OUR STATE and OUR NATION

Georgia Studies

UNIT 6
Georgia Enters the Second Century of Statehood

1876 - 1917

CHAPTER 15
Political and Social Change in the New South
Redeemers Gain Control
The Progressive Movement

CHAPTER 16
Life of the People in a Changing Society
Industrializing Georgia
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GEORGIA EVENTS

1876
Centennial of Georgia Statehood

1877
Constitution of 1877 adopted

1879
Edison invents electric light

1886
Coca-Cola developed in Atlanta

1889
New state capital building opens

1890
Tom Watson elected to Congress

1891
General Assembly passes first "Jim Crow" laws

1895
Cotton States and International Exposition held in Atlanta

1898
Democratic party begins holding primary elections

1900
First white primary elections held

1876
United States Centennial

1877
Thomas A. Edison invents phonograph

1886
Statue of Liberty dedicated

1889
North and South Dakota, Montana, and Washington admitted into the Union

1890
Idaho and Wyoming admitted into the Union

1891
Populist Party formed

1895
Baby Ruth born

1896
Supreme Court upholds "separate but equal" doctrine; rural free delivery begins

1898
Spanish-American War
United States annexes Hawaii

1903
W.E.B. DuBois organizes Niagara Movement

1907
Alcohol prohibition begins

1908
First white primary elections held

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1910
State regulation of automobiles begins

1912
Girl Scouts first meet in Savannah

1913
Leo Frank trial

1914
Carl Vinson elected to U.S. House of Representatives

1916
First compulsory school attendance law; state highway department created

EVENTS ELSEWHERE

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1914
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1916
First compulsory school attendance law; state highway department created

1906
Atlanta race riot, Georgia's first civic labor law

1907
Alcohol prohibition begins

1908
Literacy test required for voters, "grandfather clause" adopted

1909
Henry Ford introduces Model T

1910
NAACP established

1912
Arizona and New Mexico admitted into the Union

1913
Sixteenth Amendment (federal income tax) adopted

1914
World War I begins in Europe; Panama Canal opens

1915
First long-distance telephone call; New York to San Francisco

1916
Federal-Aid Road Act passed by Congress
SS8H7

Evaluate key political, social, and economic changes that occurred in Georgia during the New South Era.

a. Identify the ways individuals, groups, and events attempted to shape the New South; include the Bourbon Triumvirate, Henry Grady, International Cotton Expositions, and Tom Watson and the Populists.

b. Analyze how rights were denied to African Americans or Blacks through Jim Crow laws, Plessy v. Ferguson, disenfranchisement, and racial violence, including the 1906 Atlanta Riot. SS8E2 Evaluate the influence of Georgia-based businesses on the State’s economic growth and development.

c. Evaluate the economic impact of various industries in Georgia including agricultural, entertainment, manufacturing, service, and technology.
CHAPTER 15

UNIT 6 • GEORGIA ENTERS THE SECOND CENTURY OF STATEHOOD

AT FIRST GLANCE

This chapter covers the political efforts to “redeem” the state from the effects of Republican rule. One of the leading redeemers, Henry Grady, is featured as a Georgian in History. Political challenges to the redeemers led by William and Rebecca Felton and by Tom Watson under the Populist banner are covered, along with the story of how Georgia got a new capitol building. There is a discussion of the Progressive movement and its efforts to systematically preserve white supremacy while promoting social reform. Primary sources on child labor, prisons and chain gangs, prohibition, and voting rights for women are included.

Political and Social Change in the New South

Redeemers Gain Control

The Progressive Movement

In many ways, 1876 was a notable year. It was the 100th anniversary of the nation and of Georgia’s statehood. In the West, Colorado joined the Union as the 38th state. In Montana, General George Armstrong Custer and his entire force of 265 cavalry soldiers were killed by Sioux Indians at the Battle of Little Big Horn. Back east, Alexander Graham Bell obtained a patent for a new invention, the telephone.

This nation’s centennial year also witnessed one of the most controversial presidential elections in American history. Samuel Tilden, a Democrat from New York, won the popular vote against an Ohio Republican, Rutherford B. Hayes. But, by one vote, Tilden failed to win a majority of the electoral votes. By law, Congress then had to determine the winner. Southern Democrats in Congress made a deal. If Hayes would promise to pull out all federal troops remaining in the South, thus ending Reconstruction, they would vote for the Republican.
Redeemers Gain Control

Four years earlier, in 1872, Democrats had regained Georgia’s governorship. The Republican party in the state was rapidly losing strength as a political force. Because of threats and other forms of pressure, Georgia’s black citizens no longer turned out in great numbers to support Republican candidates. Across the state, the number of black officeholders dropped dramatically. Of the 32 blacks elected to the General Assembly in 1868, only 4 returned four years later.

After Reconstruction, Georgia Democrats continued their efforts to “redeem,” that is, to win back, their state from Republican influence. Known as Redeemers, the Democrats worked to undo the changes imposed during Reconstruction. This meant restoring Democrats to public office and making clear that control of society should be in the hands of the white race, an idea known as white supremacy.

CONSTITUTION OF 1877

Although the federal troops were gone and most Republicans removed from office, Georgia still had one holdover

Robert Toombs, a Georgia slaveholder and national public officer holder, initially defended the Union and fought for its preservation. Later when his political views changed he held office as the secretary of state and fought for the Confederacy. At war’s end he avoided arrest by fleeing abroad. Upon return, he never requested a pardon and therefore did not regain his American citizenship. He was known thereafter as the “unreconstructed rebel.”
from Reconstruction—the Constitution of 1868. Many Democrats considered it a document written by the enemy. Robert Toombs, known as the “unreconstructed rebel,” began a campaign to replace it.

In 1877, the General Assembly called for a convention to rewrite Georgia’s 1868 constitution. Toombs quickly took charge of the proceedings. He reminded members of the large state debt and other abuses that occurred during Reconstruction. Now, he argued, was the time to weaken state government and limit its role in economic development.

The resulting Constitution of 1877 was the most restrictive constitution in Georgia history. This new document made it almost impossible for state government to borrow money. Tax money could be spent only for purposes spelled out in the constitution—and these were few. Terms of office for the governor and state senators were reduced from four years to two.

BOURBON REDEEMERS

Many of the new constitution’s supporters wanted Georgia to return to the cotton-based economy of antebellum days. Another Redeemer faction, however, soon gained the upper hand. These Democrats believed that the South’s prosperity

Union Station around 1900. The railroad was an important key to the growth of Atlanta.
depended on manufacturing and other industry, not cotton. Often referred to as Bourbons*, they wanted the state to become more self-sufficient. This meant attracting investors from the North to build mills and factories in Georgia. It also meant farmers needed to diversify (give variety to) their crops. They could do this by growing less cotton and more of the foods and grains usually purchased from other parts of the country. Diversifying agriculture would allow Georgians to buy from Georgians. It would keep badly needed capital from leaving the state.

The Bourbon call for a New South referred to modernizing the economy. It was not a proposal for social or political change. White supremacy, one-party politics, low taxes, and a limited role for state government were still at the heart of the Bourbon program.

Recognized as the three political leaders in the New South movement were ex-

Confederate generals John B. Gordon and Alfred E. Colquitt, and ex-governor Joseph E. Brown. They were referred to as the Bourbon Triumvirate. A strong supporter was Atlanta Constitution editor Henry Grady, who frequently wrote praises of an industrialized South.

**CHALLENGES TO THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY**

From 1865 to 1900, the nation suffered from a depressed economy. During the 1870s, the slowdown was particularly bad in the South. Georgia Democrats in public office feared voters might hold them responsible for the hard times.

Bourbon Democrats in Georgia and other southern states looked for ways to strengthen their support among white voters. One strategy was to ignite white fears of “black rule” and social equality. Without a unified Democratic party,

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* Bourbons - The name “Bourbon” referred to an old French ruling family that returned to power after the French Revolution. During Reconstruction, Radical Republicans gave this title to southern Democrats, who appeared to want to return to the days of old. In reality, Bourbon Democrats came to oppose many aspects of Georgia’s antebellum economy.
whites were warned, the balance of power was in the hands of black voters. White supremacy became a frequent and effective rallying cry in Democratic campaigns for most of the next century.

FARMERS AND POLITICS

The Bourbons had made it clear that they believed the future of the South lay in industry and manufacturing, not in growing cotton. Yet most Georgians were cotton farmers. They believed state government was more concerned with recruiting industry than helping them. Small farmers always seemed to be in debt, and they believed that Bourbon favoritism toward industry was partly responsible for their situation.

In 1874, northwest Georgia farmers organized a challenge to the regular Democratic party. Their leaders were Dr. William H. Felton of Cartersville and his wife, Rebecca Latimer Felton. As an Independent Democrat, Dr. Felton was elected three times to the U.S. Congress on a campaign to help the farmer. Mrs. Felton made speeches, wrote articles, and sent letters to the newspapers about the injustices that farmers and other “little people” were suffering.

The Independent movement reached its peak in 1878, when Georgians elected three Independents to Congress. Despite these successes, the movement died out after 1882, forcing farmers to find another way to challenge the Bourbons.

The next challenge came from a self-help organization known as the Farmers’ Alliance, which came to Georgia in 1887. It attracted farmers rapidly and by 1890 had a membership in the state of 100,000.

The Alliance called for better schools, better roads, and
changes in state tax laws to ease the burden of farmers. The Alliance also confronted the railroads. Farmers had no choice of transportation facilities. They had to pay whatever rate the railroad charged to transport their produce to market. Often the railroad charged the small farmer higher rates than the large shipper. The rates changed frequently and from place to place. The Farmers’ Alliance fought for laws requiring railroads to post their rates in the railroad stations and charge the same rates per mile for all shippers.

Democratic candidates for the General Assembly noted the strength of the Alliance and agreed to support its demands. For two years, a “farmer’s legislature” passed laws to help farmers.

TOM WATSON

One Alliance leader soon became a champion of Georgia’s farmers. He was Thomas E. Watson from Thomson, Georgia. In 1882, McDuffie County’s small farmers—black and rural free delivery, championed by Tom Watson, brought farm families daily delivery of newspapers, catalogs, magazines, advertisements, and letters.
white—joined forces to send this dynamic 26-year-old lawyer to the General Assembly.

Watson did not share Henry Grady’s dream of an industrialized Georgia. He argued that industry would do little to help the majority of Georgians who toiled in the cotton fields. He lashed out at those he saw as the farmers’ enemies: bankers who charged high interest rates, railroads with their high freight rates, and politicians who supported the banks and railroads.

In 1890, with Alliance support, Tom Watson was elected to the U.S. Congress. There, he won a big victory for farming people. He sponsored and pushed through a law providing for RFD—rural free delivery. No longer would farm families have to travel miles to town to pick up their mail.

About this time, a new political movement, the People’s party, was growing in the United States. Many Democrats, including Tom Watson, joined it. The Populists (as they were commonly known) were for political equality and called on all farmers, black and white, to unite.

In the election of 1892, Tom Watson ran for Congress as a Populist. Most Georgians were farmers, but Watson felt that political and economic power was in the hands

Rural free delivery brought rural southerners into closer contact with the rest of the nation.
of merchants, bankers, and lawyers who lived in the cities. Bourbon Democrats, he argued, had allowed business and financial interests in the North to get rich at the expense of the farmer.

The Democrats fought back fiercely. They charged that voting for Watson, a Populist, would split the white vote, allowing blacks to hold political office once again. Many white voters began to have second thoughts. Some voters were paid to vote Democratic. In Richmond County, 2,000 more votes were cast than there were registered voters. In an election filled with fraud, Watson was defeated.

Tom Watson ran again and again as a Populist but never won. Later, he became well known and wealthy from publishing magazines and books. But Watson wound up a bitter, hateful man, turning in particular against African Americans, Catholics, and Jews. ■

1 Define: Populists

2 Identify: Dr. William H. Felton, Rebecca Latimer Felton, Farmers’ Alliance, RFD

3 Why did farmers feel they were being neglected by the policies of the Bourbon Democrats?

4 How did Democrats use the issue of race to defeat Tom Watson in the congressional election of 1892?
## Vocabulary

1. **White supremacy** - The belief that the white race is superior to others and should control government and society.

2. **Diversify** - To introduce variety, such as growing crops other than cotton.

3. **Populists** - The popular name for members of the People’s party, which existed from 1892 to 1912.
EVENTS IN HISTORY

Georgia Gets a Capitol

When Atlanta became Georgia’s capital in 1868, state government met temporarily in an overcrowded building that served as both Atlanta’s city hall and Fulton County’s courthouse. State officials soon decided that Georgia needed a new capitol (central government building). Atlanta agreed to complete an unfinished building downtown known as the Kimball Opera House for use by the state. In 1869, the building was ready and lawmakers moved in.

With the end of Reconstruction, some politicians began calling for the General Assembly to move Georgia’s capital back to Milledgeville. The matter came before the constitutional convention that met in 1877. Atlanta’s city council, however, didn’t want to lose the capital. They proposed to the convention that Atlanta be designated permanent capital of Georgia. In return, the city would build
and give to the state a new capitol “as good as the old Capitol building in Milledgeville.”

Convention delegates decided to place the question of Georgia's state capital on the ballot. Speeches were made across the state. Milledgeville supporters associated Atlanta with Reconstruction abuses. They argued that big city temptations were too great for members of the legislature. Atlanta supporters pointed to Atlanta's growing importance to the state, especially noting its superior rail facilities. In December 1877, by a vote of 99,147 to 55,201, Georgians voted to keep Atlanta as state capital.

Rather than have Atlanta build a new capitol, the General Assembly accepted a payment of $115,625 from the city. The state would be responsible for the remaining costs and would oversee construction. Lack of funds kept the state from acting until 1883, when the General Assembly agreed to spend $1 million to build the new capitol.

On September 2, 1885, the cornerstone of the new capitol was set before a crowd of 10,000 onlookers. Construction was completed in March 1889 and the keys delivered to state officials. On July 4, formal dedication of the capitol took place. At the ceremonies, Gov. John B. Gordon praised the building as a symbol of Georgia's redemption from Reconstruction.
Vocabulary

1 Capitol - The principal building where the business of government is conducted.
He held no political office, but he helped place others in positions of power. He made no new inventions, but he helped the war-torn South create a new image after the Civil War. Although bitterness about the war lingered, he traveled the country in the late 1800s spreading a message of reconciliation. And when in 1889, Henry Woodfin Grady died at age 39, the *Atlanta Constitution* lost its most distinguished editor and the state of Georgia one of its most admired citizens.

Born in Athens in 1850, Henry Grady attended the University of Georgia, where he excelled in academics and public speaking. After graduation, he studied briefly at the University of Virginia before returning to Georgia and writing letters to the *Atlanta Constitution*. In the days before electronic media, newspapers were especially important, and the publication of his letters sparked Grady’s interest in journalism.

For 10 years, Grady worked for various Georgia newspapers before buying, in 1880, one-fourth of the *Atlanta Constitution*. He hired
respected journalists, broadened the paper’s coverage, increased its circulation, and improved its reputation. Its 122,000 weekly sales made the Constitution the region’s most influential newspaper—and Grady equally important. He continued to write for national publications, and his August 1886 reports of the Charleston earthquake were carried worldwide.

Grady was the first southerner to address the annual meeting of the New England Society of New York City, a group of prominent industrialists. On December 22, 1886, he delivered his now-famous “New South” speech in which he described a region rebuilding itself and looking forward to a bright economic future. He used the Atlanta Constitution to deliver a similar message. He also used his considerable influence to plan the International Cotton Exhibition and the Piedmont Exposition, both symbols of the South’s strong economic potential, and to organize Atlanta’s first baseball club.

In 1889, Grady traveled to Boston to speak on race relations. Already ill, he weakened on the return trip, dying of pneumonia at his Peachtree Street home on December 23. A public hospital, a county, a national highway, and the journalism school at the University of Georgia all bear his name.
The Progressive Movement

By the late nineteenth century, the Bourbons were no longer the guiding force in state politics. Despite some success in attracting northern industry and capital, Georgia was still a cotton state. Attempts to diversify agriculture had failed. Yet, even though planters and small farmers could not be convinced to grow different crops, another type of diversification was occurring—the breakup of plantations.

As urban populations grew, new concerns developed about social conditions. An informal group of Democrats known as “Progressives” had some plans for improving conditions in the state. The most influential leader of the movement, Hoke Smith, became governor in 1906.

Like the Bourbons, Progressive Democrats believed in keeping Georgia a one-party state. They also opposed any laws or programs that would promote social equality or competition between the races. Progressives differed from the Bourbons, though. Their attempts to improve society focused on legislating moral behavior (especially with respect to alcoholic beverages), improving education, and helping those in need.

DISFRANCHISEMENT

Progressive Democrats across the South stressed the importance of white supremacy. But they went further, openly supporting a policy of taking away the franchise (the right to vote) from blacks. Some politicians felt disfranchisement (taking away the right to vote) should apply to poor whites as well. One Alabama politician expressed that view when he said that restricting voting would place the power of government in the hands of “the intelligent and virtuous.”
Because the Fifteenth Amendment guaranteed blacks the right to vote, state legislatures could not disfranchise blacks outright.

Instead, they passed laws which technically applied to everyone but had the consequence of making it harder for blacks (and many poor whites) to register and vote.

Since 1798, paying property and other taxes had been a condition for voting in Georgia, but the rule only applied to the previous year’s taxes. The Constitution of 1877 had changed this. Thereafter, in addition to the previous year’s taxes, all unpaid taxes from 1877 on had to be paid in order to vote. Payment was due at least six months before the election.

Among the taxes voters had to pay was the poll tax (a tax on voting). First enacted in 1866, Georgia’s poll tax was an annual $1 tax levied on each male in Georgia between the ages of 21 and 60. (This did not apply to women until 1922, when women gained the right to vote.) Money raised by the tax was earmarked, or

Gov. Hoke Smith was part of the Progressive Movement but believed in white supremacy.
Citizens could not vote until they paid their poll tax. Although the amount was quite small, it was just one more obstacle to discourage poor people from voting.

A second way to disfranchise blacks was to keep them from participating in Democratic party affairs. Until 1898, party leaders from each county had selected candidates for statewide office at a state convention. That year, however, the Democratic party opened the process up to rank-and-file members by holding a primary election. This is a statewide election held by a political party to allow its members to decide who will be their party’s candidate for each race in the general election. The winner of the general election (the official election conducted by the state) then becomes the officeholder.

Few Georgia blacks considered themselves Democrats in 1898, and it is not clear whether any voted in the first Democratic primary. Before the next primary, however, the party’s state committee stepped in. In 1900, the committee ruled that only white Democrats would be allowed to vote in its primaries. Thus was born the white primary.
Those in favor of the white primary recognized that the Fifteenth Amendment kept states from excluding blacks from voting in the general election. But party primaries, Democrats argued, were different. First, they said, each political party is a private organization. Its primaries are private affairs—for members only. Second, party primaries are not real elections; rather, they simply select those who will represent that party in the general election.

By 1900, however, the South was overwhelmingly Democratic. In the general election, there was usually one candidate for each race—a white Democrat. This meant that political races were decided in the Democratic primary, not the general election. Four decades would pass before the U.S. Supreme Court would put an end to the white primary, ruling that it violated the Fifteenth Amendment.

In 1906, Progressive candidate Hoke Smith ran for governor on a platform that included black disfranchisement. At his urging, Georgia lawmakers proposed a constitutional amendment to impose a literacy test on voters. To many Georgia voters, the amendment seemed reasonable: those who select the state’s leaders and amend its constitution should be able to read and write. In 1908, they approved it.

In 1906, Hoke Smith used a band to rally a crowd in front of the Aldine Hotel in Fitzgerald. Later, as a U.S. senator, Smith became nationally known for his work on passing laws to create the Agricultural Extension Service and provide for vocational education.
Why did this action disfranchise blacks? Under slavery it had been against the law to teach blacks to read or write. Efforts to provide schooling for blacks since emancipation had been limited. Thus, most Georgia blacks could not qualify to register to vote.

Because many whites were also illiterate, the law provided exemptions from the literacy test. For example, all persons of “good character” and who “understand the duties and obligations of citizenship under a republican form of government” were exempted from the test. Voter registrars in each county decided on who met these qualifications. Generally, the rule was applied to exempt illiterate whites but not illiterate blacks.

Another exemption was for any person who owned at least 40 acres of land in Georgia or who had other taxable property worth at least $500. Few blacks owned this much land or taxable property.

A third exception to the literacy test went to any person who had served during wartime in the United States or Confederate armies or navies, or who was a descendant of such a veteran. Because many white Georgians had grandfathers who had fought in the Civil War, this provision became known as a **grandfather clause**.

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**PREVENTING SOCIAL EQUALITY**

The Civil War forced the end of slavery, but it did not erase racial attitudes and customs that had grown up over 200 years in America. During Reconstruction, many whites became convinced that the radical Republicans were trying to force black social equality on the South. A central theme first of the Bourbons and later of the Progressives was to uphold white supremacy in all areas of society. This meant almost total **segregation**.
(keeping black people and white people apart in public places). In general, whites refused to associate with blacks as equals.

In 1891, the General Assembly passed the first of a series of laws known as Jim Crow laws. The term “Jim Crow” was taken from an old minstrel song called “Jump, Jim Crow.” It referred to written laws and unwritten customs which kept members of the two races apart. Georgia’s first Jim Crow law required railroads to provide separate passenger cars for blacks and whites. Another law stated that black and white prisoners were to be segregated in convict camps.

Gradually, local governments joined the state in enforcing segregation. Atlanta and Savannah segregated streetcars. Soon Georgia cities had by law segregated theaters, elevators, and park benches. “White” and “Colored” signs appeared in train station waiting rooms, restaurants, and other public facilities.

Blacks protested strongly. But in the 1890s and early 1900s, black boycotts against segregated streetcars gained little reaction from white Georgians. Segregation became an accepted way of life.

In the North as well as throughout the South, attitudes of white supremacy took hold. “De facto” segregation (segregation existing in fact) if not “de jure” segregation (segregation existing by law) became commonplace. Certain areas such as neighborhoods, parks, and beaches were all public accommodations segregated.
became “off limits” to blacks. Certain jobs were closed to them.

Even the federal government accepted segregation as lawful and proper. It continued to maintain separate military units for black and white soldiers after the Civil War.

In 1896, the U.S. Supreme Court delivered a stunning blow to the struggle for black equality. In the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson*, the Court upheld the Louisiana conviction of a black man who tried to ride in a train car reserved for whites. This ruling put the federal courts in support of the so-called *separate but equal doctrine*. If equal public facilities were provided for both races, the Court ruled, then they could be legally separate.

Blacks had no power, however, to make sure facilities such as schools and parks were equal. In fact, black facilities (if they existed at all) were usually far inferior to those provided for whites.

### SOCIAL REFORM

Progressive Democrats were known primarily for their efforts to make life better—especially for some of those less fortunate. They were part of a social reform movement that crossed the United States from 1890 to 1910. Their special targets were evils related to the growth of industries and cities.

As a result of this reform movement, federal, state, and local governments passed laws on subjects they had never before considered. They began to regulate child labor, health and safety standards, and the working conditions of mill and factory workers.

Georgia’s first compulsory (required) school attendance law came in 1916. Not everyone agreed with it or with the child labor laws. Some parents insisted they had a right to work their children as they...
saw fit, without any interference from government. For many years child labor and school attendance laws lacked public support, so they were difficult to enforce.

At a time when fewer Americans were producing their own food, reformers urged lawmakers to protect the public from unwholesome practices in the food industry. Governments passed laws setting standards of cleanliness and providing for inspection of packing houses, bakeries, and canneries. Other laws were passed to protect against products containing narcotics, alcohol, and other potentially harmful ingredients that were being sold as medicines.

Many kinds of reform laws were enacted in the Progressive Era, as it is often called. They covered not only labor and health, but also education, business, moral conduct, and even government itself. Child labor, prison reform, prohibition (forbidding the manufacture and sale of alcoholic beverages), and giving women the right to vote are areas that received attention in Georgia.

**CHILD LABOR**

With the growth of industry—particularly textile mills—Georgia’s children became an important source of labor. Working youngsters were deprived of an education...
and subjected to conditions which would be considered unthinkable today. In some cases, children under age 10 were forced to work 12 hours a day for as little as 4 cents an hour.

In 1906, Georgia Progressives finally moved state government to take a first step toward getting children out of the factories. That year, the General Assembly passed a child labor law prohibiting any boy or girl under 10 years of age from working in a factory. Children under 12 were also excluded, unless the child was an orphan or was helping support a needy parent. Children under 14 could work if they could write their name and a simple sentence and if they had attended school for 12 weeks the previous year.

But these laws and other similar ones were hard to enforce. By 1920, Georgia led...
the nation in number of working children between ages 10 and 15. Not until the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 would the federal government set basic standards for the employment of children.

PRISON REFORM

In 1866, Georgia’s Reconstruction government had faced a growing problem: how to handle persons convicted of serious crimes. The government had little money to spend on the care of prisoners. Also, the state prison had been almost completely destroyed by Sherman’s troops.

To solve this problem, Georgia adopted an approach in use in some other states—the convict lease system. For a fee, state government would lease persons convicted of serious crimes to railroads and other private companies.

LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS

1. Define: prohibition

2. How effective were the child labor law of 1906 and the compulsory school attendance law of 1916 in improving the lives of working children?

Counties, rather than the state, were responsible for road building and maintenance. To save money, counties commonly used convict work gangs for road construction.
This system moved the cost of caring for prisoners from the government to businesses. At the same time, businesses had a source of cheap labor. Across the state, convicts were put to work laying railroad track, mining coal, sawing lumber, making bricks, and distilling turpentine.

As the number of convicts increased in Georgia, the lease system became big business. In 1876, three companies arranged a 20-year lease of almost all the state’s prisoners for $25,000 a year. Some of the state’s top leaders became involved in it. Ex-governor Joseph E. Brown headed one company, and John B. Gordon owned part of another. In 1879, when the lease began, 1,196 convicts were turned over to them. In 1899, when it ran out, the three companies had 2,201 convicts.

Under the lease system, boys as young as 10, women, old men in their 70s, and those who were sick or insane were all treated alike. It soon became clear that the system was a monstrous evil.

The state had regulations that private companies were supposed to follow, but many abuses occurred. For example, it was against regulations to work leased convicts on the Sabbath and longer than sunrise to sunset. Yet some worked as long as 15 hours a day, seven days a week. By day, prisoners usually worked in chains, overseen by “whipping bosses” ready to punish them. At night, some convicts slept chained together or locked in outdoor cages.

In the late 1800s, Georgia’s courts were run by whites only. A black person’s testimony seldom counted. Georgia’s convict population was 90 percent black. The families and friends of black convicts had little influence, so the brutal system continued.

Some well-known Georgians did speak out against the system. The Feltons and Tom Watson fought to have it abolished. Ten years after he himself had leased
convicts, John B. Gordon, as governor, spoke out against the lease system. He told the General Assembly that it “makes possible the infliction of greater punishment than the law and the courts have imposed . . . [and] it reduces to minimum the chances for reformation.”

However, it would be another decade before the efforts of reformers would bring change. They published articles, made speeches, and held mass meetings to arouse the public.

In 1897, Gov. William Atkinson and the General Assembly took the first steps toward prison reform. They set up a state-run prison farm for all female prisoners and for male prisoners either under 15 years old or too sick or weak to work.

Finally, in 1908, reacting to harsh criticism from newspapers and the public, the General Assembly thoroughly investigated the convict lease camps. Its findings were shocking. The system was abolished. Thereafter, prisoners were kept on state prison farms or assigned to county prison camps to work on public roads. Although this change meant better living conditions for many prisoners, the chains and brutal treatment lasted for many years.

Agitation for reform continued. In 1915, the General Assembly, recognizing that young people in trouble should not be treated like adults, created the state’s first juvenile courts. More reforms were to come in the 1930s and 1940s.

PROHIBITION

Several Progressive reforms were designed to enforce “proper” moral behavior. One of these was prohibition.
After the Civil War, the Methodist and Baptist churches, and organizations such as the Woman’s Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) and the Anti-Saloon League tried to stop the sale of liquor in Georgia. At first, a county wanting to go “dry” had to get the General Assembly to pass a law. So many bills were being introduced that in 1885, the General Assembly passed a local option prohibition law, allowing the citizens of each county to vote on the question. The "wet" forces fought back and some counties reversed their vote, but by 1906 over 100 had voted out liquor.

In 1906, Atlanta was the scene of a terrible race riot, which some whites blamed unfairly on drunkenness among black residents. Georgia’s “dry” forces used the riot to push for statewide prohibition. In 1907, they succeeded. The General Assembly made it illegal to manufacture or sell alcoholic beverages in the state. In 1916, lawmakers went further by also making it a crime for citizens to possess liquor. Three years later, the nation voted in prohibition with ratification of the Eighteenth Amendment.

VOTING RIGHTS FOR WOMEN

“Woman suffrage had its inception [beginning] in the fight against Saloons.” These words were spoken by Rebecca

One woman suffragist marcher in this 1913 parade is carrying a sign that reads, “In all but four states, women have some suffrage.” The other signs explain the laws of various states.
Latimer Felton, a leader in the prohibition movement and in the struggle for suffrage— the right to vote—for women.

For many years, Mrs. Felton had fought political battles along with her husband, Dr. William Felton, against the Democrats, liquor candidates, and “big interests.” She saw these groups as working against the hopes of ordinary people. Unlike her husband, however, she could neither vote nor hold political office.

The struggle for woman suffrage was a national one. In the years following the Civil War, Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton tried unsuccessfully to get the Fifteenth Amendment applied to all women as well as all men.

However, at the state level, women were meeting with some success. In 1869, the territory of Wyoming granted voting rights to women. By 1900, Colorado, Idaho, and Utah had done likewise. In Georgia and most other states, however, strong opposition to giving the vote to women persisted.

Mrs. Felton and other Georgia “suffragettes” were not successful at the state level. In 1920, the Nineteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution was ratified, granting women the right to vote. The following year, Georgia complied.
CHAPTER 15 • POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CHANGE IN THE NEW SOUTH

Vocabulary

1. **Franchise** - The right to vote.

2. **Disfranchisement** - Taking away the right to vote.

3. **Poll tax** - A tax on the right to vote. At one time, Georgians had to pay a yearly tax of $1 to vote.

4. **Primary election** - A statewide election held by a political party to choose its candidates for general election.

5. **General election** - The election for national, state, and local offices held in November of even-numbered years on the Tuesday after the first Monday.

6. **White primary** - A primary election to white voters only.

7. **Literacy test** - A test given to persons to prove they can read and write before being allowed to register to vote.

8. **Grandfather clause** - A provision allowing former Confederate soldiers and their male descendants to vote without having to take a literacy test.


11. **Separate but equal doctrine** - The U.S. Supreme Court ruling, in 1897, that separate public facilities for white people and people considered black were legal as long as they were equal in character. The doctrine was overturned in 1954.

12. **Prohibition** - Forbidding the manufacture, sale, or use of alcoholic beverages.
13 **Local option** - Allowing citizens of a country or city to vote on whether a particular law or practice will apply to their community.

14 **Suffrage** - The right to vote, often used in connection with extending the franchise to women.
The following account of working conditions for children is from an 1891 article by Clare de Graffenried, a Macon-born investigator for the U.S. Department of Labor.

The name coined to specify the native folk that spin or weave in the villages and towns is—“Crackers.” The term embraces hundreds of thousands of non-slaveholding whites in antebellum days and their present descendants.

No colored people are employed in textile industries. Their labor market is limited to the cotton fields and farms of the country. . . .

The workers were “borned in the country,” and seldom visit even the neighboring town. Now and then a traveling minister...
enlivens the little church on the hilltop. At intervals a Sunday-school furnishes the only religious instruction. There is no regular school.

All purchases are made on the order system at the “company’s store.” Though it is not compulsory to deal there, there is no competition.

The use of snuff is a withering curse. Habitual users smoke and chew tobacco, and dip snuff and “lip” the powder. Excessive use of this stimulant often creates the desire for a stronger one, and among the older women drunkenness is not uncommon.

The weakness and sickness of the operatives also stems from the early age at which work in the mills is begun. When five or six years old the juveniles follow the mothers to the mills, where they are incarcerated till premature old age. Unmarried women of thirty are wrinkled, bent, and haggard.

Take a little maid whose face is buried in her sunbonnet, and who, when asked her age, responds, “I’m er-gwine on ten.” Push back her bonnet, hoping to find a face of vigor and joy. A sad spectacle reveals itself. Out of unkempt hair look glassy eyes ringed with black circles reaching far down her yellow cheeks. Her nose is pinched, the yellow lips furrowed with snuff stains. The skin is cadaverous [like that of a dead body].

“When do you go to school, my child?”

“Hain’t never been thar,” she responds.

“Never at school! Can’t you read?”

“No, ’m; but Lizy kin.”

“Who is Lizy?”

“Me ’n Lizy’s sisters.”

“Where is your father?”

“Him done dade.”

“And your mother?”

A backward motion of the thumb toward the mill is the only response.

“What is your name?”

“Georgy Alybamy Missippy Kicklighter.”

“What do you do all day, Georgy?”

“Wuks.” The same backward turn of the thumb.

This is the product of three generations of mill workers, the grandmother, mother, and child drudging side by side. None
of them could read or write, none had ever been four miles from their shanty and the factory. “Lizy” was the freak of nature, the genius of the family, having learned her letters at Sunday-school.

Though the public are indifferent, mill officials as a rule oppose child labor as utilized in the South. Often a wholesale dismissal takes place, quickened by protests of labor unions. But, under various pretexts, the gnome-like toilers creep back, because of the scarcity of hands. A most powerful factor in this abuse is that the fathers will not work and the little ones must. Year after year bills to prevent the employment of children under ten and twelve are defeated in the legislature.

INTERPRETING THE SOURCE

1. What contributed to the bad health of mill workers?

2. Support the following statement with phrases from the article: The life of mill workers revolved around the mill.

3. To what factor did de Graffenried attribute the use of child laborers in the mills?
African-American leader and teacher Selena Sloan Butler was interested in many social reforms. As a member of the National Association of Colored Women, she supported prison reform in an 1897 speech, excerpted here.

The Chain Gang System

It is those convicts leased to private corporations who suffer miseries which [only] their poor miserable selves and God know. The chain-gang bosses, as a rule, are selected from the lowest element of the white race, and rather glory in their office and the freedom of dealing out misery and cruelty to helpless convicts for small offences, and often for no offence at all. Many of the chain-gang camps are situated in places remote from settlements and public roads, where no one can interfere with the inhuman treatment these poor, helpless creatures receive from beings who would be a disgrace to the brute kingdom. Many of the prisoners have scarcely enough clothing on their uncared for bodies to protect them from the gaze of others, or from winter’s cold or summer’s heat. . . . The majority of the prisoners in these private camps are poorly fed. . . .
In one camp sixty-one men were found sleeping in a room
not more than nineteen feet square and seven feet from floor
to ceiling. . . . Many of these convicts know not the comfort of
sleeping upon even a cheap mattress or heap of straw, but must
wrap about their tired and neglected bodies a blanket much
worn and filled with dirt and vermin, and lie down, not upon a
wood floor, but the dirt floor of a tent. . . .

. . . Little or no provision is made for the care of the sick; some
have been forced to work till they fell upon the ground, dead.
Wet and Dry Map
THE COUNTIES THAT LEGALIZE THE SALE OF LIQUOR ARE IN BLACK (1906)

“The church could destroy the liquor business if it would—The liquor business would destroy the church if it could.”

Help wipe these foul blots from our State. The women of Georgia appeal to you in the name of God and Home and Native Land.


PROHIBITION SONG LYRICS

Make the Map All White

O my comrades, have you heard the glorious word that’s going ’round? There’ll very soon be no saloon on all Columbia’s ground, There’s a wave of prohibition rolling up from every strand, And all the states it inundates straightway become dry land! By city, state or country, or by township or town, Just let the people have a chance—we’ll vote the dramshops down—

Refrain:
Till we make the map all white, Till we make the map all white, We work for prohibition Till we make the map all white.

The distillery and the brewery and the winery must go; The saloons can stay no longer, when the people have said “NO!” So we’ll sing them out and pray them out and educate them out; We’ll talk them out and vote them out and legislate them out; We’ll agitate and organize and surely win the fight, We’ll work for prohibition till we make the map all white.

Repeat refrain.
In the following reading, Rebecca Latimer Felton, in a speech in 1915, responds to some of the arguments against woman suffrage.

**Votes for Women**

It is claimed that a woman should not vote, because she does not pay her husband’s debts, while he is obliged to pay hers. That is not correct. He can put a little “ad” in the newspaper and nobody will give her credit who sells dry goods or provisions.

It is said that women are represented by their husbands at the ballot box. This is not true of the ten millions of unmarried women who have nobody to vote for them. (But there are eight or nine millions of unmarried men, who vote for nobody but themselves. And, nobody votes for the drunkard’s wife!)

There are as many widows in this country as widowers. As a rule they manage well their business affairs. . . . They deserve the ballot because their property is taxed to the limit and beyond, and they are not allowed to protest.

Women make fine teachers. But, a callow youth can vote at 21, while his capable teacher, a woman, is forbidden to vote. Women are the mainstays in public schools. They are not only forbidden the vote, but their pay is reduced because of their sex.

They make superior stenographers, but while their pay may reach $50 a month; the young man in trousers gets from $75 to $100, with no better work—and according to common report, not so reliable as to fidelity and regular work habits.
The more I think about these inequalities and this manifest injustice, the more I am tempted to eulogize [praise] the heathen who lived on the Ganges river, and who drowned the girl babies, because they were unfit to live!
CHAPTER 15 QUIZ

Text Version
Evaluate key political, social, and economic changes that occurred in Georgia during the New South Era.

a. Identify the ways individuals, groups, and events attempted to shape the New South; include the Bourbon Triumvirate, Henry Grady, International Cotton Expositions, and Tom Watson and the Populists.

b. Analyze how rights were denied to African Americans or Blacks through Jim Crow laws, Plessy v. Ferguson, disenfranchisement, and racial violence, including the 1906 Atlanta Riot.


d. Examine antisemitism and the resistance to racial equality exemplified in the Leo Frank case.

Explain how the four transportation systems (road, air, water, and rail) of Georgia contribute to the development and growth of the state’s economy.

b. Explain how the four transportation systems provide jobs for Georgians.

Evaluate the influence of Georgia-based businesses on the State's economic growth and development.

b. Explain how entrepreneurs take risks to develop new goods and services to start a business.

c. Evaluate the economic impact of various industries in Georgia including agricultural, entertainment, manufacturing, service, and technology.
CHAPTER 16

Columbus cotton mill located at the Fall Line on the Chattahoochee River.

AT FIRST GLANCE

This chapter covers efforts to attract industry to Georgia, as well as changes in agriculture. As large plantations were subdivided, tenant farming and sharecropping became characteristic of the state’s agriculture. The demise of plantations resulted in the growth of towns and cities. The chapter also discusses the hardening of attitudes and increasing violence between blacks and whites. Primary sources representing the differing views of black leaders Booker T. Washington, John Hope, and W. E. B. DuBois are included. A look at the developments in education and recreation and a Georgians in History feature on Juliette Low, founder of the Girl Scouts, conclude the chapter.

Life of the People in a Changing Society

Industrializing Georgia
Agriculture
Growth of Towns and Cities
Strains on Georgia Society
Education and Leisure in Georgia

As the twentieth century approached, most Georgians had to struggle just to make a living. The state’s heavy dependence on cotton and its lack of factory jobs continued to hold its people back. Two out of every three Georgia workers were engaged in farming. With an average income of $259 a year in 1900, Georgia farmers were among the poorest people in the nation.

At the same time, towns and cities were growing in numbers. There, residents not only enjoyed better incomes but even had such luxuries as electric lights, indoor plumbing, streetcars, and paved streets.

Determined to rise from the ashes of the Civil War, thousands of Georgians, natives and newcomers alike, looked for ways to improve their way of life.
Industrializing Georgia

The New South concept—one based on manufacturing and industry, not just agriculture—appealed to many Georgia leaders. Henry Grady, its most enthusiastic booster, thought that Georgia and other southern states were serving as little more than economic colonies of the North. Southern cotton was shipped north, where it was made into clothing and then shipped back south to be sold at a handsome profit.

To illustrate Georgia's dependency on the North, Grady liked to tell the story of a funeral in which the only thing from Georgia was the body and the hole in the ground:

A few years ago I told, in a speech, of a burial in Pickens County, Georgia. The grave was dug through solid marble, but the marble headstone came from Vermont. It was in a pine wilderness, but the pine coffin came from Cincinnati. An iron mountain overshadowed it, but the coffin nails and screws and the shovels came from Pittsburgh. With hard woods and metals abounding, the corpse was hauled on a wagon from South Bend, Indiana. A hickory grove grew near by.

The cover of this Harper’s Weekly symbolizes industry as the queen of the New South.
but the pick and shovel handles came from New York. The cotton shirt on the dead man came from Cincinnati, the coat and breeches from Chicago, the shoes from Boston; the folded hands were encased in white gloves from New York, and round the poor neck, that had worn all its living days the bondage of lost opportunity, was twisted a cheap cravat [necktie] from Philadelphia. That county, so rich in undeveloped resources, furnished nothing for the funeral except the corpse and the hole in the ground, and would probably have imported both of those if it could have done so.

Grady believed that the key to breaking the South’s dependency and poverty was industrialization. Yet the South did not have the capital to build new factories.
and mills. During the 1870s and 1880s, Grady traveled throughout the North urging businessmen there to invest their money in the South. In his eagerness to industrialize, Grady took the message that all was forgiven and northerners were now welcome in the South. From his desk at the *Atlanta Constitution*, he fired off articles painting the bright future of an industrialized South.

To a degree, the New South message was successful. The rise in manufacturing in Georgia between 1870 and 1910 was dramatic. In 1870 only about $14 million was invested in manufacturing establishments. By 1890, that figure had risen to almost $57 million, and by 1910 it would exceed $202 million.

TEXTILE MANUFACTURING

Cotton mills had existed in Georgia since 1829. Before the Civil War they were small

Textile mills primarily hired women to work in factories.

This map shows how the New South is linked by railroad to Washington, DC, New York, and other major cities in the North.
mills located mainly along the Fall Line where water power was plentiful. Even then, Georgians had to buy almost all their manufactured goods, including cotton cloth, from outside the state.

But Georgia had the potential to manufacture cotton goods on a large scale. Many Georgia business and government leaders thought it would be a way to industrialize the state. After all, Georgia had lots of cotton. It had enough available labor. All that was needed was heavy investment in large textile plants.

In 1881, Atlanta staged the International Cotton Exposition with over 1,100 exhibits. The idea was to bring people to Georgia and show them why they should invest in industry in the state. In one popular feature at the exposition, cotton growing in a field was picked in the morning, ginned, woven, and tailored into a suit all in the same day. Governor Colquitt put on the cotton suit and then made a speech and toured the fairgrounds in it.

The 1881 fair was such a success that Atlanta held another, the Piedmont Exposition, in 1887. The president of the United States, Grover Cleveland, attended. The fairgrounds later became Piedmont Park.

Then, in 1895, the city put on its biggest
show, the Cotton States and International Exposition. On display were the resources and achievements of Georgia and the other cotton-producing states. Booker T. Washington, a black educator, spoke on the role of black people in the South’s economic life as he saw it.

As a result of these and other efforts to attract industry, textile manufacturing was Georgia’s leading industry by 1900. Textile mills sprang up across the state, many financed or owned by northern companies. They came for many reasons. The mills were closer to cotton fields, cutting down transportation costs. Taxes were lower and the climate milder. But the main reason was the availability of cheap labor in the Tenant farmers near Atlanta around 1910.
South. Widespread poverty for both whites and blacks ensured a ready source of men, women, and children to work long hours. In some towns, the mill was the only source of jobs. In many cases, the entire family had to work, with men making only a few dollars a day, women less, and children as little as 75 cents for a full day’s labor. As partial compensation, mills often provided housing and other benefits to their workers. A village of identical houses grew up next to the mill, complete with company store, church, park, and other services. And no matter how small their salaries, mill workers had a better standard of living than most farmers.

In the late 1800s, labor union organizers became active in recruiting workers, promising to improve their wages and working conditions. Successful in the industrial states of the North and Midwest, labor unions were slow to develop in Georgia. They were opposed by mill owners, who wanted to keep wages low and profits high. Blacks generally were allowed only menial jobs in factories and mills. Any attempt by black workers to organize a union was viewed with suspicion and as a threat against white employees.

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OTHER INDUSTRY

Georgians and investors from other states put their money into many kinds of industries. Iron, coal, gold, and clay were mined. Granite and marble quarries were developed. New factories and mills, steam-powered as well as water-powered, turned out a variety of products, such as cottonseed oil, fertilizer, construction materials, and furniture. Wherever the resources and the railroads were available, manufacturing plants might spring up. In time, new towns grew up around the mills and factories.

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LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS

1. What point was Henry Grady trying to make in his story about the Pickens County burial?
2. Use the graphs to determine the year employment in manufacturing and value of goods manufactured in Georgia began to rise sharply. How many people were employed in manufacturing in 1860? In 1900?
3. What do you think was the main purpose of Georgia’s great cotton expositions in the 1880s and 1890s?
Agriculture

Although industry became more important to Georgia’s economy in the late 1800s, the state remained mainly rural and agricultural. Some Georgia farmers attempted to diversify. A few tried growing fresh vegetables for nearby markets. Others experimented with raising peaches, pecans, corn, cattle, and hogs. Cotton, however, remained king. In fact, more cotton was now produced than in the antebellum years. Georgia’s Black Belt region, so named for its high percentage of black residents, continued to form the heart of cotton country.

These were known as tenant farmers. Landowners would divide their plantations into small sections, constructing on each a simple (and often crude) dwelling place for the tenant farmer to live in. Each family

Many tenant farmers and sharecroppers barely got by. Not all lived in houses this run-down, but thousands did.

TENANT FARMING

Across the South, planters were in dire need of laborers to work their fields. They turned to poor whites and blacks who had no land of their own but who were willing to live on and work someone else’s land.
then worked its part of the land as if it were a separate farm.

Some tenant farmers were renters. They agreed to farm a section of land, providing their own seed and supplies. At the end of the season, when they sold their crops, they were to pay the landowner an agreed-upon amount in cash. In some cases, the rent was a portion of the crop harvested.

But some Georgians were too poor even to rent. All they had was a willingness to work. For these poor people, and for landowners in need of labor, a new system of tenant farming emerged—

**sharecropping**

This was an arrangement where a landowner provided land to farm, a house, plows, mules, seed, and other supplies to a family. In return, the owner received a share of the crop raised on the land. Various kinds of deals were worked out between landlords and sharecroppers (known as “croppers”) for dividing up the costs of raising a crop and the income from selling it.

**ADVANTAGES AND RISKS OF RENTING**

Renters were not under an owner’s direct supervision. This meant that a renter was responsible for managing his part of the owner’s land. This kind of independence appealed to many tenants, black and white.

However, there were drawbacks to renting. The renter had to know how to farm. He had to make his own decisions about buying seed, using fertilizer, and raising and selling his crop. He took all the risks, not the landowner. If the renter mismanaged his farm or lost his crop because of bad weather, he suffered all the loss—not the owner who still was due the rent.

The renter who made no money off one
year’s work soon found himself in debt. To pay off what he owed, the renter might have to sell his mules, plows, and other tools. Next year, he would likely be a sharecropper.

CREDIT

To make money, a farmer had to have money. Unless he could sell something, the only way the Georgia farmer could get money was to borrow it. It was usually difficult for poor farmers to borrow from the bank. This meant buying goods “on credit” from local merchants.

Whether they borrowed money from a bank or bought on credit from a merchant, farmers had to put up security. That is, they had to possess something of value the lender could have in case farmers couldn’t pay off their debt. The loan security that bankers and merchants demanded was a crop lien—a legal claim—on the farmer’s cotton crop. The crop always had more value than anything else a Georgia farmer might possess. To protect lenders, Georgia law required that the merchant or bank be paid off first, once the farmer sold his cotton.

What happened if farmers raised a crop too small to pay off their debts? Or if the price they got for their cotton was too low? Obviously, merchants could easily fall into debt as well. They too borrowed money—sometimes from northern banks—to set up their businesses. They also bought on
credit the supplies they sold to farmers. They had bills to pay.

Often a merchant had to take the owner’s land or the tenant’s work stock and sell it to pay off his own debts. Usually, however, he chose to carry the farmer’s debts another year. He would often extend more credit and hope that next year’s crop would bring enough to pay off two years’ worth of debt.

HELP FOR THE FARMER

Georgia’s system of agriculture involved thousands of families sharecropping or renting small farms and living on a local merchant’s credit. It meant years of poverty and debt for these Georgians. Dissatisfied, many of them organized to improve the situation.

The Grange, a nationwide “self-help” farmer organization, came to Georgia
in 1872. It set up cooperative stores—stores run by and for farmers—where members could buy supplies directly from producers. Its aim was to cut out the merchant’s markup and get supplies at lower cost. By 1876, about 18,000 Georgia farmers had joined the Grange.

In 1874, Georgia Grangers and other farmers pressed the General Assembly to create a Department of Agriculture (the first of its kind in the nation). The department’s purpose was to improve agriculture by distributing information about new seed, and how to use fertilizer, control insects, and market crops.

About the same time, the University of Georgia established a College of Agriculture. The state also set up agricultural experiment stations to determine what plants and animals could be most profitably raised on Georgia farms.

Grange membership dropped after 1880, but help came to the farmer in 1887 from another self-help group—the Farmers’ Alliance. Farmers joining the Alliance could borrow money at lower interest rates. The Alliance also set up farmer “co-ops” and organized boycotts of suppliers who charged too much.

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. **Define:** Black Belt, tenant farmers, sharecropping, crop lien

2. **Why was credit so important to farmers?** In order to get a loan, what possession did a farmer have to put up as security?

3. **How were farmers helped by the Grange?** the General Assembly? the University of Georgia?
Vocabulary

1. **Black Belt** - Heart of the cotton-growing region in the South, so named for its high percentage of black residents.

2. **Tenant farmers** - A poor farmer who did not own land and had to live on and work the land of others, either for wages or a share of crop they produced.

3. **Sharecropping** - A system of tenant farming in which the tenant works someone else’s land for a share of the crop.

4. **Crop lien** - A legal claim on the crop of the farmer as payment for a loan given to grow that crop.
Growth of Towns and Cities

Although most of Georgia’s people were rural farmers, the main population growth was in the state’s towns, villages, and cities. Tenant farming and the arrival of new industries in Georgia were two reasons for this development.

Tenant farmers needed seed, tools, and supplies to start crops. At the end of the season, they needed a place to trade and to gin and press their cotton. Planters, recognizing the opportunity to add to their incomes, began operating cotton gins, general stores, and other businesses to supply their tenants. Soon, with the addition of a church, a small school, and a blacksmith shop, a small village was created.

The movement to attract new industries to Georgia gave its cities a boost. Sometimes the industry would be the reason a city or town developed. A ginning operation or a sawmill might draw workers to an area. As more workers were needed, stores and schools would appear. Similarly, new industries locating in established cities needed factory hands and workers for their operation. As a result, the populations in those cities increased.

Alonzo Herndon (center), president of the Atlanta Life Insurance Company, which was located on Auburn Avenue. Born into slavery, Herndon became a very successful and wealthy businessman. At his death in 1927, his insurance company had expanded into several other states.
Although Georgia's rural population continued to grow, many people chose to leave the countryside for the city. By 1910, one out of every three residents lived in a village, town, or city. That year, Georgia had 45 cities and towns with at least 2,500 residents, and an additional 500 villages and small communities.

**ATLANTA: GATE CITY OF THE SOUTH**

Atlanta was a city developed around railroads. A prospering city before the war, it was destroyed by General Sherman. Of about 3,600 homes in the city, 400 were left standing when he departed. But like the mythical phoenix bird, reborn from the ashes of its own destruction, Atlanta rose with amazing speed from the ashes left by Sherman’s torch. By 1910, its population was more than four times greater than in 1880, growing from about 37,000 to nearly 155,000. Largely responsible for this growth was the railroad. Fifteen different rail lines served Atlanta, making it the warehouse distribution center for the Southeast. Atlanta’s transportation advantage and its New South philosophy influenced numerous businesses from the North and Midwest to open regional headquarters and branch offices there. Atlantans began to enjoy their city’s reputation as “Gate City of the South.”

Atlanta’s growing prosperity and the lure of jobs attracted many people. As Georgia’s capital city, Atlanta was temporary home to many politicians as well as home to government workers. Sales representatives found Atlanta a convenient and exciting place to stay while they traveled the Southeast doing business. Unsuccessful tenant farmers came to the city looking for day jobs. Ambitious entrepreneurs (people who take the risk of establishing businesses) saw opportunities there. They recognized that a growing urban population needed
grocery stores, drugstores, general stores, transportation, and many other services to survive in the city. All this activity increased the rate of growth of Georgia’s largest city.

Black Georgians moved to Atlanta, where they found freedoms and opportunities they did not have in the countryside. Black-owned and -operated businesses were established to serve Atlanta’s growing population. The area around Auburn Avenue soon developed into a social and commercial center for African Americans that became known throughout the country.

One very successful business on Auburn Avenue, the Atlanta Life Insurance Company, was owned by Alonzo Herndon, a former slave from Walton County. At the time of his death in 1927, his company was worth over $1 million. Before buying the insurance business, Herndon operated several barbershops. The largest and most elegant, on Peachtree

In the early 1900s, Auburn Avenue was the heart of Atlanta’s African-American community. Ebenezer Baptist Church and the King Center are located here.
Street, had 25 chairs and served, because of segregation, an all-white clientele. Herndon gave generously to worthy causes and made many contributions that improved life in Atlanta’s black community.

Two other Atlanta “institutions” came into existence during this period. Rich’s, later thought of as “Atlanta’s department store,” was established in 1867 through the hard work and perseverance of Morris Rich, an immigrant from Hungary. Rich, after working as a store clerk and peddler in Ohio and Tennessee, chose Atlanta as the place to open a small dry goods* store. After several moves to accommodate an expanding inventory, Morris was joined by his two brothers. Known as “M. Rich & Bros.,” the store continued to grow and flourish. Rich’s success reflected Atlanta’s progress.

Coca-Cola, the most famous product Georgia has ever produced, was developed in Atlanta in 1886. Originally

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* dry goods - “Dry goods” included textiles, ready-made clothing, and notions rather than hardware and grocery items.
sold in drugstores as a headache remedy, it was created by John Pemberton, a druggist. When a soda fountain operator at Jacob’s Drug Store mixed the remedy with carbonated water rather than tap water to provide quick headache relief to a customer, the result made history. Frail health forced Dr. Pemberton to sell his interests in the remedy. Asa G. Candler eventually acquired total ownership of the product for $2,300 and a few items in trade. Candler emphasized the refreshing qualities of the drink rather than its medicinal values, and by 1895 it was sold in every state in the union. In 1919, Candler sold Coca-Cola for $25 million to the Trust Company of Georgia, headed by Ernest Woodruff. His son, Robert W. Woodruff, became president of the corporation in 1923. Under his leadership, Coke became an international product before the start of World War II. ■

LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS

1 How could a new industry help a town develop and grow?

2 Why was Atlanta known as the “Gate City of the South?”

3 What were the advantages of living in a city or town? Can you think of any disadvantages?

If you’ve got an idea for the next great flavor of Coca-Cola but don’t know what to do with it, we’ve got you covered. We visit the world headquarters of The Coca-Cola Company in downtown Atlanta, and talk with a few of their nearly 100,000 employees about what it takes to be one of the most recognized brands on the planet. It turns out those high school chemistry classes might come in handy.
[This exposition] will awaken among us a new era of industrial progress. Ignorant and inexperienced, it is not strange that in the first years of our new life we began at the top instead of at the bottom; that a seat in Congress or the State Legislature was more sought than real estate or industrial skill; the political convention or stump-speaking [campaigning] had more attraction than starting a dairy farm or truck garden. . . .

Our greatest danger is that in the great leap from slavery to freedom we may overlook the fact that the masses of us are to live by the productions of our hands, and fail to keep in mind that we shall prosper in proportion as we learn to dignify and glorify common labor, and put brains and skill into the common occupations of life. . . .

No race can prosper till it learns that there is as much dignity in tilling a field as in writing a poem. It is at the bottom of life we must begin, and not at the top. Nor should we permit our grievances [complaints] to overshadow our opportunities. . . .
The wisest among my race understand that the agitation of [fighting over] questions of social equality is the extremest folly, and that progress in the enjoyment of all privileges that will come to us must be the result of severe and constant struggle rather than of artificial forcing. . . .

It is important and right that all privileges of the law be ours, but it is vastly more important that we be prepared for the exercise of these privileges. The opportunity to earn a dollar in a factory just now is worth infinitely [much] more than the opportunity to spend a dollar in an opera house. . . .

—Booker T. Washington, 1895
Why Not Equality?

If we are not striving for equality, in heaven’s name for what are we living? I regard it as cowardly and dishonest for any of our colored men to tell white people or colored people that we are not struggling for equality.

If money, education, and honesty will not bring to me as much privilege, as much equality as they bring to any American citizen, then they are to me a curse, and not a blessing. God forbid that we should get the implements [tools] with which to fashion our freedom, and then be too lazy to fashion it. Let us not fool ourselves or be fooled by others. If we cannot do what other freemen do, then we are not free.

Yes, my friends, I want equality—nothing less. I want all that my God-given powers will enable me to get—then why not equality? Now catch your breath, for I am going to use an adjective: I am going to demand social equality. In this Republic we shall be less than freemen if we have a whit less than that which thrift, education, and honor afford other freemen. If equality—political, economic, and social—is the boon [reward] of other men in this great country of ours, then equality—political, economic, and social—is what we demand.

—John Hope, 1896
Niagara Movement Aims

These are the things we as black men must do:

• Stop the curtailment of our political rights.
• Urge Negroes to vote intelligently and effectively.
• Push the matter of civil rights.
• Organize business co-operation.
• Build school houses and increase the interest in education.
• Open up new avenues of employment. . . .
• Distribute . . . information in regard to laws of health.
• Bring Negroes and labor unions into mutual understanding.
• Study Negro history.
• Increase the circulation of honest newspapers and periodicals.
• Attack crime among us by all civilized methods. . . .

—W. E. B. Du Bois, 1905
In the years following Reconstruction, there was a great effort by whites throughout the South—and indeed in much of the rest of the nation—to keep blacks “in their place.”

Many white people felt that the “place” of black people was in the countryside, working as tenant farmers. Some whites, such as the Populists, were willing to grant blacks political equality, but very few were willing to consider social equality. At the same time, black leaders expressed different ideas about accepting the place whites thought they should occupy.

**BLACK LEADERS DIFFER**

Probably the best-known African-American leader in the 1890s and early 1900s was Booker T. Washington. Washington built Tuskegee Institute in Alabama into a leading center of education for blacks. There he stressed technical training, learning a trade, and agriculture. Washington made many
speeches around the country, calling on whites to support this kind of education for blacks.

In 1895, Booker T. Washington came to Atlanta to speak at the Cotton States and International Exposition. There he gave one of his most famous speeches, calling on fellow blacks to accept their status for the time being and forget about social equality and political action. Rather, Washington advised, learn a skill, become self-sufficient, and acquire a home.

Eventually, full rights and privileges would come, but in the meantime, blacks first should prepare themselves to exercise these rights.

Many whites liked Washington’s message, which quickly became known as the “Atlanta Compromise.” While some blacks followed his line of thinking, others did not. Among black leaders not agreeing with Washington were John Hope and William E. B. Du Bois.
For many years, Dr. John Hope was one of the nation’s leading educators. He was president of Morehouse College in Atlanta and later president of Atlanta University. In 1896, a year after Booker T. Washington had presented his views, Hope challenged them.

William E. B. Du Bois was born in 1868 in Massachusetts. In the same year that Washington spoke at the Atlanta exposition, Du Bois became the first African-American student to earn a Doctor of Philosophy degree at Harvard University.

Like Dr. Hope, Dr. Du Bois was associated with Atlanta University, teaching and studying the problems of black people living in America. He was an outspoken, controversial leader in the fight for black civil rights. In 1903, his book *The Souls of Black Folk* made it clear that all black leaders did not agree with Washington’s views.

In 1905, in New York, Du Bois organized the Niagara Movement, the first national effort to end Jim Crow laws. Four years later, he helped found the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and edited its magazine, *The Crisis*.

Lugenia Burns Hope, the wife of John Hope, was a successful social and community activist. Her work not only brought about immediate changes but also laid the foundation for change during the Civil Rights era and later influenced Pres. Jimmy Carter’s Atlanta Project. Known for challenging racism and encouraging interracial cooperation, Mrs. Hope was nationally recognized. She founded the Neighborhood Union after she had college students survey people living in the area surrounding Morehouse. The college students asked residents about their needs for childcare and recreational facilities. The Neighborhood Union used the resources of Atlanta’s black colleges to provide services that were not offered anywhere else. The organization became an international model for community
building as well as race and gender activism. As the Neighborhood Union grew, so did Lugenia Hope’s stature on the national scene. She left an important legacy of caring coupled with activism.

VIOLENCE AND LAWLESSNESS

A year after Du Bois launched the Niagara Movement in New York, race relations in Georgia were getting worse. In a bitter campaign for the governorship, one candidate for the Democratic party nomination called for taking the vote away from blacks. A month after the primary election, a race riot in Atlanta left 25 blacks and 1 white dead.

The 1906 Atlanta race riot was not an isolated incident of racial violence. By then, Georgia had gained an unwanted reputation for lynchings. The victims of this form of murder—carried out by unruly mobs—were mostly black people. In the worst year, 1899, 27 African-American men were lynched for alleged crimes ranging from “inflammatory language” and “resisting arrest” to “robbery and murder.”

As Jim Crow laws were passed and blacks were denied the vote, racial hatred became more intense. Tom Watson, the man who had spoken up for blacks in the 1880s, now preached racial hatred and violence. He had learned that the votes of poorer, less-educated whites could be won by playing on their fears of black social equality. Eventually Watson told the readers of his newspaper that Jews and Catholics were also their enemies.

In 1913, Leo M. Frank, a white factory manager who was a Jew, was tried for the murder of a 14-year-old girl at the pencil factory he managed. In a disorderly trial dominated by loud and abusive spectators, Frank was found guilty and sentenced to hang. The evidence used to convict Frank was highly suspect, but
appeals to the Georgia and U.S. Supreme Courts were unsuccessful. Reviewing the trial record, Gov. John Slaton was so troubled that he reduced the sentence to life imprisonment. In 1915, urged on by anti-Jewish editorials written by Tom Watson, a lynch mob took Frank from state prison and hanged him. His lynching gained national attention. That year, the Ku Klux Klan was reborn at Stone Mountain.

BLACK REACTION TO VIOLENCE

Unable to seek help from white judges, law enforcement officials, or politicians, Georgia African Americans responded to lawlessness, lynching, and discrimination with their feet. At first, they left rural farms and moved to large cities or went to work in mills or on the railroad. But here they continued to experience Jim Crow discrimination, low wages, lack of schools, lynching, and violence. Should a company owner or manager hire a black, white workers at the facility would frequently strike until the black worker was fired.

From 1910 to 1930, in what became known as the Great Migration, nearly 1.6 million African Americans left the rural South in search of a better life in northern cities.

This scenic photo taken in southern Utah shows one of many different geographic regions in the United States. Even if you didn’t know where it was taken, how would you know this isn’t Georgia?
As a result of intense discrimination and violence in the early 1900s, African Americans began leaving Georgia altogether and heading to other states. Their destinations were New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago. What has been termed the “Great Migration” began in 1914 when five railroad trains left Savannah headed north for promised jobs with a northern railroad company. Though jobs in the North paid blacks up to 10 times what they could make in the South, they still amounted to a cheap source of labor for northern business and industry. Up to 50,000 African Americans left Georgia in 1916 and 1917. Whenever lynching or mob violence would occur in a Georgia community, the result often was a wholesale exodus of blacks. By 1917, so many blacks had left Georgia that white businessmen and farmers were concerned about a major labor shortage. Many jobs were now going unfilled because there were no blacks left to take them. At last, the Great Migration had convinced most white politicians, businessmen, and newspaper editors to begin speaking out against lynching and violence.

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. **Identify:** Booker T. Washington, John Hope, William E. B. Du Bois, Niagara Movement, Great Migration

2. Why do you think Booker T. Washington’s speech became known as the “Atlanta Compromise?”

3. According to Dr. John Hope, what does the phrase “social equality” mean?
Education and Leisure in Georgia

The Constitution of 1868 set the stage for Georgia’s public school system. It provided for a “thorough system of general education to be forever free to all children of the state.” Two years later, the schools got their real start. The General Assembly created the office of state school commissioner and the board of education. In 1871, with an appropriation of $174,000 from the legislature, the public schools of Georgia enrolled about 31,000 children. Schools were to be open three months of each year.

At first, public support for the schools was meager. Many poor Georgia parents needed children to work to make ends meet. Most parents had received little or no formal education and believed school was a waste of time. Even though white and black schools would be segregated, some whites disapproved of public education for blacks.

Then, in 1872, Gustavus J. Orr was appointed school commissioner. Almost single-handedly he built a permanent system of public education for Georgia. For 15 years he traveled through the state, often at his own expense, pointing out the benefits of schooling. He encouraged citizens to tax themselves to pay for education.

In 1902, Martha Berry began a school near Rome, Georgia, allowing underprivileged children to work and earn an education. She worked tirelessly, using her own money and enlisting the generous support of the others to bring quality education to her students. Berry College, founded in 1926, continues today in the same tradition.
schools. He helped county school boards make the most of the little money available for education. Commissioner Orr is remembered as the “father of the common school system” in Georgia.

ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOLS

Into the early 1900s, public education was mostly a local—not a state—effort. Local property taxes furnished most of the money for the schools. Georgia was a poor state, so these funds were not easy to raise.

According to the Constitution of 1877, state funds could be used for elementary grades and for the state university, but not for high schools. Teenagers were needed to work on the farms or in the textile mills. Besides, some delegates who wrote the 1877 constitution worried that a high school education would only make youngsters unhappy with their station in life. Thus, if a community wanted to have a high school, it would have to pay for it on its own.

In 1912, Georgia voters approved amendments to the state constitution that included high schools in state funding. They also gave counties the authority to levy taxes for their support. As a result, by 1920 Georgia had 169 high schools.

Meanwhile, Georgia’s General Assembly had recognized that all children needed some education. In 1916 it passed the state’s first compulsory school attendance law. The law said that all children ages 8 to 14 had to attend school for at least four months of the year. However, if a child lived more than three miles from the nearest school, he or she could be excused from attending. A child could also be excused for seasonal labor in agriculture.

In rural areas, schools usually had only one room with no electricity or water. They

WHAT DID STUDENTS LEARN IN THE COMMON SCHOOLS IN THE EARLY 1900s?
STATE SUPERINTENDENT M. L. BRITAIN
SET DOWN THE FOLLOWING SCHOOL STANDARDS.

WHAT AN 8TH GRADE PUPIL OUGHT TO KNOW

1. How to speak and read the English language with fair accuracy.
2. How to write with fair legibility, in particular, ordinary business letters.
3. How to use the principles of arithmetic in ordinary business transactions.
4. How to spell at least the words used in ordinary business transactions.
5. Enough geography to appreciate current events, and to know something of the nations of the world.
6. The leading facts of American history; to feel a patriotic pride in the deeds of our fathers and to give reasons for opinions as to men and measures.
7. The value of physiology and hygiene—what it means to have a healthy body and hygienic surroundings.
8. To know something of the plants, birds, trees, and agricultural life of the vicinity.
9. The civic virtues—to be honest, trustworthy, obedient, truthful and polite.
were often run-down. In the cities and larger towns, schools had several rooms and were in better condition.

GEORGIA SCHOOLS SEGREGATED

The Georgia Constitution of 1877 specified segregated education. It stated, “separate schools shall be provided for white and colored children.” For nearly a century, Georgia would follow an official policy of school segregation. Under this doctrine, Georgia operated a dual education system: one for whites and one for blacks. This practice applied to state colleges as well as public schools. Based on the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* court decision upholding “separate but equal,” Georgians believed segregated schools did not violate the equal protection clause of the U.S. Constitution—as long as blacks were furnished school facilities equal to those of whites.

When a public high school for black students in Augusta was closed in 1897, black parents sued asking for equal treatment. They argued that since black citizens paid school taxes to help fund a white high school, the school system must also fund a black high school. When their claim was rejected by the Georgia Supreme Court, the case (*Cumming v. Richmond County Board of Education*) was taken to the U.S. Supreme Court. In 1899, the high court issued its first ruling.

Lucy Laney was a famous Augusta educator who worked to give African-American students a quality education that would prepare them for college.
on school segregation. The decision held that the question of a school system providing a black high school was a matter for local officials to decide. The decision signaled that the requirement for equal conditions in education could be ignored.

In the decades that followed, the education furnished black students in public schools was quite different from that offered to white students. Figures taken from the 1908 Georgia Department of Education’s Annual Report tell part of the story.

Clearly, more state and local tax money went to educate white children than black children. As a result, white students had finer school buildings; more books, supplies, and equipment; and better-prepared and better-paid teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Facilities in 1908</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total school population</td>
<td>386,227</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>349,244</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number pupils enrolled</td>
<td>306,891</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>201,512</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number pupils in high school</td>
<td>17,253</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1,697</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of school furniture, etc.</td>
<td>$590,336.00</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>$101,385.00</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of school libraries</td>
<td>77,528.00</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>940.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average teacher’s monthly salary</td>
<td>44.29</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20.23</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Boys playing basketball at the Handy School in Coweta County in the early 1900s.
LEISURE TIME ACTIVITIES

Life in Georgia was not all problems and hard work. Like people everywhere, Georgians found time for fun and entertainment.

For many Georgians, both black and white, the church was the center of social as well as spiritual life. Revivals, singing conventions, camp meetings, Sunday school picnics, and church suppers were special events.

More of Georgia’s people were living in villages, towns, and cities, where community activities provided opportunities for enjoying life. Often there were town parks where band concerts were held on the weekend. Also popular were traveling shows, stage plays, and circuses. Baseball, first played in 1845, quickly became a favorite public pastime. Some of Georgia’s larger cities had symphonies and opera companies.

Other popular forms of entertainment were music boxes, player pianos, cameras, and a new invention—the phonograph.

In Athens, Mary Lumpkin started the first garden club in 1891, an idea that spread throughout America. In 1912, another type of club was formed in Savannah. There, Juliette Gordon Low organized a group of girls into a “troop” and called them Girl Guides. This idea spread quickly through the nation, though its name changed to the Girl Scouts.

Before the days of radio and television, newspapers and magazines were the main news sources. From them, Georgians learned about local and world events. Newspapers and magazines were also entertainment. One of the most popular writers of the day...
was Joel Chandler Harris.

Joel Chandler Harris, creator of the fictional storyteller Uncle Remus, was born in Eatonton in 1848. In his early teens he decided to become a journalist. He worked for several newspapers before joining the *Atlanta Constitution* in 1873. There he became an associate editor, along with Henry W. Grady.

Harris used his evenings to write short stories based on African folklore brought to America by slaves. In the 1880s and 1890s, his “Uncle Remus” stories made him world famous. Later Harris started his own magazine, called *Uncle Remus’s Magazine*. ■

**LOCATING the MAIN IDEAS**

1. **Identify**: Gustavus J. Orr, Martha Berry, Mary Lumpkin, Juliette Gordon Low, Joel Chandler Harris

2. Why is Gustavus J. Orr known as the “father of the common school system” in Georgia?

3. Describe Georgia’s dual education system.

4. What were the main sources of news for turn-of-the-century Georgians?
If you haven’t been a member of the Girl Scouts, chances are that you know someone who has, be it your sister, mother, classmate, or neighbor. With more than 3 million members coast to coast, the Girl Scouts has become a familiar feature of American life since it was founded by Georgia native Juliette Gordon Low.

Born in 1860, Juliette Gordon grew up in Savannah during the Civil War, later attending boarding schools in Virginia and a French “finishing school” in New York. After her debut into Savannah society, the adventurous, energetic Miss Gordon began traveling, first in America and then abroad. On a trip to Great Britain, she met—and later married—William Mackay Low, a wealthy Englishman.

The couple settled in Warwickshire, England. There they enjoyed a glamorous and privileged life, moving easily in social circles with British nobility and royalty. Mrs. Low pursued her artistic interests by studying oil painting, wood carving, and ironworking—and even forged the wrought iron gates of the Low estate.
After her husband died in 1905, Mrs. Low resumed her extensive travels. She journeyed to Egypt and India, and also returned to her artwork, relocating in Paris to study sculpting. In London, she met Robert Baden-Powell, founder of the Boy Scouts, and his sister, who was organizing a parallel group, the Girl Guides.

Baden-Powell encouraged Mrs. Low to form a Girl Guide group in Scotland. Her efforts there proved so successful that she returned to America, intent on establishing a similar program to help girls and young women become productive and self-sufficient.

Mrs. Low held the first Girl Scouts meeting in Savannah in 1912, attracting 18 girls. For the next five years, she funded the fledgling organization with her own money and used her extensive social contacts to generate more support. In 1920, she resigned as president of Girl Scouts of the USA and devoted the rest of her life to the worldwide organization.

When Juliette Gordon Low died in Savannah in 1927, the Girl Scouts of the United States of America had 148,000 members, financial security, and a constitution and bylaws.