trustee of the Berry Schools and Calloway Gardens. He was a member of the Kiwanis Club and the Masons.

Caldwell died in Atlanta, GA on April 15, 1977.

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COBB HALL (1964) University of West Georgia
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Cobb?
The University of West Georgia’s Cobb Hall was named for Betty Leigh Reynolds Cobb (1884-1956), the first woman to pass the Georgia bar exam and a women’s rights activist.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Cobb’s actions and beliefs toward humanity are mixed. Her work as an advocate for women’s rights advanced the status of white women in Georgia and throughout the country. Her efforts, though, were structured by racist beliefs that excluded African American women from the reforms. Her racist attitudes toward and a disregard for the humanity of African Americans are revealed in her published collection of stories.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Cobb’s legal career was pathbreaking for white women in Georgia. As the first woman to pass the Georgia bar exam she opened doors for other similarly minded white women. Her attitudes about the humanity of African Americans, however, does not show the same progressive mindedness. She worked closely with the Democratic Party of Georgia, an institution committed to upholding Jim Crow segregation, and her advocacy excluded African American women. The exclusion of African Americans from her reforms was not a result of her political expediency. It reflected her personal beliefs. Her collection of short stories, Little Boy Black (1926) employs racist tropes and generally demonstrates a disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Cobb was born in Cedartown, GA. She and her husband, Hiram Felix Cobb, had one daughter. He died soon after their daughter’s birth. In 1934, their daughter, Elizabeth Reynolds Cobb, married James Boyd, the future president of West Georgia College (now University of West Georgia) from 1961-71.

Cobb worked as a teacher and served as the associate editor of the Carroll Free Press. In 1916 she became the first woman admitted to the Georgia bar (1916); she practiced law for the next twenty-five years. Cobb also spent her life advocating for women’s rights in all aspects of life and business. In each instance, the push for women’s rights, though, embraced segregation and therefore perpetuated distinctions between the rights of white and African American women. She was a co-founder and president of the Georgia Association of Women Lawyers and of the Georgia Association of Women Voters, president of the Business and Professional Women’s Club of Carrollton, president of the Carrollton League of Women Voters, and a board member of the Georgia Active Voters. She was a member of the Georgia Democratic executive committee and secretary of the Carroll County Democratic Committee. She served as a delegate to the Democratic National Convention in 1924.


Cobb sat on the board of trustees for the Fourth District Agricultural and Mechanical School (now University of West Georgia) and was a member of the Georgia State College for Women’s Board of Visitors (now Georgia College and State University).
Cobb died in Atlanta, GA on May 27, 1956.

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COLLUM HALL (1951) Georgia Southwestern State University
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Collum?
Georgia Southwestern State University’s Collum Hall was named for John Marion Collum (1857-1929), a local politician and the Principal of Third District Agricultural and Mechanical School (now Georgia Southwestern State University) from 1908 until 1921.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Collum was a segregationist who believed that African Americans were not deserving of legal equality.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Collum maintained racial segregation in his private and public life. The public record does not reveal many details about his attitudes toward African Americans, but in one instance he was willing to speak out against racial violence but only on condition of anonymity. In the process he described lynching as “disgraceful.” At the same time, he bemoaned the postwar collapse of the racial order that connected race and labor, and he fought against changes to laws that gave sharecroppers more freedom.

More Biographic Details
Collum was born on November 15, 1857 to Permelia and Uriah Collum, a disabled Mexican American War veteran. He married Tommie Curtis Barnes Collum and they had four children. Collum owned a large farm in Schley County where he used African American sharecroppers for labor. He complained that freedom made Black workers harder to control and prided himself of his ability to maintain control of his workers. “We employ many colored people on our plantations,” he bragged. “We have never had one brought before the courts.”

Collum taught in and headed Schley County public schools, all segregated at the time, for fourteen years and served in the Georgia legislature. He served as the Principal of Third District Agricultural and Mechanical School (now Georgia Southwestern State University) from 1908 to 1921. Collum sat on the board of trustees of the Agricultural and Mechanical School and of the State College for Women in Athens (now Athens State University).

In response to an article written by Booker T. Washington about lynching, Collum wrote to Washington after the 1913 lynching of William Redding in Americus. On the condition of anonymity, Collum reported that despite the lynchers’ claims, Redding had not been drunk or loitering, but taking care of his employer’s wagon and mule team. Collum revealed details about the incident and tried to distinguish the perpetrators from other people in the community: “While many good people here abhor the disgraceful act… it must be concluded that the lynchers have terrorized the whole people, or that a vast majority is in sympathy with the mob.”

Collum died on January 9, 1929.

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Who Was Vandiver?
The University of Georgia’s East Village Vandiver Hall is named for Samuel Ernest Vandiver (1918-2005), an alumnus, governor of Georgia, U.S. military veteran, and avowed segregationist.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his actions as the governor of Georgia, Vandiver fought against the human rights of African Americans by supporting racial segregation and opposing attempts at integration.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Throughout his political career, Vandiver worked to deny civil rights to African Americans. He advised Governors Eugene Talmadge and Herman Talmadge as they repeatedly fought for the mantle of the candidate most committed to segregation. Vandiver made his commitment to segregation clear in his own political career as well. As governor during an era of social change and repeated legal mandates for integration, Vandiver repeatedly sought to undermine and oppose them. He called the 1954 ruling in Brown v. Board a “judicial abomination” and worked to defund public schools that integrated afterward. Vandiver maintained this position for the rest of his career. He demonized civil rights leaders like Martin Luther King, Jr, as a “racial agitator,” and otherwise placed the blame on racial unrest on the unwillingness of African Americans to know and stay in their place in society. Even when he agreed to integrate the University of Georgia and public schools in the state in general, he did so out of a fear for what it meant for the opportunities for white students. He concluded that closing the schools, despite his earlier rhetoric, was even worse than allowing them to be integrated.

More Biographic Details
Vandiver was born on July 31, 1918 in Canon, GA to Vanna Bowers and Samuel Ernest Vandiver, a successful businessman and farmer. After attending public schools as a child, he graduated with both an A.B. (1940) and LL.B. (1942) from the University of Georgia. Upon graduation, he briefly practiced law until he joined the U.S. Air Force to fight in World War II. He served stateside.

After the war, Vandiver began his long political career. He won his first election in 1946 to become major of Lavonia, GA. He quickly made connections to some of Georgia's most powerful politicians. In particular, he was mentored by the Talmadge family. He worked as an aid to Governor Eugene Talmadge, and later served as the campaign manager for Herman Talmadge in his successful run for governor in 1948. These connections led to Vandiver's stints as Georgia's adjutant general (1948-54) and director of Georgia’s selective service (1948-54). In 1954, he was elected lieutenant governor of Georgia, and in 1958 he won the governorship. He served until 1963.

Throughout his career, Vandiver consistently used his voice to restrict the freedom of African Americans. The Talmadges were both proud segregationists and as their aide and campaign manager Vandiver effectively used racist anti-African American sentiments to promote their campaigns. When Vandiver ran for office and then governed, he followed in their footsteps. For example, Vandiver was elected the same year of the U.S. Supreme Court’s ruling in Brown v. Board that held that separate was not equal and that public schools needed to be integrated. He would not be swayed by the ruling and instead called it a “judicial monstrosity.”
Later, when as the civil rights struggle made headway in Georgia and elsewhere, Vandiver was unmoved in his opposition to the movement and the need for it. Rather than seeing it as a struggle for equal rights, Vandiver chastised the protesters as harming the “good relations” that he claimed already existed in the segregated state. When Martin Luther King, Jr. announced his intentions to move to Atlanta, Vandiver publicly stated it would be bad for the city. “Wherever M. L. King, Jr., has been there has followed in his wake a wave of crimes including stabbings, bombings, and inciting riots, barratry, destruction of property, and many others.”

Vandiver was also governor during the court-mandated integration of the University of Georgia. During his political campaign he repeatedly declared “no not one” to counter charges that he favored slow integration of public schools and he threatened to shut the university down rather than integrate it. He chose a different path when the courts forced his hand. Unlike many others in the state legislature, Vandiver was unwilling to close the school rather than defy the federal order. This action was not, he repeatedly explained, a case of justice for the Black students. Instead he claimed that it was in the best interests of the white students and the Georgia economy. He supported the decision to keep the school open, created a commission to implement the decision, and then proceeded to fight to repeal anti-integration legislation designed to defund integrated public schools.

In 1963, Vandiver finished his last term as governor and returned to practicing law. Health issues stopped an attempt at reelection in 1966. He continued to engage in Georgia politics, serving as adjutant general in 1971, advising various politicians in the state, and ultimately running a failed bid for the U.S. Senate.

He died on February 21, 2005.

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Who was Franklin?
The University of Georgia’s Franklin College of Arts and Sciences was named for Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790). Franklin defies easy description. Although he is widely considered to be a Founding Father of the U.S., he earned notoriety prior to the Revolution as a writer, political philosopher, scientist, and civic leader.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Franklin owned six enslaved African Americans during his life that he used as domestic laborers and he published slave advertisements in his Philadelphia Gazette. Franklin’s actions over the course of his life point to a man who changed his beliefs and behavior and ultimately worked for racial equality for African Americans. He became a leading abolitionist and president of an abolitionist society.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
For most of his life (1735-1781), Franklin owned six enslaved men and women that he used as domestic laborers. He bought, sold, punished and otherwise treated these enslaved people as property. He also published advertisements for slave runaways and sales in his Philadelphia Gazette. Little is known about his use of those he enslaved, but he hired them out on occasion to earn money and as punishments. He also profited by using them.

Franklin’s denial of human rights through his actions as an enslaver is complicated by his support for antislavery causes later in life. The ads for slave sales and runaways in his paper, for example, were printed alongside various abolitionist tracts. Also, his attitudes toward enslavement began to shift in 1758 toward that of antislavery or abolitionists. Franklin attributed this change to his visit to a school for Black children. There he concluded and afterward began to proclaim that the perceived inferiority of African Americans was not innate but instead resulted from a lack of education. In 1759, he began donating money to support schools for African Americans. During this time, he also wrote against the institution of slavery. However, his actions and his writings typically contained enough ambiguity to prevent scholars from characterizing him as an abolitionist.

Franklin stopped enslaving African Americans in 1781 and shortly after that became a leading abolitionist figure in Philadelphia. He ultimately served as the president of Philadelphia Society for the Relief of Free Negroes Unlawfully Held in Bondage, also known as the Abolitionist Society (1787). He wrote a public address calling for the end of slavery (1789) that declared that “Slavery is such an atrocious debasement of human nature, that its very extirpation, if not performed with solicitous care, may sometimes open a source of serious evils” and concluded that society should be prepared to pay the costs of educating the emancipated so that they could live as free men and free women. The following year (1790), he petitioned Congress to abolish the institution and in doing so pointed to the common humanity of all races and the immorality of the institution. In short, he went from a slaveholder to an abolitionist during his life, ultimately leaving a permanent impact on the anti-slavery community of Philadelphia and the United States.

More Biographic Details
Benjamin Franklin was born on January 17, 1706 (January 6 on the Julian calendar) to Abiah Folger and Josiah Franklin in Boston, Massachusetts. He attended school and had tutors until he was ten-years-old; after that he was self-educated. At 12 Franklin began as an apprentice printer under his
brother. The arrangement was a form of indentured servitude, an experience that shaped Franklin’s views about freedom and bondage. After he was freed from his indenture, Franklin started the *New-England Courant* (1721) and began to write satire and lampoons under pseudonyms for other publications.

Franklin left Boston when he was 17, and ultimately moved to Philadelphia after a short stay in New York. After a year, he found himself in London where he worked as a printer, published a pamphlet on moral philosophy—*A Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity, Pleasure and Pain* (1725)—and ultimately received an offer to become a store clerk in Philadelphia. Within a few years of his return, Franklin began to make his mark on Philadelphia and the colonial world more broadly. He left his position as a clerk, reestablished himself as a printer, entered a common law marriage with Deborah, and had three children. It was during these years that he purchased African Americans as domestic laborers.

Franklin ultimately became synonymous with Philadelphia civic life. He is responsible for establishing many institutions in Philadelphia that continue today. He founded the Library Company (1731), the University of Pennsylvania (1751), and the city’s first fire department. He helped start the American Philosophical Society, served as its first secretary, and became its president in 1769. For much of his life he continued to work as a publisher—serving as editor, printer and writer for the *Pennsylvania Gazette* and the *Pennsylvania Chronicle*. Of all of his publications, he may be best known for *Poor Richard’s Almanack* (1732). Although he never made a career of it, Franklin was also an inventor—most notably of bifocals, the Franklin Stove, and the lightning rod.

Franklin held many political offices in the colonial and early national eras and is widely seen as the most important “founding father” who never served as President. Prior to independence, Franklin was a prominent public servant in Philadelphia, serving its postmaster for several years before becoming the Postmaster General of British America (1753-1774). He also briefly served as the speaker of the Pennsylvania Assembly (1764). After the passage of the Stamp Act, Franklin traveled back to London to represent the interests of the colonies. During the American Revolution, he became the first U.S. Postmaster General (1775-1776). He signed the Declaration of Independence (1776), was the nation’s first minister to France, the U.S. minister to Sweden, and Governor of Pennsylvania. After the war, he was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention.

For most of his life Franklin was relatively quiet on the issue of slavery, choosing not to pursue its abolition at the Constitutional Convention. Later in life, however, he used his influence to convince others that African Americans should be fully assimilated into American society. In 1787 he served as President of the Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery. Around three months before he died, Franklin continued to oppose slavery, writing a memorial to Congress that demanded that it abolish slavery. When Franklin died on April 17, 1790, southern Senators were still so angry about his anti-slavery petition that they, unlike members of the House of Representatives, refused to declare a month of mourning for him.

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Who Was Gamble?
Georgia Southern University’s Gamble Hall was named for Thomas Weldon Gamble, Jr. (1868-1945), a newspaperman, mayor of Savannah (1933-45) and the founder of City Junior College (later Armstrong State University) which merged with Georgia Southern University in 2017.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
By infusing his writings with racist Lost Cause imagery and ideas, Gamble supported the continued mistreatment of African Americans and otherwise supported racial inequality.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
The racist Lost Cause imagery and ideas Gamble used in his publications perpetuated myths of a romanticized Old South that included happy slaves. As a result, these books upheld ideas about white supremacy and romanticized the lives of enslaved African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Gamble was born in Richmond, VA on March 16, 1868 to Mary Ann Faunce and Thomas Gamble, who worked in saw manufacturing. He married Florence Ophelia Kilpatrick on May 15, 1890. They had four children.

After working as a reporter for the Philadelphia Press and Enquirer, Gamble moved to Savannah in 1888 to work as a reporter of the Savannah Daily Times. He was named City Editor of the Savannah Evening Press in 1891 and later served as the editor and publisher of the Effingham County News and Bryan County News. He left Savannah in 1907 to become the editor and owner of the Daily Times-Recorder (Americus, GA). He also wrote for his paper. He returned to Savannah after five years in Americus where he became the first Savannah correspondent for the Atlanta Constitution. He also spent fifty years as the editor of the Weekly Naval Stores Review of Savannah. Gamble also published several books, including A History of City Government of Savannah, Ga., from 1790-1901 (1901) and Savannah Duels and Duelists (1924). His books advanced racist tropes that glorified the Lost Cause.

Over the course of eighteen years, Gamble served as the private secretary to four mayors of Savannah before winning his own race for Savannah’s mayor in 1933. He was re-elected five times and was still mayor when he died. As mayor Gamble established City Junior College (later Armstrong State which became part of Georgia Southern University) in 1935.

Gamble was a member of several historical associations and the twice-elected president of the Georgia Society Sons of the Revolution. The U.S. Pulaski Sesquicentennial Commission awarded him a bronze medallion for promoting friendship between the U.S. and Poland in 1930. In 1929, the Polish government conferred on him the Chevalier Cross of the Order of Poland Restitute after he wrote a book on Casimir Pulaski. The French government awarded him the Chevalier of the Legion of Honor (1935) for the hospitality shown a war ship of theirs n the Port of Savannah in 1934. In addition, Gamble was a of the Savannah Public Library Board of Managers (1901-1907 and 1916-1932).
Gamble died of a heart attack on July 13, 1945 while vacationing in Signal Mountain, TN. In his will, he donated his large collection of books on English and Georgia history to Armstrong Junior College.

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HAMMOND HALL (1936) Savannah State University
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Hammond?
Savannah State University’s Hammond Hall was named for William Robinson Hammond (1848-1923), a Confederate veteran, judge, and trustee of the Georgia State Industrial College for Colored Youth (now Savannah State University).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Hammond did not acknowledge the humanity of all people. Although a Trustee of the Georgia State Industrial College for Colored Youth (now Savannah State University), he publicly demonstrated his disdain for the school’s African American graduates.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
During a commencement address at the Georgia State Industrial College for Colored Youth (now Savannah State University), Judge Hammond denied the humanity of African Americans. He referred to them as “a black menace” and asserted that their college degrees did not make them socially or politically equal to whites.

More Biographic Details
Hammond was born in Franklin, GA on October 25, 1848 to Adeline E. Robinson and Dennis Fletcher Hammond, a judge. The family moved to Newnan, GA in 1850 and then to Atlanta, GA in 1862. He served as an infantryman in the Confederate army (1864-65). Hammond married Laura Rawson in 1870.

Hammond earned an A.B. from the University of Georgia (1869). He was admitted to the Georgia bar in 1870. He practiced law in Atlanta until his 1882 election to the superior court bench of the Atlanta circuit. Although reelected in 1884, he left the bench before his second term ended to return to his law practice.

Hammond was a member of the Atlanta’s Board of Education for twelve years. He served as a trustee of Wesleyan College (c. 1890) and of the Georgia State Industrial College for Colored Youth (now Savannah State University). When he gave a commencement address to the latter, he referred to Black voters as “a threatening menace” and emphasized that their college degrees did not make them equal to whites.

Hammond died on June 18, 1923.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Who Was Hill?
Savannah State University’s Hill Hall was named for Walter Barnard Hill (1851-1905), a lawyer and the chancellor of the University of Georgia (1899-1905).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his actions, Hill worked to improve the educational and social position of African Americans in Georgia. His actions, at least in part, were shaped by ignorant beliefs about the backwardness of African and his paternalism toward African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Although an advocate for universal education, Hill’s “Uncle Tom Without a Cabin” uses racist tropes to explain how enslavement was both abhorrent and helpful to African Americans. Throughout the article, Hill acknowledges the evils of antebellum slavery. At the same time, though, he repeats widespread racist beliefs about Africa and African Americans that saw slavery as introducing them to some improvements. For example, while acknowledging that education will help the Black community gain a foothold in American society, he claims that their integration into society must be “gradual” and that antebellum slavery “prepared” them as a group for freedom.

More Biographic Details
Hill was born in Talbotton, GA on September 9, 1851 to Mary Clay Birch and Barnard Hill, a Macon judge and attorney. He married Sallie Parna Baker in 1868. They had four children.

Hill earned an A.B. (1870), M.A. (1871), and M.L. (1871) from the University of Georgia. After graduation he joined his father’s law firm (1871-99) and became one of the founders of the Georgia Bar Association. He also taught law at Mercer University.

Hill was an advocate for and frequent public speaker on the importance of education. He lobbied for increased funds for public institutions. In 1884 Hill published an article advocating collective bargaining and defending African Americans’ rights to education, but also referring to the era of “negro supremacy” in Reconstruction as an “intolerable yoke.” His article simultaneously and defended the slave power and white supremacy while condemning the institution of slavery: “In its tutelage of a barbarous race, the New South sees Providence as clearly as in the freedom for which that made them ready; but she rejoices that slavery has been destroyed and the Union preserved.” At the same time, he made the case for the education of African Americans based on the need for an educated voting public: “The negro must be educated in the responsibilities of citizenship, and this training must be made practical by the use of the ballot…the general welfare does not permit a mass of ignorant, easily duped voters in the nation’s midst.” He urged for more federal funding for education because “The work of removing illiteracy which the Southern States have undertaken, but which they are without resources to accomplish, should be generously aided by the large hand of the Nation. The vanity and want of principle exhibited by a few educated negroes are not arguments for keeping millions in ignorance, but rather for removing the ground of conceit and the opportunity for knavery by making education common.”

As the Chancellor of the University of Georgia, Hill oversaw an almost threefold increase in funding for the school. He encouraged the state legislature to appropriate more than $150,000 to the school...
between 1900 and 1905. In addition, he successfully attracted private donors, including George Foster Peabody who visited the campus in 1902. As chancellor Hill also established a School of Pharmacy (1903), readied the university for the School of Forestry (1906), expanded the law curriculum, and set things in motion for a College of Agriculture and a College of Education.

Hill died in Athens, GA December 28, 1905.

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The University of Georgia’s Hill Hall was named for Walter Barnard Hill (1851-1905), an alumnus, attorney, and the Chancellor of the University of Georgia from 1899 until 1905.

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Works Cited:


Who Was Cherry?
Georgia State University’s Jim Cherry Learning Resource Center was named for James David Cherry (1911-1980), the Superintendent of DeKalb County Schools (1949-72) who helped establish DeKalb Community College (now Perimeter College at Georgia State University).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As the Superintendent of DeKalb County Schools, Cherry refused follow the legal mandate set forth by the U.S. Supreme Court’s Brown v. Board of Education (1954) ruling that required all public institutions to desegregate. In doing so, he upheld the system of racial segregation that denied humanity to African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Cherry resisted racial integration throughout his tenure as Superintendent of DeKalb County Schools. Instead, he helped institute various policies that worked to subvert the legal mandate. He helped gerrymander school districts in order to ensure that schools catered to segregated neighborhoods. The district funded its schools differently, as well. Even many of Cherry’s improvements to the Black schools were done in the name of resisting integration. During his tenure, Cherry and the district tried to demonstrate the equality of black schools by lessening the financial gap between white and black schools. He allowed the county bus to transport white and Black children, albeit in the name of preserving the color line. His push for school choice similarly allowed the county to proclaim that all students could choose the school that they wanted. In practice, though, the policy put the burden on Black students to travel to distant white schools without protection from the harassment that followed. The courts ultimately recognized the inequality in DeKalb County schools. As a result, the district came under their supervision by a federal judge (1969-96).

More Biographic Details
Cherry was born in Calhoun, GA on January 1, 1911 to Iver “Nannie” McKinnon and Drew Fred Cherry. His family moved to Bainbridge. He and his wife, Virginia Brown, had four children.

Cherry graduated from Bainbridge High School, earned a B.S. in education from the Georgia Teacher’s College (now Georgia Southern University), and earned an M.A. in history from the University of North Carolina. During World War II he served as an air and navigation officer in the U.S. Marine Corps (1943-46).

Cherry served as the State School Supervisor of the Georgia Department of Education and worked for DeKalb County as a consultant and educational director. He won the election for the superintendent of Schools for DeKalb County in 1948. During his time as superintendent (1949-72), he campaigned for the creation of DeKalb Community College (now Perimeter College at Georgia State University), helped create the Fernbank Science Center and the DeKalb Technical Institute, and oversaw the development of many new schools.

Cherry did not equally support the district’s Black schools and when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in Brown v. Board of Education (1954) that separate was not equal, he did not proactively move to integrate the schools and instead used racial gerrymandering to maintain a system of de facto
segregation in DeKalb County. The handful of Black students in the white schools suffered from constant harassment, and Cherry dismissed the complaints that were made to him and the school board. The only change that he made was to allot extra funds to improve the district’s Black schools. He ultimately instituted biracial district staff meetings in the mid-1960s, but did little to encourage a discussion about integration. Ultimately Cherry bent to the legal demands to integrate by instituting a “freedom of [school] choice” option that put the burden on Black students to enroll voluntarily to distant white schools.

The lack of advances in integrating the district’s public schools led to the forced supervision of the entire DeKalb school by U.S. District Court Judge William O’Kelly in 1969. It remained under supervision until 1996. In 1969 DeKalb closed the district’s all-Black schools closed, bussed African American students to other schools, and reassigned the teachers from African American schools. Still struggling with the issues of integration, in particular with the white flight of students from the public school system, O’Kelly ordered the school system to create a biracial committee in 1976.

Cherry was an active member of many organizations, including the DeKalb Historical Society, the DeKalb Chamber of Commerce, the DeKalb Planning Commission, the American Cancer Society, and the Georgia Heart Association. He was a director of the Fernbank Science Center, the DeKalb Historical Society, and the Atlantic American Life Insurance Company.

Cherry died on June 5, 1980.

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Who Was Jordan?
Georgia Southwestern State University’s Mary Lou Jordan Hall was named for Mary Lou Drane Jordan (1885-1979), an English professor at the school (1926-45).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through Jordan’s leadership of her local chapter of the United Daughters of the Confederacy she helped perpetuate the myths of Lost Cause that denied the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
There is no direct evidence that Jordan was involved in activities which were actively harmful to humanity, but through her leadership of the United Daughters of the Confederacy she supported the ideals of the Lost Cause—a mythology that stressed a romanticized and idealized Southern plantation past as a “benevolent” and necessary system of enslavement, that upheld the righteousness of southern secession, and that stressed the honor and almost infallibility of Confederate soldiers. The promotion of the Lost Cause was the central driving ideological force of the organization nationwide, and this was particularly the case during the era that she was president. It simultaneously ignored the humanity of and denied the equality of African Americans.

More Biographic Details
Jordan was born in Buena Vista, GA on March 26, 1885 to Mary Elisabeth Butt and William Arthur Drane. She married Eugene Roney Jordan on January 30, 1908. They had three children.

Jordan taught English at the school from 1926 until 1945. She succeeded her mother as president of the Marion County chapter of the United Daughters of the Confederacy.


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Ancestry.com
Who Was Rutherford?
The University of Georgia’s Rutherford Hall was named for Mildred Lewis Rutherford (1851-1928), the principal of the Lucy Cobb Institute (1880-95), author, Lost Cause orator, president of the Georgia Division of the United Daughters of the Confederacy (1899-1902), and historian of the United Daughters of the Confederacy (1911-16).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Rutherford spent her life glorifying the Confederacy and the Old South through various organizations, including the Athens Ladies’ Memorial Association and the United Daughters of the Confederacy. Furthermore, through her roles in the state and national office of the United Daughters of the Confederacy she helped perpetuate the myths of Lost Cause that denied the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through Rutherford’s positions as the president and historian of the United Daughters of the Confederacy she supported the ideals of the Lost Cause—a mythology that stressed a romanticized and idealized Southern plantation past as a “benevolent” and necessary system of enslavement, that upheld the righteousness of southern secession, and that stressed the honor and almost infallibility of Confederate soldiers. The promotion of the Lost Cause was the central driving ideological force of the organization nationwide, particularly during the era that she was involved. The organization simultaneously ignored the humanity of and denied the equality of African Americans as it worked to justify and enforce white supremacy. In an effort to further spread the myth of the Lost Cause and the romanticization of the Old South, Rutherford published widely and gave public speeches.

More Biographic Details
Rutherford was born in Athens, GA on July 16, 1851 to Laura Cobb and Williams Rutherford, wealthy planters and enslavers who vehemently supported and fought for the Confederacy. Rutherford came from elite slaveholding families; she grew up in a slaveholding family and her maternal grandfather John A. Cobb held 209 enslaved African Americans on his Athens plantation by 1840.

Rutherford graduated from Lucy Cobb Institute (1868) a ladies’ school founded by her uncle Thomas Reade Rootes Cobb. Although it offered academic courses that included mathematics, science, literature, Latin, Greek, French, and Hebrew, it also had courses like music, art, ornamental needlework, and elocution to promote women’s domesticity. Like other female academies of the time, its primary goal was to teach girls to become ladies. Before, during, and after the Civil War, the school stressed the ideals of white southern womanhood with its dependence on racial hierarchy and gendered notions of gentility. Throughout its existence, the school trained women to behave in distinctly feminine ways that glorified the plantation past of the region. After graduation Rutherford taught in Atlanta, but she returned to Athens as the principal of the Lucy Cobb Institute in 1880. During Rutherford’s time as principal (1880-95), the school added buildings, stressed the ideals of southern womanhood, and romanticized the Old South way of life to the students. She continued to work at the school in some capacity for the next few decades. While principal at Lucy Cobb, Rutherford published textbooks that became the basis for many Lucy Cobb classes. Her books on literature included those on American, French, southern, and biblical literature. All stressed
traditional roles for women. Rutherford left the principalship of the Lucy Cobb Institute in 1895 but continued teaching there. She also served as the president of the Lucy Cobb Institute (1917-22 and 1925-26).

Rutherford served as the president of the Athens Ladies’ Memorial Association (1888-1928), a group dedicated to honoring the Confederate dead and the Lost Cause. She also founded the Athens chapter of the United Daughters of the Confederacy (UDC) and served as its president (1896-1906). She also served as the president of the Georgia division of the UDC (1899-1902), the historian general of the Georgia UDC (1905-28), and the historian general of the national UDC (1911-16). As the president and historian of the UDC Rutherford continued to advocate the myths of the Lost Cause, now to a much larger audience. As part of her role as the organization’s historian, she created an archive of Confederate memorabilia, gave public speeches dressed like a southern belle. In her speeches as well as in her published books and pamphlets, Rutherford ardently promoted the ideals of the Lost Cause. She defended the legality of secession, romanticized the heroism of Confederate soldiers, sentimentalized the institution of slavery, disconnected the issue of slavery from secession, and referred to the Old South as “a picture of contentment, peace and happiness” with the benefits of “old time chivalry.” The titles of Rutherford’s books and speeches, most of which were later published, clearly reveal her themes, including “The Wrongs of History Righted” (1914) and The South Must Have Her Rightful Place in History (1923). She headed the UDC committee on textbooks, the “Rutherford Committee,” which worked to create books that stressed the white southern interpretation of the antebellum south, slavery, and the Civil War into schools. Even as member of the Georgia Association Opposed to Woman Suffrage, Rutherford turned to the ideals of the Old South, urging Georgia legislators to “remember chivalry of old, yours by inheritance.”

In the 1920s Rutherford also served as the vice president of the Stone Mountain Confederate Monument project. When the Georgia UDC voted not to fund the memorial carving of Robert E. Lee, Thomas “Stonewall” Jackson, and Jefferson Davis in 1926 Rutherford resigned as state historian general.

Rutherford died on August 15, 1928.

Works Cited:
Who Was Sanders?
Augusta University’s Sanders Building was named for Carl Edward Sanders (1925-2014), a governor of Georgia (1963-67), attorney, and benefactor of Augusta University.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his legislative work to maintain segregation, Sanders demonstrated a disregard for the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As a legislator and as governor Sanders supported measures that would maintain segregation, even after the Supreme Court of the United States ruled it unconstitutional. He called himself a “moderate segregationist,” as he pursued segregationist policies while avoiding violent resistance. For example, he proposed closing public schools or parks to avoid integration. He also fought against federal moves towards integration and equal rights for African Americans, including fighting against the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

More Biographic Details
Sanders was born in Augusta, GA on May 15, 1925 to Roberta Alley and Carl T. Sanders, a salesman. He married Betty Bird Foy in 1947 and the couple had two children.

Sanders graduated from the Academy of Richmond County in Augusta, GA (1942) and then enlisted in the U.S. Army Air Force in 1943 while a student at the University of Georgia. He served as a B-17 pilot during World War II. In 1947, Sanders earned a Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.) from the University of Georgia.

Sanders was elected to the Georgia House of Representatives in 1954 and to the Georgia Senate in 1956. He became Georgia’s governor in 1962. During his time as governor, he focused on education reform: he hired 10,000 new teachers statewide, raised university salaries by 32%, and supported construction in higher education. He also reformed state agencies to “streamline” them. Although he pledged to not appoint African Americans to office, he appointed the first Blacks to the Georgia State Patrol and to the Georgia National Guard. He lost his 1970 bid for reelection to Jimmy Carter.

Sanders considered himself a “moderate segregationist.” He campaigned on segregation policies but avoided inflammatory rhetoric. He believed in compliance with the law and also in racial segregation. As a legislator he supported bills that authorized the governor to close schools to avoid integration, allowing public parks to be sold to private owners to avoid integration, and authorizing state police to enforce segregation laws. He also supported a resolution condemning the Supreme Court ruling in Brown v. Board of Education. When he ran for governor, he promised to fight to maintain segregation in Georgia, stating “I believe in equal opportunity but if I am elected governor I will not tolerate race-baiting or race-mixing.” As governor Sanders supported the voting literacy test that prevented the majority of African Americans from voting. He testified against the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and urged President Lyndon Johnson to veto the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

During and after his political career, Sanders worked as an attorney. He founded a law firm in Atlanta (1967) that merged with another firm in 1971 to create Troutman Sanders LLP (now
Troutman Pepper LLP). He retired from active management of the firm in the early 1990s. In 2007, Troutman Sanders named him Chairman Emeritus of the firm.

Sanders died in Atlanta on November 16, 2014.

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https://www.ajc.com/news/opinion/readers-write/cVrQhPiqGRU71aAnEwkgxO/
Sanford Office Building (1939) Georgia Southwestern State University
Summary by Lisa Tendrich Frank

Who Was Sanford?
Georgia Southwestern State University’s Sanford Office Building was named for Grace McClatchey Sanford (1872-1952), wife of Chancellor of the University System of Georgia, Steadman V. Sanford.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through Sanford’s leadership role and her membership in her local chapter of the United Daughters of the Confederacy she helped perpetuate the myths of Lost Cause that denied the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
There is no direct evidence that Sanford was involved in activities which were actively harmful to humanity, but as a member of and officeholder in the United Daughters of the Confederacy she supported the ideals of the Lost Cause—a mythology that stressed a romanticized and idealized Southern plantation past as a “benevolent” and necessary system of enslavement, that upheld the righteousness of southern secession, and that stressed the honor and almost infallibility of Confederate soldiers. The promotion of the Lost Cause was the central driving ideological force of the organization nationwide, and this was particularly the case during the era that she was involved. The organization simultaneously ignored the humanity of and denied the equality of African Americans as it worked to justify and enforce white supremacy.

More Biographic Details
Sanford was born on December 16, 1872 in Marietta, GA to Susan Adelaide Reynolds and Devereaux Fore McClatchey. Her family lived in Georgia for several generations.

Sanford received her A.B. from Harwood Seminary in 1890. In 1895, she married Steadman Vincent Sanford. They lived in Marietta for a several years before moving to Athens so her husband could work for Franklin College (now the University of Georgia). He started as a professor, became university president (1926-34), and then became the Chancellor of the University System of Georgia (1935-1945). Together they had four children.

She lived in Georgia her entire life, residing for most of it in Athens, Clark, and Marietta. She was corresponding secretary of the United Daughters of the Confederacy’s Kennesaw Chapter no. 241 Marietta for at least several years at the turn of the century. The organization was dedicated to promoting a vision of the Civil War and Reconstruction that justified Jim Crow segregation and the virtues of state’s rights.

Sanford died on May 16, 1952

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com
Who Was Snelling?
The University of Georgia's Snelling Hall was named for Charles Mercer Snelling (1862-1939), a professor, dean, and chancellor of the University of Georgia (1888-1932). He was also the first Chancellor of the University System of Georgia (1932-33).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an administrator of an all-white institution for many years, Snelling harbored the presumptions that justified racial segregation. His insistence that the color line follow the University of Georgia’s football team to New York demonstrated his commitment to segregation and the proactive steps he took to ensure it.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Snelling was an administrator at the University of Georgia and Chancellor of the University System of Georgia during the decades when racial segregation was the regional norm. Unlike university administrators in subsequent decades, it does not seem that Snelling had to make frequent decisions or take any actions to ensure segregation. He supported it, as did the vast majority of white Southerners, and this became apparent in his dealing with inter-regional athletics. When the University of Georgia scheduled a football game against New York University, a controversy arose regarding whether New York University’s starting quarterback, an African American student, would play. Fans and reporters in the north insisted that he be allowed to play, and Georgia fans overwhelmingly warned Snelling of the impending breach of southern norms. Snelling soothed the fears of his fans, telling them that he had ensured that the Black players would not play in the game.

More Biographic Details
Snelling was born in Richmond, VA on November 3, 1862 to Cleopatra Perdue and Zacheus Snelling. He married Matilda Janet Morton on June 18, 1891. They had eight children.

After graduating from the Virginia Military Academy with a Mathematics specialty (1884), he taught there for a year. He also studied in Berlin (1893-94). The University of Georgia awarded him an honorary Master of Arts degree (1890) and the University of Pittsburgh awarded him an honorary Doctor of Science degree (1911).

Snelling taught at the Georgia Military College in Savannah and at South Georgia College in Thomasville, GA. He joined the faculty at the University of Georgia in 1888 as an adjunct professor of mathematics and as Commandant of the school’s military cadets. In 1906 he earned promotion to full professor and became the Dean of Franklin College. He next served as the dean of the University of Georgia and the President of Franklin College (1909-25). Snelling was the Acting Chancellor of the University of Georgia (1925-26) and Chancellor of the University of Georgia (1926-32). As chancellor, the school expanded with the formation of the Department of Music and Fine Arts (1926), the Institute of Public Affairs (1927), the Bureau of Business Research (1929), the Division of General Extension (adult education), and the Lumpkin School of Law. He also began the first Alumni Building Fund, which ultimately raised $800,000 for new buildings. The campus then expanded with several new buildings, including the Sanford Stadium (1929). In 1928, Snelling hired the first female faculty member, J.H. Bryan, in the journalism department.
Snelling also actively tried to quell student activism on campus during his time as the university chancellor. He appointed a faculty committee, the Prudential Committee, to investigate two student papers, *The Iconoclast* and *The Gadfly*. Before the committee could assess the situation, Snelling personally expelled five students who published *The Iconoclast*.

Snelling rarely needed to make his attitudes toward integration public, as it was the norm throughout the university system. In at least one instance, though, he made his support of racial segregation clear. When the University of Georgia scheduled a football game against New York University at Yankee Stadium, he ensured that New York University would not play David Meyer, its star quarterback, or its African American players. A national conversation ensued about whether Meyer would play, and about whether the University of Georgia would cancel the contract if he did. In response to a series of letters to him warning him about the potential racial breach of what was known as “the southern agreement,” Snelling wrote: “The athletic authorities of the two institutions have understood each other all along; the colored boy will not be in the game.” Snelling and the University of Georgia had made the exclusion of African American players a precondition for the game. These types of agreements were common in inter-regional athletic events at the time.

When the University System of Georgia reorganized, Snelling became the first Chancellor of the University System of Georgia (1932-33). After he retired, he was named Chancellor Emeritus, and he served as the Director of Adult Education for the state of Georgia (1933-39).

Snelling also served as president of the Athens Kiwanis Club and of the City of Athens Bonded Debt Commission. He was also the director of the Athens Gas Company, the National Bank of Athens, and the Southern Mutual Insurance Company.

Snelling died in Athens, GA on September 19, 1939.

**Works Cited:**


Who Was Sparks?
Georgia State University’s Sparks Hall is named for George McIntosh Sparks (1889-1958), the president of Georgia State College’s College of Business Administration (1928-57).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Through his defense of the status quo and general inaction during the campaign to integrate Georgia State College of Business Administration, Sparks supported a system that denied human rights to African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
During his long presidency of Georgia State College of Business Administration, Sparks faced several attempts to integrate the school. In each case, he rejected African American applicants and in doing so supported a system that denied equality to African Americans. Sparks did not issue defenses of segregation and his public statements do not reveal his personal beliefs on the issue. He justified his actions by insisting that white students were better off without the distractions that integration would bring and by pointing to a state law that denied public funding to integrated public institutions.

More Biographic Details
Sparks was born in Quitman, GA on November 19, 1889 to Julian Sparks and Andrew Jackson. He moved to Macon in 1893, where his father ran the Arcadia hotel. Sparks married Mary Morgan Booth on September 16, 1922.

After he graduated from Mercer University (1903), Sparks spent several months recovering from sickness in Macon before taking a position running the local YMCA. In this post, he wrote a few pieces for the Macon Telegraph. He then worked as a war correspondent, sports editor, and city editor for the paper. He joined Mercer University in 1923 as the assistant to the president and then professor of journalism. He then taught journalism at Georgia Tech where he also handled its publicity. He later became director of the School of Commerce.

In 1928, Sparks took over Georgia Tech’s Evening School of Commerce and transformed a lagging institution into a successful and expanding four-year university. Over the next two decades, he added buildings to the institution, increased enrollment, and added graduate programs to what became known as Georgia State College of Business Administration.

His time as president coincided with national efforts to desegregate public schools and other institutions. During his tenure, however, Sparks made no efforts to aid in this process. Threatened by a condition of state appropriations that mandated that no Black students be admitted, Sparks insured that was the case. Sparks, who kept his personal views of integration unstated, offered various excuses as to why that was the case. Most often he pointed to the institution’s reliance on public funds. In 1956, Sparks rejected nine African American applicants to the college and he made his explanation public. He feared that “one [African American] person would jeopardize the educational opportunities of 5,000 others.” Sparks similarly upheld a policy that required applicants to pass a character test and one that required an alumnus to sign off on the application. In this...
manner the color line held at the university. Sparks retired after 29 years as director and president of Georgia State College of Business Administration.

He died on October 29, 1958.

**Works Cited:**


Who Was Talmadge?
The University of Georgia’s Talmadge Auditorium is named for Herman Eugene Talmadge (1913-2002), a U.S. Senator (1957-81), Georgia Governor (1948-55), and avowed segregationist.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As governor of Georgia and U.S. senator, Talmadge acted and spoke on behalf of racial segregation and took action to deny the humanity of African Americans.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As governor of Georgia and U.S. senator, Talmadge supported racial segregation and denied the humanity of African Americans. In particular, he opposed integration, spoke against Brown v Board of Education, and protested the Civil Rights Act of 1964. His stance against racial integration increasingly placed him at odds within the national Democratic Party which began to favor civil rights legislation. This tension existed throughout his public life. In 1948, for example, he abstained from discussion of national politics, steering clear of the split between Democrats and Dixiecrats, which was led by his cousin Strom Thurman. In Georgia politics, all officeholders were members of the Democratic Party and they were unified in upholding racial segregation. Talmadge was no different and he made no attempt to hide his segregationist views throughout his life.

More Biographic Details
Herman Talmadge was born in Telfair County, GA to Mattie Thurmond and Eugene Talmadge, a career politician who served three terms as Georgia Governor. He studied law at the University of Georgia and graduated in 1936.

In 1937, just after his graduation and while was working as a lawyer, he married his first wife, model Katherine Williamson. They divorced after three years, and he married Betty Shingler in 1941. That year, he enlisted in the U.S. navy and saw action in the Pacific theater during World War II. He returned home as a lieutenant colonel and helped his father win his fourth term as governor.

Eugene Talmadge died before his gubernatorial term began, so the General Assembly elected Talmadge to take his father’s elected position. When two months later the Georgia Supreme Court ruled that the Assembly’s decision was unconstitutional and put the lieutenant governor in the seat, Talmadge ran for the seat and won. Talmadge won the primary and won the uncontested reelection in 1950.

As governor Talmadge instituted many policies designed to help Georgians, especially white Georgians. For example, he instituted the state’s first sales tax in large part by convincing the public that it would be used to aid public education. These schools, he emphatically declared, would and should remain segregated. When the U.S. Supreme Court issued Brown v Board of Education (1954), Talmadge published a book called You and Segregation. In it, he stated that the end of segregation should be mourned because it represented the end to the traditional way of life in the South. Talmadge did not make his commitment to segregation a central component of his campaigns for governor as it was a shared objective within the era’s all-white Democratic party of Georgia. It never became an issue after the primary because Georgia had effectively only one party, making the winner of the primary the winner of the election.
In 1956, Talmadge won a seat in the U.S. Senate and served as a vocal opponent of civil rights legislation. Most of his efforts were on the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, a committee that he eventually chaired. He pushed for food stamps to ensure markets for farmers, price controls on agricultural goods, and other programs designed to help rural Americans. He also pushed for a Balanced Budget Amendment. He served on the 1973 Senate committee that investigated Watergate.

Even as the national Democratic Party increasingly became the party of civil rights, Talmadge remained committed to both segregation and the Southern version of the party. He boycotted the Democratic National Convention in protest of the passing of the Lyndon Johnson’s signature Civil Rights Act of 1964. Shortly after, he began to face Republican opposition in his senatorial races.

In 1979, the U.S. Senate censured Talmadge for financial misconduct. This censure, along with news of his struggles with alcoholism and the changing ideologies of the nation’s two major parties, led to his defeat in 1980. It was the first Republican victory for a Senate seat from Georgia since Reconstruction.

After his loss, Talmadge returned to practicing law. He would not run for election again, but by 1990 he was supporting Republicans for state-wide office.

Talmadge died on March 21, 2002.

Works Cited:
Who Was Talmadge?
Middle Georgia State University’s Talmadge Residence Hall is named for Herman Eugene Talmadge (1913-2002), a U.S. Senator (1957-81), Georgia Governor (1948-55), and avowed segregationist.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
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After his loss, Talmadge returned to practicing law. He would not run for election again, but by 1990 he was supporting Republicans for state-wide office.

Talmadge died on March 21, 2002.

Works Cited:
Who Was Waddel?
The University of Georgia’s Waddel Hall was named for Newton Moses Waddel (1770-1840), an enslaver, minister, educator, and the fifth president of the university (1819-29).

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
As an enslaver of African Americans, Waddel demonstrated that he did not value the humanity of all people equally.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Waddel enslaved at least 41 African Americans during his lifetime. The 1810 and 1820 censuses include 16 enslaved people in his household; the 1830 census includes 41 enslaved people in his household. There is no record of what kind of labor they performed or if he enslaved people earlier or later in his life.

More Biographic Details
Waddel was born in North Carolina on June 20, 1770. His father, William Waddel had emigrated to the Carolinas from Belfast, Ireland around 1764. He married Catherine Calhoun, a sister of John C. Calhoun, in 1795. She died in childbirth the next year. Waddel married Elizabeth W. Pleasants in 1800. They had six children.

Waddel graduated from Hampden Sydney College (1791) and became ordained as a Presbyterian minister. He earned a D.D. from South Carolina College (1807). By 1810 he had 16 enslaved people in his household; that number increased to 41 in 1830.

By the age of 14, Wadell was working as a schoolmaster in Iredell County, NC. After he moved to Georgia in 1788, he opened a school. After graduation from Hampden Sydney, he founded several more schools in the South Carolina and Georgia upcountry. He opened his most successful and longest lasting classical college preparatory school, Willington Academy, in the South Carolina town of the same name in 1804. The school became highly respected and attracted the children of the elite slaveholding class. His students there included future notables such as legislator and vice president John C. Calhoun and author Augustus Baldwin Longstreet. Waddel also published a bestselling sentimental novel, Memoirs of the Life of Miss Catherine Elizabeth Smelt (1809).

Waddel served as the fifth president of the University of Georgia (1819-29), a small university with a faculty of one and only seven students. By 1923 he had made the school solvent, gained more state funding, and money to improve the library. He had three new buildings constructed as well. By the time he left, student enrollment had increased to 100. Disputes with the Baptist faction at the University led to Waddel’s 1829 resignation. He returned to Willingham Academy after he left the university.

Waddel died on July 21, 1840.

Works Cited:
Ancestry.com

Who Was Davis?
The University of Georgia’s Winnie Davis Hall was named for Varina Anne “Winnie” Davis (1864-1898), the daughter of Confederate president Jefferson Davis.

Summary of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Winnie Davis was an active supporter and a widely embraced symbol of post-war Confederate patriotism and nostalgia. As the “Daughter of the Confederacy” and her family’s representative at many Confederate veterans’ gatherings, Davis spent her life as an emblem of the Lost Cause—a mythology that stressed a romanticized and idealized Southern plantation past, a “benevolent” and necessary system of enslavement that ignored the humanity and denied the equality of African Americans, the righteousness of southern secession, and the honor and almost infallibility of Confederate soldiers. She did nothing to reject her public persona and instead used her public statements and writings to promote ideas that diminished the humanity of African Americans and justified enslavement. She appeared at and sanctioned public events that glorified the Confederacy and some of her publications extolled the Old South and slavery. The United Daughters of the Confederacy built and named the building for Davis because she was one of the clearest non-military symbols of the Lost Cause.

Sketch of Actions and Beliefs Toward Humanity
Although an infant during the Civil War, Winnie Davis nonetheless benefitted from the enslavement of African Americans. She was born at the Confederate White House, which used enslaved labor. In addition, her father’s position as the president of the Confederacy clearly demonstrated her family’s commitment to enslavement. Davis had no memory of the Old South or the Civil War, but she spent much of her adult life appearing at events that glorified the slave South and the Confederacy. Some of her published writings, such as “The Ante-Bellum Southern Woman” and “Home Life of Jefferson Davis,” also supported a romanticized view of enslavement.

More Biographic Details
Davis was born in the Confederate White House in Richmond, VA to Varina Howell and Confederate president Jefferson Davis on June 27, 1864. Her family fled the Confederate capitol in April 1865, leaving days before U.S. troops captured the city. Her mother traveled with Winnie and the other children towards Florida where they planned to rendezvous with her father (ostensibly heading towards Texas) and leave the country. Along the journey, her father often joined the larger family group for visits. U.S. forces captured the entire family in southern Georgia on May 10, 1865. Officials placed Varina Davis and the children on town arrest in Savannah and imprisoned Jefferson Davis at Virginia’s Fortress Monroe. In mid-July 1865 Varina sent the three older children to stay with her mother and sister in Canada; she and Winnie joined them in mid-April 1866. A month later Winnie and her mother moved to Richmond so they could visit Jefferson daily. That fall they moved into an apartment in Fortress Monroe with the imprisoned Jefferson Davis.

After her father’s 1867 release from prison, Winnie traveled extensively with her parents before they all settled in Memphis. Her parents again took Winnie with them to Britain in May 1876, where they hoped Varina’s health would improve and Jefferson could find work. Due in part to her mother’s health issues, Winnie matriculated at the Friedlander School in Karlsruhe Germany in 1876. She learned to speak German and French fluently, and she excelled in literature, music, and fine arts. She
spent her school summers visiting other European cities, including Brussels, Glasgow, and London. At the end of her education (1881) Winnie spent two months visiting Paris with her parents before she moved into their home in Mississippi, Beauvoir. She continued to read widely.

Winnie Davis became a public representation of the Confederacy and Lost Cause in 1886 when she joined her father at a series of Confederate veteran reunions. Large, cheering crowds met the two everywhere in the former Confederacy. At an event in West Point, Georgia former Confederate general John B. Gordon, who would become the governor of the state, introduced Winnie as the “Daughter of the Confederacy.” At subsequent events, her father introduced her the same way. The name stuck as her fame as a symbol of the Lost Cause grew. Her public appearances met with great success. Although she had no memory of the Old South or the Confederacy, she sometimes regaled private audiences with stories that glorified plantation life and minimized the trauma of slavery.

Winnie met New Yorker Alfred Wilkinson, Jr. during a visit to Syracuse. The two fell in love and, after overcoming her parents’ objections to him, became engaged. However, questions about his finances combined with negative public opinion led to the couple’s eventual break up; Southerners could not contemplate the “Daughter of the Confederacy” marrying the grandson of abolitionist Samuel May. Neither ever married.

Winnie actively pursued a writing career on various topics, publishing her poems and articles under her own name. Others sought her out for literary and publishing advice. After her father’s death (1889) Winnie moved with her mother to New York where the two women had a vibrant social life. Winnie published essays in a variety of magazines including New York World, North American Review, and Confederate Veteran. “The Ante-Bellum Southern Woman” (1893) romanticized the Old South and denigrated the intellectual capacities of African Americans as it glorified the roles of the white plantation mistress. Her “Home Life of Jefferson Davis” (1895) similarly romanticized slaveholding and plantation life from the master’s point of view and cast enslaved people as childlike. Davis also published two novels—The Veiled Doctor (1895) and A Romance of Summer Seas (1898)—as well as a biography, An Irish Knight of the Nineteenth Century (1888). She continued to travel the world and to attend Confederate veterans’ reunions and benefits. On September 18, 1898 Winnie Davis died in Narragansett Pier, RI, where she and her mother were spending the summer. Thousands of mourners, both northerners and southerners, lined Richmond’s streets for her funeral procession. They crowded her funeral and her burial—with full military honors—at Richmond’s Hollywood Cemetery next to her father. Members of the United Daughters of the Confederacy as well as Confederate veterans delivered eulogies for her.

Works Cited: