

# HISTORIC BLACK RESOURCES

*A Handbook  
For the Identification, Documentation, and Evaluation  
of Historic African-American Properties in Georgia*



**Carole Merritt**

Historic Preservation Section  
Georgia Department of Natural Resources

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Edited By Carolyn S. Brooks

Historic Preservation Section  
Georgia Department of Natural Resources  
1984

*Historic Black Resources* has been funded with the assistance of a matching grant-in-aid from the United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service, through the Historic Preservation Section, Georgia Department of Natural Resources, under provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966.

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# Preface

The benefits that historic preservation can offer to minority communities have only recently begun to be recognized. Along with this awareness, an appreciation of the importance of the historic resources of these communities, whose historical significance has long gone unnoticed, is developing. To aid the growing effort to identify, document, and evaluate the historic resources of Georgia's African-American heritage, the state's historic preservation office is pleased to present this handbook.

The handbook is the product of recent planning activities. In 1980, Richard Dozier, former Head of the Department of Architecture at Tuskegee Institute, conducted for the Historic Preservation Section of the Department of Natural Resources a survey of black historic properties in the state. The survey focused on Augusta and McIntosh County, where the resources were particularly rich, and it initiated efforts to more adequately define the significance of Georgia's minority historic resources. This earlier survey project, including its documentary research, contributed to the preparation of the present survey project undertaken by Carole Merritt, Director of the African-American Family History Association exhibit project and former staff member of the state historic preservation office. She was assisted by state historic preservation staff members Richard R. Cloues, Kenneth H. Thomas, Jr., and Carolyn S. Brooks.

We believe this handbook represents a significant initiative in historic preservation in the state. We hope that its use will help promote a broader understanding of the state's heritage and a deeper commitment to its preservation.

Elizabeth A. Lyon  
Chief, Historic Preservation Section  
State Historic Preservation Officer

# Introduction

This handbook has been prepared to aid persons interested in the preservation of historic African-American buildings, structures, districts, sites, and objects in Georgia. It represents a special effort by the Historic Preservation Section (the State Historic Preservation Office) of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources to compile guidelines for the identification, documentation, and evaluation of those cultural resources in Georgia's built environment which have been significant in the development of the black community. These guidelines are based on the Secretary of Interior's *Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation Activities*.

The history of blacks in Georgia is integral to the state's history, just as African-American history is essential to an understanding of our nation's development. That this fact is often ignored in historic preservation makes necessary the special attention of this handbook to black cultural resources. In accordance with federal and state provisions, the Historic Preservation Section is responsible for planning the protection of Georgia's historic and archaeological resources. The preparation of this handbook on black historic resources is one aspect of that overall planning process in which the full range of cultural resources in the state is being surveyed and evaluated, so that decisions regarding their protection can be made.

African-American cultural resources have been among the most threatened, for as an underclass, blacks have had less power over their immediate environment. Their communities have been more vulnerable to development pressures. Moreover, the significance of black resources and the imperative for their protection have often gone unrecognized. This handbook is dedicated to the greater appreciation and protection of these rich, yet undervalued, resources.

The information presented here is for use by individuals, organizations, and agencies who wish to take concrete steps to protect the significant black resources in their communities. The historical overview presented in Chapter One provides a very general frame of reference for understanding some of the resources in the context of the

broad patterns of Georgia's history. This overview is neither comprehensive nor detailed. Rather it is a preliminary perspective on some of the historical processes which shaped the development of the black community, specifically its built environment. Much research remains to be done in this area.

Chapter Two describes a variety of cultural resources comprising the built environment. It discusses the major aspects of each category of resources, indicating, when known, the distinctively African-American features.

Chapter Three contains a step-by-step procedure for identifying historic resources. It suggests how to organize the survey process and what information to collect for different kinds of surveys.

In Chapter Four, the major sources for researching and documenting black historic properties are reviewed.

Chapter Five discusses the criteria which assist in the evaluation of the relative significance of identified resources. These criteria are based on the standards for determining eligibility for the National Register of Historic Places. The procedures for registration are also discussed in this chapter.

There are three appendixes. The first is a comprehensive checklist of categories of cultural resources to be considered in identifying properties of historic significance. The second is a list of National Register properties in Georgia significant in terms of African-American history. The third contains a directory of public and private agencies and organizations which can be of assistance or have had some experience in the preservation of black resources. The last section of the handbook is a bibliography of selected materials for further research on the historical significance of black resources in Georgia. References for assistance in the evaluation and protection of significant properties are also cited.

# 1

## Historical Overview

The African-American presence in Georgia can be traced to the earliest days of the colony. Savannah was founded — its streets and lots laid out, and its first house constructed — with the assistance of four black axmen from South Carolina. Brought in temporarily by Colonel William Bull, these four slaves introduced the significant role African-Americans were to play in shaping Georgia's built environment. Black settlement in Georgia was determined largely by labor demands. However, the development of the black community has also reflected the distinctive cultural impact of an African people adapting to American life.

In 1736, slavery and blacks were prohibited. Many colonists feared slaves would discourage white settlement or create a rebellious black element in a society already threatened by the Spanish. The prohibition was not strictly enforced, however. Soon after enactment, slaves were reported tending cattle and working the larger farms on the Georgia side of the Savannah River. By the late 1740s slaves were sold openly in Savannah. As the struggle with Spain subsided and the hopes for wine and silk production dashed, the tide of public opinion turned in favor of slavery, which now seemed to promise Georgia's economic salvation.

Slavery was legalized in 1750, and within a decade the African population had increased tenfold. Georgia's early blacks came primarily from South Carolina and the West Indies. Not until the 1760s did slave cargoes arrive directly from African countries, particularly the coasts of present-day Senegal, Gambia, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Ghana, and in the latter period of the slave trade, Central Africa.

Georgia's development was reflected in the growth and settlement patterns of the black population. On the eve of the Revolutionary War, and during the height of African slave importation, blacks were nearly half of the colony's population. Along the coastal tidelands, huge plantations with large slave forces were engaged in the cultivation of rice, which by 1775 had become Georgia's major crop. Much of the

coastal area at that time, however, consisted of small farms where wheat was grown and livestock raised. The Indian presence had for a while delayed settlement northwestward into the Piedmont, but with the cession of Creek and Cherokee lands in 1773, settlement northwest of Augusta was begun. The growth rate of the white population over the next few decades increased sharply with the immigration of farmers from Virginia and the Carolinas. The center of population shifted from the coast to the middle and upper counties of the state. By 1790, the proportion of blacks in Georgia had fallen to about 35 percent, while in the coastal area blacks maintained a numerical dominance of 70 percent.

Settlement southwestward along the Piedmont plateau came gradually as Creek Indians were pushed from the Ogeechee River to the Ocmulgee by 1803 and to the Flint River by 1821. With the last of the Creeks gone by 1827, agricultural development in Middle Georgia became a reality. This area was part of what was to be known as Georgia's Black Belt, the agricultural center that stretched eventually to the southwestern part of the state, incorporating portions of the Piedmont and the coastal plain. Large cotton plantations displaced small diversified farms, and by 1825 they made Georgia the world's leader in cotton production. The intensive cultivation of cotton with slave labor was accompanied by the large-scale influx of black slaves from the Upper South. The region became predominantly black, and by 1860 Georgia was again nearly half black.

Economic growth mandated the development of Georgia's transportation systems. River transport, which was facilitated by steam navigation, moved agricultural and forest products between the coast and the fall line — the ridge from which the rivers descend from the Piedmont to the coastal plain. The location of Augusta, Macon, and Columbus on the fall line not only established these towns as transportation centers but also gave them the water power for later industrial development. Canals and roads were constructed during the first part of the nineteenth century, but the railroad, which was chartered in the state in 1833, became the major means of transportation in antebellum Georgia. By 1841 the Georgia Railroad connected Augusta and Athens. The Central of Georgia Railroad joined Savannah and Macon in 1843. Both these railroads soon connected with the southern terminus of the Western and Atlantic Railroad at Atlanta, making that city the state's most important transportation hub. African-Americans played a significant role in Georgia's transportation development. River dredging, canal excavation, and road repair depended heavily on slave labor, as did railroad construction.

The Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 freed the slaves by official

decree. The end of the Civil War brought an immediate change to the political status of blacks but did not substantially alter their economic and social position in a racist society. With the failure of Reconstruction, political gains were lost and blacks continued to suffer in an increasingly hostile and repressive Georgia. Ex-slaves labored for the most part as tenants, many paying cash rents, but most before 1900 sharing harvested crops as rent payment. The crop lien system of credit, which pledged future crops to pay for a loan of supplies, subjected blacks and whites to the legacy of the plantation system. Many large plantations had been broken up, but many tenants were nearly as tied to the land and cotton production as they had been as slaves. Cotton production had been interrupted by the war, but by 1880 it was higher than ever.

Although many blacks remained in the areas they had worked as slaves, some migrated immediately after the war to towns and cities such as Atlanta, Macon, Milledgeville, Savannah, and Augusta. In time, a significant number from the older Black Belt counties moved to south and southwest Georgia, where more fertile land brought higher wages. Blacks from the coast migrated to the wiregrass area in the southeastern section of the state, which incorporates much of the coastal plain. The last area of Georgia to develop, this region eventually attracted other blacks to its agriculture and lumbering. By 1910, nearly 40 percent of the population in the wiregrass was black.

Two areas of Georgia had relatively little black settlement. In the sparsely-populated mountain region of north Georgia, the soil and climate were unsuitable for staple crops. After the Cherokees were forcibly removed in the 1830s, this area consisted largely of small farms settled by white Virginians, North Carolinians, and Middle Georgians. Small subsistence farms established after the Creeks had been removed in the late eighteenth century also characterized the upper Piedmont just south of the mountains. In this area, however, by 1910 the proportion of blacks, particularly in the lower area of large plantations, was four times that in the mountain region.

Work opportunities explained, in large part, the twentieth century out-migration of black Georgians to cities in the North and West. There had been a few decades after the Civil War a small, but steady, movement to Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Florida. By World War I, however, the Great Migration was in full swing, drawing thousands of Georgians to the war industries of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan, as well as to Florida. The boll weevil's destruction gave further impetus to the move, as did Georgia's increasing racial violence. From 1882 to 1923, Georgia led the nation in recorded lynchings. The out-migration of blacks in the state reached

its peak in the 1920s. The Depression sharply curtailed, but did not stop, black flight. During World War II, migration increased, this time destined also for New Jersey, New York, and the West. The trend of black migration appears to have been reversed in the last decade, but a century of out-migration has reduced Georgia's proportion of blacks from nearly one-half to one-fourth.

The history of Georgia's black community — the development of its people and its institutions — is little known. Population changes and settlement patterns provide only the broad framework within which the struggles and achievements of a people took shape. The specific historical background of particular black communities can tell us much about present conditions and can help establish a sense of heritage and place. It is important, therefore, to know how individual communities were founded, what forms they took, and who led them. Perhaps more important, it is necessary to know who lived in the communities and what institutions, facilities, resources, and values gave form and substance to their lives.

A great deal of research must be conducted even to begin to answer these questions. However, a variety of cultural resources record some aspects of the development of the black community. The archaeological remains and standing structures of antebellum Georgia document little-known aspects of slave life. The houses, churches, schools, and other facilities which survive from the late nineteenth century provide valuable insight into the community leadership, structure, and processes of the freedmen. The historic resources of the early twentieth century — residential, institutional, and commercial, both rural and urban — help recreate the black community's steady progress under stress. All these resources reflect its history, help explain its present, and suggest options for the future.



# 2

## The Resources

This chapter discusses some major cultural resources which have historical significance primarily to African-Americans in Georgia. It presents the general characteristics of residential, institutional, and commercial buildings, and provides some historical context within which these resources shaped and reflected the development of black communities. Although resources will be discussed by major categories, it should be pointed out that their significance is more fully appreciated when evaluated as interdependent elements of the total community.

### Residential Resources

Most of the historic built environment associated with blacks is comprised of modest dwellings. In preservation efforts, these are likely to be overshadowed by houses, churches, and other institutional buildings which are more complex in structure and more elaborate in style. Greater attention to common houses, however, is essential to a better understanding, appreciation, and protection of our heritage.

Black residential facilities are organized in this section of the handbook by area (urban and rural), by time period (before and after slavery), and by tenure (ownership and tenancy).

#### *Rural Slave Houses*

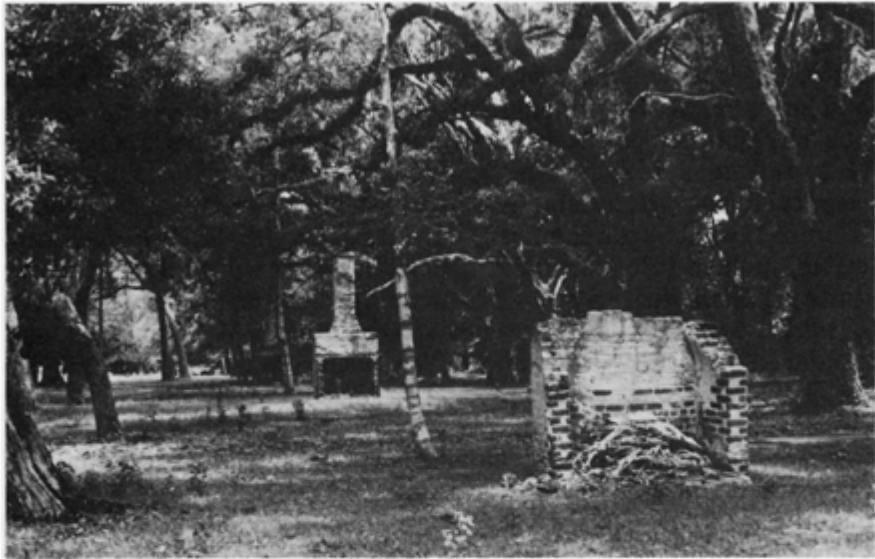
One-room houses of square or rectangular shape with gable roofs were typical of slave dwellings in Georgia throughout most of the antebellum period. Both double- and single-unit structures with one family per unit were common. They were referred to as double-pen and single-pen houses. The one room was multi-purpose, having been used for sleeping, cooking, eating, and living. In many houses, the loft, which was accessible by a ladder or corner stairs, served as sleeping space for children. In size, design, and construction, Georgia's slave

houses were apparently similar to those in other areas of the South. Coastal dwellings, however, had distinctive features. Although most slave houses in the state ranged in size from ten to sixteen feet in width and ten to twenty feet in length, the dimensions of coastal houses were larger, ranging from twelve to twenty-four feet in width and fourteen to twenty-four feet in length. Whereas most slave houses were constructed of logs, coastal dwelling materials were frame and tabby (Figure 1). (Tabby is a composite of equal parts of sand, lime, shell, and water, molded into slabs or bricks.) Chimneys were another distinguishing element of coastal slave dwellings. About fifteen feet tall and about six feet wide, they were often constructed of tabby brick and plastered with tabby (Figure 2). The firebox was of clay brick; the lintel of wood, commonly cypress. Log houses (Figure 3) had shorter chimneys of hewn logs lined with stones and plastered with mud to insulate them from the heat. The floors of slave houses were usually of dirt, which was made hard as cement by pounding or molding a claylike mixture. Some coastal houses apparently had wood floors. Construction materials for roofs varied throughout Georgia, with wood shingles, planks, or thatch having been used. When slave houses had windows, they were without glass and closed with board shutters.

Slave houses were similar in size and design to the dwellings of

1. Ruins of tabby slave dwellings, Sapelo Island, McIntosh County. (HPS)





2. *The Chimneys, remains of slave houses at Stafford Plantation on Cumberland Island, Camden County. (National Park Service)*

3. *A typical rural slave dwelling of log construction. Location of building and date of photo unknown. (University of Georgia Special Collections)*



many rural whites of that period, who also occupied small one- or two-room log houses that sometimes had dirt floors. Slave housing, it appears, was the legacy of both preindustrial Europe and Africa. African wooden houses with horizontal timbers and gable roofs shared features with American log houses. In Britain and colonial America, wattle-and-daub construction (rods and poles interwoven with branches and reeds, and plastered with mud or clay) was similar in technique to the building of mud houses in West Africa. English farmhouses and cottages as late as the nineteenth century had dirt floors made of clay, ox blood, and ashes. Likewise in West Africa, earthen floors were hardened mixtures of clay, ashes, and cow dung. Thatched roofs had European as well as African roots.

### *Urban Slave Houses*

Housing for slaves in urban areas differed substantially from that in rural areas. Most slaves in towns and cities were domestic servants living in or adjacent to the houses of their masters. Spare rooms, attics, and auxiliary spaces such as hallways and alcoves sheltered many domestics. Often, however, behind the master's house was a single- or multi-unit dwelling for slaves. While the master's house faced the street, these separate slave quarters were placed to the rear of the lot, sometimes off a back lane or alley. When a wall enclosed the lot, it created a kind of compound which tended to orient the inhabitants to the master's house and reinforce slave status.

Slaves who were engaged in commercial and industrial labor also lived in or near their work places. Owners of hotels, factories, and other business partnerships and corporations were, in fact, the large urban slaveholders. Tenements attached to a factory or mill housed slaves when they could not be accommodated within the establishment itself. The practice of slaves boarding some distance from their master increased toward the late antebellum period. They rented rooms and houses, and sometimes boarded with free blacks. In Savannah, this tendency led to a concentration of blacks on the periphery of the city.

Slave housing in urban areas apparently lacked the distinctive features of design and construction that characterized the housing of most rural slaves. Although diverse building types and conditions described urban slave living, the higher population density of the city sometimes necessitated multi-storied structures. Usually made of wood, but sometimes of brick, these multi-unit dwellings afforded small, crowded rooms. Additional research is needed to determine the characteristics of size, design, and construction of these and other urban slave houses.



4. *A late nineteenth-century rural tenant house. Location of building and date of photo unknown. (University of Georgia Special Collections)*

### *Rural Tenant Houses*

Slave houses continued to be occupied by a large number of black Georgians through the early twentieth century. Most freedmen remained in or moved to these small, one-room log houses with earthen floors and wood chimneys. Some of the houses constructed after the Civil War would have been indistinguishable from those of the late antebellum period. Many log houses underwent alterations which tended to disguise some of their original features. Weatherboards, for example, were added for insulation, giving the appearance of frame construction.

Black tenant houses built in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were typically two- or three-room frame buildings with steep gable roofs (Figures 4 and 5). A partition often divided the tenant house into two rooms — a living room that served also as a bedroom, and a kitchen/dining room that was used for sleeping, too. Some houses had a third room in the rear, which was used as a kitchen. Additional space for sleeping and storage was available in the upper half-story or loft. Nearly all tenant houses had a simple shed-roofed front porch.



5. *A tenant house on the Champion-McGarrah Plantation, Marion County. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

Some, particularly those previously occupied by white landowners, had a cook house or kitchen, a separate earthen floored structure, the gable end of which faced the rear door of the house. Weatherboard was usually of oak or pine. Board-and-batten, an exterior covering of vertical planks sealed with narrower strips, was also common. Wood floors had become standard for frame houses. Roofs were usually of split pine shingles which were later often replaced with galvanized metal. Houses rested on piers, which were made either of brick or of wood blocks set on lime mortar footings. Brick and stone chimneys became common, reducing the fire hazards of wood chimneys; many fireplaces were later closed off as stoves came into use. A tenant house had few windows. They were generally closed with board shutters, glazed windows having been a later development. As late as the 1930s, just over half of black tenant houses in the Black Belt had ceilings. Most apparently had unplastered board walls. Lining the walls with newspapers served not only to decorate but also to insulate.

Another distinct type of dwelling came into use by black tenants in rural Georgia by the late nineteenth or early twentieth century.



6. *Early twentieth-century shotgun houses in the Bethlehem community of Augusta, Richmond County. (Richard Dozier)*

Commonly referred to as the “shotgun,” this house was a narrow structure of three or more small rooms arranged in a line, one directly behind the other (Figure 6). The gable end of the house with the entrance door faced the front. Room dimensions ranged from eight to twelve or more feet square. The spatial arrangement, alignment, and size of the shotgun house suggest to some scholars an alternative architectural tradition, specifically that of West Africa. The building type has been traced from two-room mud houses among the Yoruba of Nigeria to houses in rural and urban Haiti and finally to early nineteenth-century variations in New Orleans. As early as the 1870s, shotgun houses were constructed widely as cheap rental units. Further survey and research are needed to determine the development and specific characteristics of these and other tenant houses in rural Georgia.

### *Urban Tenant Houses*

Many freedmen in urban areas, like their counterparts in the country, continued for a while to occupy the housing in which they had lived as slaves. Major changes in black housing in the city came with the post-Civil War influx of migrants from the country and with the

early twentieth-century development of racially segregated housing patterns. In Savannah, for example, the black population increased nearly 50 percent from 1860 to 1870, accounting for nearly half of the city's total population. Although blacks continued to reside all over the city until the twentieth century, by 1880 they had begun to concentrate in areas such as Yamacraw. By the early twentieth century they were located primarily in the outlying areas, while whites resided in the central area. Augusta's population experienced a similar development. Although blacks resided in most areas of the city, by 1900 they had begun to move to the southern fringe, eventually developing a self-contained community called the Terri. Atlanta, having had few blacks during the antebellum period, had developed no tradition of interracial housing. By the turn of the century, blacks were confined to sections east and west of downtown, where nearly all rented various kinds of tenement housing (Figure 7). Over 65 percent lived in frame dwellings of three or more rooms. Shotgun houses were a predominant type of

7. *Single-family houses in Atlanta's Beaver Slide Community, Fulton County. These late nineteenth-century urban tenant houses were replaced by University Homes in 1937. Date of photo unknown. (Spellman College Archives)*







8. *University Homes, Atlanta, Fulton County. Constructed in 1937 as the first black housing project in the U.S. (HPS)*

dwelling. Determining the varieties of rental building types and their significance to the development of Georgia's black urban community requires further survey and research.

Beginning in the 1930s, federally funded public housing began to supplement historic rental housing in many of the country's cities. Designed to provide decent, up-to-date housing for poor families, public housing was characterized by large scale developments of sturdily built, low-rise, multi-family units. Typically, these units are of masonry construction, designed with optimum square footage and provisions for adequate light, fresh air, and open space between buildings. In many communities, whole historic neighborhoods have been leveled to make way for this new type of housing. University Homes in Atlanta, built in 1937, is historically significant as the first public housing built for blacks in this country (Figure 8).

#### *Rural Landowners' Houses*

Landownership has come hard to African-Americans, particularly in southern states like Georgia. By 1900 only one in seven black farms

was operated by owners, and only one in five acres of farmland in the state was black-owned. The average value of black farm buildings by the turn of the century was \$82 compared with \$268 for the value of white farm buildings. These statistics are clear measures of the relative powerlessness of the black community in determining its housing forms and settlement patterns. Although black landowners were few, their impact on community leadership and development was significant. The land they acquired and the homes they built were the foundations of black community progress in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Black landownership in Georgia in the decades following emancipation was a function not only of income but also of white willingness to sell to blacks. Whites tended to sell land to those blacks they considered acceptable. The land they were likely to sell, however, was the least desirable. It was no accident, for example, that by 1910 black farm ownership was much higher in the coastal region where cotton and rice agriculture was in decline than in the Black Belt area where cotton production was booming.

Blacks who became landowners soon after emancipation were likely to have built houses similar to the small log dwellings of slaves and white farmers of modest means. They would eventually alter and expand their log dwellings by weatherboarding them, constructing frame additions, installing plank floors and ceilings, and plastering walls. In time they began to build larger frame houses with rooms for specialized uses (Figure 9). Houses built in the late 1800s would probably have been designed and constructed by the owners themselves who were skilled in log construction. By the early 1900s, however, mass-produced building materials made possible low-cost construction by hired building tradesmen, many of whom would have been black.

One of the houses studied by Atlanta University students under the direction of W.E.B. Du Bois in 1908 was perhaps representative of the dwellings of Georgia's black rural landowners. It was a frame house of four rooms, two on either side of a wide hall. Each room was sixteen feet square. The two front rooms, which were ceiled and plastered, were bedrooms, one of them possibly serving also as a sitting room. The two back rooms were a kitchen and bedroom, which were unceiled and unplastered. Food was stored in the loft above these back rooms. Two double chimneys, presumably of brick or stone, provided a fireplace for each room. Food was prepared on the stove in the kitchen, where the family also ate. Broad front and back porches ran nearly the entire width of the house. The well was in the back yard. The outbuildings of such a homestead would have included barns, a corn crib, chicken house, smokehouse, privy, and other structures.



9. *The farmhouse of Washington Stevens, Heard County. A rural landowner's house dating from the late nineteenth century. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

### *Urban Landowners' Houses*

The story of black landownership in towns and cities is fundamental to an understanding of the development of Georgia's urban communities. In most urban areas, black communities evolved out of the exclusionary housing policies initiated in the late nineteenth century and sometimes made official through legislation in the early twentieth century. Ironically, white supremacist policies fostered black independence. Many black communities achieved a level of economic self-sufficiency that has since been unsurpassed. Black landowning families, who accounted for perhaps 5 percent of black urban households around 1900, were critical to this development. The houses they built or purchased were generally single-family, one-story frame

dwellings with gable or hipped roofs and shed porches (Figure 10). An Atlanta University study in 1908 described such a house that was perhaps representative of black-owned houses in Atlanta. The "L"-shaped house had three rooms — a bedroom on one side of a central hall, and a bedroom/parlor and kitchen on the other side. Each room was sixteen feet square, plastered, ceiled, and had two or three glass windows. There was a space heater in one room and an open grate in each of the other two. The kitchen, where the family cooked on a stove, served for dining and apparently sleeping, also. The house contained a wide shed porch extending nearly the full width of the front. The smaller shed porch at the rear was off the hall and kitchen. In the back yard were a coal house, chicken house, water closet, and storeroom.

The more elaborate houses of higher income blacks, like those of higher income whites, were often large, two-story, framed dwellings with varying roof styles, verandas, and Victorian or Neoclassical detailing. One such house in Columbus, built in 1912 for William Henry Spencer, a leading local educator, has eleven rooms and a broad

10. *William McNatt House, Augusta, Richmond County. The ca. 1900 house built and owned by one of Augusta's foremost black builders. (Richard Dozier)*





11. *William Henry Spencer House, Columbus, Muscogee County. Constructed in 1912 for Columbus' leading black educator. (Ledger-Enquirer Newspapers)*

veranda (Figure 11). On the first floor are a stair hall, parlor, dining room, two bedrooms, kitchen, rear stair hall and bath; on the second floor, two bedrooms, kitchen, rear stair hall and bath; on the second floor, five bedrooms and a bathroom open off a central hall. Most of Georgia's larger cities have examples of such houses.

The Herndon Home in Atlanta is an exceptional residential resource associated with the black community (Figure 12). This 1910 landmark house was built for Alonzo Herndon, the founder of the Atlanta Life Insurance Company, from designs prepared by him and his wife Adrienne. It was constructed primarily by black craftsmen, the majority of work being executed by a black carpenter, Will Campbell. The house is a thirteen-room Neoclassical style mansion with an eclectic interior featuring Rococo, Arts and Crafts, and Classical detailing typical of fine houses of the period. Among its many elaborate features are a reception-hall inglenook, a coved and gilded plasterwork ceiling in the music room, mahogany paneling and painted friezes in the living room and dining room, and Rookwood tile inlays in many of the fireplace surrounds. Presently, the Herndon Home is open to the public as a house museum.



12. *Herndon Home, Atlanta, Fulton County. Completed in 1910 for Alonzo Herndon and his wife Adrienne. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

Landowners were critical to the development of the black community. They were instrumental in founding churches, schools, businesses, and other institutions which gave distinctive form and substance to black life.

## **Institutional Resources**

Among the richest resources of the black built environment are the buildings of religious, educational, and social institutions. The church has been the most important of these, not only serving the spiritual needs of its members but also fostering their social interaction. The church was also important in the development of other community institutions such as schools and mutual aid societies. The following sections of the handbook summarize the historical context and physical characteristics of rural and urban churches, schools, lodges, and cemeteries.

*The Development of Black Churches*

African-American religious life during slavery centered around what has been referred to as the “invisible institution”: the distinctive forms of slave song, dance, prayer, and oratory that developed on the praying grounds and brush arbors and in the slave houses. The impact of Christian churches on most slaves was apparently minimal, even by the first quarter of the nineteenth century. By 1860, Baptists estimated that about 400,000 blacks in the country belonged to their churches; Methodists claimed about half that number. The Methodists had been the most active in plantation missions, although Baptists, Presbyterians, and Episcopalians were also engaged in the effort, particularly during the Great Awakening in the late eighteenth century. That more blacks were drawn to the Baptist faith was due, perhaps to the simpler process of conversion and the more open order of service, which made this church more accessible to the uneducated and more accommodating to distinctive forms of black religious expression. Furthermore, the decentralized administration of Baptist associations permitted black preachers to serve local congregations. Methodists also allowed blacks to minister in some areas of slave worship. Most slave Christians attended white churches under segregated seating arrangements, often outnumbering white members. There were, however, independent black churches, particularly in the cities, which operated under the supervision of white parent churches or the restrictions of civil authority.

Black Georgians took the lead in founding black churches in this country in the late eighteenth century. The First Bryan and the First African Baptist churches of Savannah originated from the black congregation organized in 1788 by Andrew Bryan, a slave and convert of George Liele, another black Georgian, who is considered the first black Baptist minister in this country. In 1793 Jesse Galphin, one of the founders of the Silver Bluff Baptist Church in South Carolina, the country’s first black congregation, reorganized that church in Augusta (the Silver Bluff church having been organized by 1775, but disbanded during the Revolutionary War). The Augusta church was initially called First African Baptist and was later named Springfield Baptist (Figure 13).

After emancipation, the church was often the first building constructed in the black community. Although ex-slaves were likely to have lived in the same or similar dwellings that they had previously occupied, they immediately began to organize and build their own churches. Economic realities had changed little from slavery to freedom, but with emancipation came greater social autonomy and the proliferation of independent black churches. During and after slavery,



13. *Springfield Baptist Church, Augusta, Richmond County. Constructed in 1801, enlarged in 1820, purchased and moved by the Springfield Baptist congregation in 1844. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

separate denominations formed black associations. The first to organize nationally was the African Methodist Episcopal (A.M.E.) Church, founded in Philadelphia in 1816 by Richard Allen. Allen had established the Bethel Church in Philadelphia in 1796 and became the first A.M.E. bishop. In 1828, the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church was organized in New York City. The Colored Methodist Episcopal (now called the Christian Methodist Episcopal) Church evolved from the Methodist Episcopal Church South in 1870. In 1873, its second general conference was held at Trinity Church in Augusta, where Paine College was later founded by Lucius Holsey, one of its first bishops. Unlike these Methodist hierarchies, the less formal Baptist organizations were conventions of individual churches and regional associations. In Georgia, most of the regional associations were founded within ten years of emancipation, primarily for the purpose of organizing and supporting schools. The first black national Baptist organization was the Foreign Mission Convention of the United States of America, founded in Montgomery, Alabama, in 1880. Two other national organizations were subsequently formed, all three finally merging as the National Baptist Convention, U.S.A. in 1895, at a meeting in Friendship Baptist Church in Atlanta.





14. *Nicholsonboro Baptist Church, White Bluff, Chatham County. Constructed ca. 1883. (HPS)*

### *Rural Churches*

In the years following emancipation, most blacks withdrew from white congregations to found their own churches. Sometimes land was granted by white churches or individuals. More often, however, acquiring land and building a church involved black cooperative activities. The ex-slaves on St. Catherines Island, for example, as those on other sea islands, never received the land they had been promised by General Sherman's Special Field Order No. 15 of January 1865. Two hundred of them left St. Catherines and founded Nicholsonville in the White Bluff area south of Savannah. By 1877, eighteen members of this community bought two hundred acres of land, one acre of which was set aside in 1883 for the construction of the Nicholsonboro Baptist Church (Figure 14).

This and other such churches founded by rural blacks in the late nineteenth century were usually simple one-room frame structures of rectangular shape, with gable roofs and little or no ornamentation or architectural detailing (Figure 15). Sometimes the church had a



15. Church in rural Hancock County illustrating corner towers, central entrance, and weatherboard siding typically associated with rural black churches. (Richard Dozier)

rectangular wooden steeple, a central tower mounted on the roof, or a tower at one or both of the front corners. Often these towers were later additions, as were front and rear extensions. The entrances of rural churches were usually centered. The interiors were often unplastered and unceiled.

There are exceptions. For example, St. Bartholomew's Church, built by an Episcopal congregation in rural Chatham County in 1896, has a corner bell tower providing entrance to the sanctuary and is detailed with decorative shingles, pointed windows grouped in threes, and a neatly finished tongue-and-groove board interior (Figure 16).

The rural church site was large enough for a burial ground and outdoor social activities. It could also accommodate building expansion. When a new building was constructed, the older one often remained in use as a school, meeting house, or dining and fellowship hall. These original frame buildings, some of which still stand near the newer structures, are invaluable records of the church's early history.



16. *St. Bartholomew's Church, Burroughs, Chatham County. A finely-detailed rural church constructed in 1896 by Georgia's oldest continuing black Episcopal congregation. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

### *Urban Churches*

Since urban land was at a greater premium, black church acreage in the city was relatively small. The cemeteries and outdoor activity areas that characterized rural church property were atypical in the city. Moreover, the location of black churches was likely to change to accommodate urban development and settlement patterns. As black residents began to concentrate in sections outside the central area, so did their churches. A significant number of urban black churches in Georgia today, which date back to the nineteenth century, do not occupy their original sites.

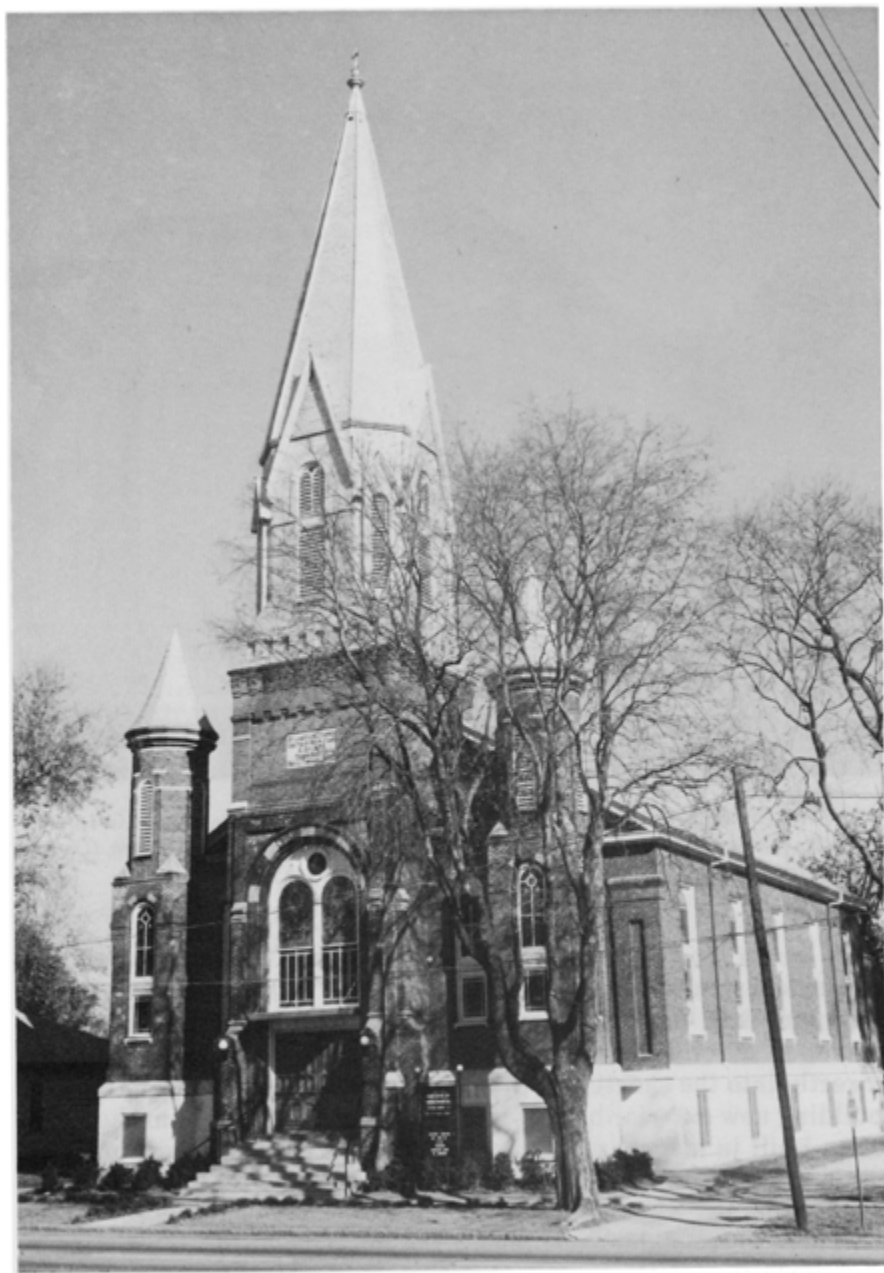
Many urban churches built in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were very much like rural churches — simple, rectangular, frame buildings with few or no stylistic features. They



17. *First Bryan Baptist Church, Savannah, Chatham County. Constructed in 1873 by this country's first black Baptist congregation to replace an earlier church. (Carter Tomassi for HPS)*

were larger, however, and more likely to have a tower centered or to one side or, more typically, twin towers. Basements were more common than galleries. In accordance with the rural plan, the entrance of city churches was nearly always centered, opening directly into the sanctuary. Small churches expanded sometimes by building new exterior brick walls or adding a gallery. Churches were often built in stages, a basement serving as the sanctuary until the main story could be built. Brick veneers were often applied in the 1940s or later.

There were notable exceptions to the general plan of late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century churches. Some structures were more complex and featured more elaborate architecture. In 1873, First Bryan Baptist Church in Savannah constructed a building to replace its frame meeting house (Figure 17). The plan is basilican with the



18. *St. James A.M.E. Church, Columbus, Muscogee County. Constructed in 1876, spires and turrets added in 1886. (Historic Columbus Foundation)*



19. *First A.M.E. Church, Athens, Clarke County. Constructed in 1916. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

nave and aisles separated by fluted columns supporting a gallery. The roof is surmounted by a small rectangular wooden steeple. The front and sides of the stuccoed building are each divided into five bays or compartments framed by tall piers. Entrance to the church is through a recessed portico to a small narthex or lobby. The ceiling is of pressed tin. Stained-glass windows depict former pastors, and the wooden pews have hand-carved details.

Size, design, and building materials were not only indicators of the congregation's economic status but also measures of the leadership's ability to organize and sustain fund raising. Some churches were able to invest in accomplished architects and builders. Augusta's Bethel A.M.E. Church was designed by architect Andrew W. Todd in eclectic Victorian Gothic style and was built in 1883 by William M. Sanford, a black carpenter. St. James A.M.E. Church in Columbus (Figure 18), which was constructed in 1876 (the central spire and turrets were added in 1886), is considered one of the finest examples of Victorian Gothic Revival in the city. First A.M.E. Church in Athens is a fine example of an architect-designed early twentieth-century church built by a prosperous urban congregation (Figure 19).

*Cemeteries*

During slavery, most blacks were interred in plantation burial grounds which were separate from, but sometimes near or adjacent to, those of whites. Since the bodies were not embalmed, the dead were buried at graveside ceremonies a day or two after death, and several days to a few weeks before the community gathered for the more elaborate funeral. The deceased, who was usually laid out in a pine coffin, was placed in the grave with his head toward the west. On the Georgia coast, slave graves would probably have been decorated with broken vessels and other personal and household items, as they are adorned in some areas of the coastal Southeast today. For the most part, however, there were no headstones to mark the graves of plantation slaves. Markers of wood and other materials in most cases would have deteriorated or been displaced in time (Figure 20).

Most rural blacks since slavery have been buried in church yards or other privately owned cemeteries. These cemeteries contained either unmarked graves or those with modest headstones, many of them homemade, of wood, iron, stone, and cement. Rural and small-town cemeteries on the Georgia coast had distinctive grave markings. The

20. *Wooden grave markers in a black cemetery near Sunbury, Liberty County. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*



Cyrus Bowen family plot near Sunbury was a splendid example of sculptured wood and cement markers.

In the mid-nineteenth century, portions of public cemeteries near towns and cities were designated for the burial of urban slaves and free blacks. These separate facilities were often adjacent to the public burial places for whites. At Oakland Cemetery in Atlanta, blacks were buried in an area known as Slave Square, which is west of what is now the section of Confederate graves. In the 1880s, as the number of black paupers reached nearly one third of all burials at Oakland and constituted 85 percent of all pauper burials, the city designated another area of the cemetery south of Monument Street for blacks. It was not unusual for black corpses to be exhumed to make way for cemetery expansion. A City of Atlanta resolution in 1877 called for the removal of bodies from Slave Square and their reinterment in other pauper areas. Desiring their own burial ground, Atlanta blacks established a private cemetery in 1885. Located south of the city limits, the cemetery is known as Southview.

Although slaves and paupers often had unmarked graves, some blacks before and after slavery had durable tombstones. For many individuals, these markers are the only material remains of their history. Laurel Grove-South Cemetery in Savannah is a good example of the cemetery as a unique document of individual and community history (Figure 21). Now separated from white Laurel Grove-North Cemetery by a highway, it was initially a fifteen acre tract set aside for slaves and free blacks by an 1852 ordinance. It soon became the repository of slaves who were exhumed from other pauper and black cemeteries to make way for urban expansion. To mark the mass grave of the reinterred bodies, the salvaged tombstones were placed side by side forming a single row of markers along what was then the southern boundary of the cemetery. The cemetery was for the most part arranged in a grid pattern defined by sandy lanes and live oak trees. Newer areas developed less regularly, forming a modified grid.

The tombstones of Laurel Grove-South show a rich diversity of size, style, and material. Reflecting one extreme of the social scale are the simple rough stones of slaves on which sometimes the first name is inscribed. Representing the higher reaches of black society are the larger, more formal monuments, such as the lancet-shaped tombstones of Jane Deveaux, a member of a prominent family of free blacks, or the three-vault crypt housing the bodies of Andrew Bryan, Andrew Marshall, and Henry Cunningham, leading pastors of the Baptist church. For a few distinguished blacks there were mausolea, generally rectangular brick structures. Between the extremes, however, are the many small stone tablets with minimal decoration such as a wreath





21. *Laurel Grove-South Cemetery, Savannah, Chatham County. Developed from 1852 to the present. (Carter Tomassi for HPS)*

motif or cross. Collectively these gravestones form part of the community's record of social structure and process.

#### *Development of Black Schools*

The history of black educational resources in Georgia reflects the evolution of racially separate facilities, from the founding of private institutions after emancipation through the development of public schools in the twentieth century. Federal assistance to black schools through the Freedmen's Bureau lasted only from 1865 to 1870. The support of black elementary and secondary schools and colleges became primarily the missionary work of white religious societies, most notably the Freedmen's Aid Society (Methodist Episcopal Church), the American Missionary Association (Northern Congregational Church), the Presbyterian Board of Missions for Freedmen, the American Church Institute for Negroes (Protestant Episcopal Church), and the American Baptist Home Mission Society. The

African Methodist Episcopal Church, the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church, and the black Baptist churches through regional associations also supported black private education in Georgia. The transition from private to publicly supported institutions was facilitated by the contributions of nonsectarian philanthropic foundations such as the General Education Board, the John F. Slater Fund, the Anna T. Jeanes Foundation, the Julius Rosenwald Fund, and the Phelps-Stokes Fund.

Substantial private support of black education in Georgia continued well into the twentieth century. It was a notable achievement that just forty-five years after slavery, two of every three blacks over ten years of age had become literate in a state where public elementary education was separate, inferior, and unavailable to nearly half of the black school age population. Black teachers, generally inadequately trained, received about half the salary paid white teachers. County per capita allocations of state and local funds for black students ranged from less than 10 percent to nearly 60 percent of per capita allocations for white students. Black students who worked during the cotton growing season attended school irregularly, receiving even less education than the short sessions generally afforded. The graduates of Georgia's schools and colleges, their leadership and community contributions, are the living testimony of the hard-won struggle for education in the state. The historic resources also tell the story of educational achievement in the face of great odds. The following sections describe the general characteristics of primary and secondary schools and colleges.

### *Primary Schools*

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, black education was largely a community responsibility. Unlike the mostly publicly provided educational facilities in the white community, black school buildings had to be built and maintained by blacks; public funds only supported teachers' salaries. Schools were constructed by volunteer labor, sometimes under the supervision of an experienced black carpenter. By 1915, less than 40 percent of the buildings used for black elementary education were publicly owned, most facilities having been provided by churches and lodge halls, particularly in rural areas. Moreover, most of the publicly owned black schools at that time had been deeded to counties by black churches and lodges.

It is not surprising, therefore, that black schools were generally modest facilities. A 1920s survey of Georgia's black schools determined that 48 buildings were made of stone or brick, 2,825 of frame



22. *Roberson School, Wheeler County. A typical one-room school for black children, photo taken in 1930. (Atlanta University Library Archives)*

23. *Chestnut Grove School, Athens vicinity, Clarke County. Constructed in 1896, an extant example of a rural one-room school for black children. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*



construction, and 33 of logs. Rural primary schools were generally one-room structures in which one teacher taught all ages (Figures 22-24). Only one in five schools had two or more rooms. Accounts of these schools generally report inadequate and deteriorating facilities. Classrooms, particularly in lodge halls, had unfinished walls, and were unceiled and unpainted. Even by the 1930s, a significant number were without sashes and panes. On cold or rainy days when shutters were closed, there was little light. Inadequate heating also characterized the schools. A few had fireplaces, but most had wood-burning stoves, many of which were in disrepair and too small for adequate heating. Most schools had blackboards, but these were generally unplanned pine boards stained black. Student desks were often rough-hewn, straight-back benches, sometimes with planks attached to the backs for writing. Since these buildings generally lacked plumbing, outside privies were provided, and water was carried from some distance. Urban primary schools were constructed of brick or wood. They were graded, but overcrowding often

24. *Interior of an elementary school, White Plains, Greene County. Photo taken in 1941. (Farm Security Administration photo by Delano)*





25. *Lamson-Richardson School, Marshallville, Macon County. Constructed in 1915, rear gymnasium wing demolished in 1983. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

necessitated double sessions.

The Lamson-Richardson School in Marshallville, Macon County, is one of the few documented examples in Georgia of a progressive early twentieth-century black school design (Figure 25). It is a one-story brick structure containing five classrooms with built-in blackboards, patent desks, and adequate electrical lighting. The school's history reflects the evolution of black education from privately to publicly supported institutions. Founded in 1887 by Ann Wade, an ex-slave, and Kate Lamson, a YWCA counselor, it was supported for a time by the American Missionary Association. The present building was constructed in 1915 with funds from the Tremont Temple Baptist Church in Boston. Outside private support gradually dwindled, and by 1957 the school was consolidated with the public system. Recently, the deteriorated rear wing of the building has been demolished.

### *Secondary Schools*

The history of black secondary education in Georgia is largely the story of private schools. In 1913, there were thirty-two private schools that served most of Georgia's black secondary school students. All of these institutions, however, had elementary students who comprised the majority of their enrollment. The private schools which offered



26. *Booker T. Washington High School, Atlanta, Fulton County. Constructed in 1924 as Atlanta's first public high school for blacks, photo taken ca. 1930. (Atlanta University Library Archives)*

college courses also served primarily elementary and secondary school students in their early years. These will be described in the section of this handbook on colleges. While some of the urban schools were restricted to one or more city lots, most private secondary schools owned several acres on the fringes of town or in outlying rural areas. Most were campuses with complexes of buildings and farm acreage. The value of the land occupied by these schools ranged from \$200 to \$11,000; the value of the buildings from \$900 to \$36,500.

Most of the private secondary schools had only frame buildings, although about a third had both frame and brick structures. Most buildings were multi-purpose, serving for instruction, administration, and lodging. A survey in 1913 determined that these buildings reflected many variations in design and exterior detailing. The mansard-roofed or "academy" style popular in the 1880s could be found at some schools. Walker Baptist Institute in Augusta, for example, had such a building, a four-story, thirty-two room brick structure housing a dormitory, a chapel, and dining room. Many rural school buildings had urban characteristics — compact and formal plans, multiple stories, basements, and high ceilings. Only the more recent buildings were likely to have been designed by architects or manual training teachers. Students often took part in the construction of their own school buildings. Ceilings were of wood, and floors of pine.

During the early part of the century urban schools had plumbing, electric lights, and heat generated by a separate plant. Rural schools had wood privies, lamps, and stoves.

Public secondary education for African-Americans in Georgia came slowly. Between 1902 and 1914, seventy-eight white high schools were established by state expense. By 1916, however, the Athens High and Industrial School was the only four-year public high school for blacks in the state. Atlanta blacks did not have a public high school until Booker T. Washington High School was built in 1924 after prolonged political struggle (Figure 26).

County training schools were introduced to meet the secondary school needs of rural blacks. Supported by state funds, the General Education Board, and the black community, these schools were intended to serve as centralized facilities where blacks could supplement elementary school training and prepare for teaching. They offered instruction in agricultural, industrial, and domestic sciences to youths and adults. Dormitories and houses accommodated resident students and teachers. Although most county training schools offered some secondary school instruction, initially they were for the most part elementary institutions that gradually evolved into high schools. By 1931, Georgia had thirty-seven such training schools. One of the first to be established was the Washington County Training School in Sandersville, now named, after its founder, the Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School. In 1913, with the property vested in a black board of trustees, the school was supervised by Sandersville authorities. While 172 students at that time were enrolled in the eight elementary grades, 8 were in the secondary course. Manual instruction included woodworking and sewing. The school campus originally consisted of two acres near the city limits on which were eventually located a main instruction building funded by the black community and a smaller industrial building constructed with money from a northern donor. Both were frame structures. In 1917 a domestic science building was erected with the aid of the Rosenwald Fund, which assisted states and local districts in the South to build black schools and teachers' houses. Following the construction of a dormitory, a fifth building was completed in 1928 with support from the Rosenwald Fund (Figure 27). It was a brick building that today remains as one of the few structures exemplifying a Rosenwald model school. It is an intact H-plan with its original interior and exterior finishes. After a high school was constructed, the Elder school was downgraded in 1960 to an elementary school. The building now stands unoccupied, although plans are underway to put it to a new community use. Non-historic rear additions have recently been removed.



27. *Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School, Sandersville, Washington County. Constructed in 1928 with support from the Rosenwald Fund. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

### *Colleges*

By the first quarter of the twentieth century, Georgia had thirteen schools offering college courses for blacks. Nine of these were private: Atlanta University, Gammon Theological Seminary, Clark, Morehouse, Morris Brown, Spelman, Paine, and Central City colleges, and the Atlanta School of Social Work. All with the exception of Paine in Augusta and Central City in Macon were located in Atlanta, making the city a national center for black higher education. Most of the private colleges were founded before 1885 by religious societies. Initially these schools enrolled mostly elementary and secondary students, but between 1920 and 1930 began offering primarily college level work.

The Atlanta schools now comprise the Atlanta University Center (Figure 28). The Center is a varied complex of buildings set within a residential neighborhood of Victorian cottages. The school buildings



date from 1869 when Gaines Hall was constructed for Atlanta University, to the construction of Clark College's new campus in the 1940s, and the development of the Interdenominational Theological Center (incorporating Gammon and other theological seminaries) in the 1950s. The early buildings are typically three-story structures of red brick in the Italianate, Queen Anne, and Romanesque Revival styles common in the late nineteenth century. Gaines Hall, now part of Morris Brown, Morehouse's Graves Hall, and Spelman's Rockefeller Hall are, respectively, examples of these styles. The early twentieth-century buildings such as the old Carnegie Library on the Morris Brown campus and Morehouse's Sale Hall and John Hope Hall are red brick Georgian Revival structures typical of the period. Many of the buildings are distinguished by intricate brick detailing and a mixture of facade materials. Although the designers of many of the buildings are unknown, accomplished architects and builders have been identified for some of the structures. William H. Parkins and Gottfried L. Norrman, noted Atlanta architects, designed Morris Brown's Gaines Hall and Foundation Hall respectively. Sisters' Chapel on the

28. *Atlanta University, Atlanta, Fulton County. North Hall (dating from 1869, now Gaines Hall) on the right and Stone Hall (dating from 1882, now Fountain Hall) in the center still stand on the Morris Brown campus. Photo taken ca. 1895. (Atlanta Historical Society)*





29. *Hill Hall, Savannah State College, Savannah, Chatham County. Constructed in 1901 by students at the college. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

Spelman College campus is a 1922 Neoclassical building designed by Neel Reid.

Georgia's first black college was the Georgia State Industrial College, now known as Savannah State College (Figure 29). Founded in 1890 as a land grant institution, it was supported by Georgia's share of federal appropriations from the Morrill Act and by state funds. Fort Valley State College, Albany State College, and the State Teachers and Agricultural College in Forsyth, which later merged with Fort Valley, were the other black state institutions of higher learning.

### *Lodges and Societies*

Lodges followed the family, church, and school in relative importance to the black community. Although black lodges and societies have purposes and rituals similar to those of their white counterparts, their role in the black community is more dominant. Many of them are



30. *Eulonia Masonic Lodge, Eulonia, McIntosh County. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

small independent organizations which proliferated at the local level. Others are the affiliates of national associations or fraternal orders. Lodges functioned largely as mutual aid societies offering benefits for sickness and death. A 1920s survey of Macon County found forty-eight such groups, all of them founded as local organizations during the second decade of the twentieth century. These included chapters of the Knights of Pythias, Masons, Odd Fellows, Courts of Calanthe, United Gospel Aid, the Brothers and Sisters of Charity, and many others. Rural associations were likely to have lower monthly dues, yet higher benefits, than urban associations. Dues ranged from \$.20 to \$1.25 per month; sick benefits from \$.75 to \$3.00 per week; and death claims from \$35 to \$400.

While over half the independent lodges surveyed in Macon County did not own their meeting halls and had to use other lodge halls, churches, or abandoned dwellings, three-fourths of nationally affiliated lodges owned their buildings. Most lodges originated in churches and, in rural areas, were usually located near them. Their headquarters were generally two-story frame structures, unpainted, unceiled, and with unfinished interior walls (Figure 30). Ordinarily the lodge met on

the second floor, while the first floor served as a school room. The anteroom of the upper story contained the paraphernalia of lodge rituals. Membership in the rural societies has declined steadily due to the availability of commercial insurance, the failure of some societies to meet benefit obligations, and the out-migration to urban areas. Urban lodges and fraternal orders often had substantial buildings that were the centers of black social and economic life. These will be discussed in the section on commercial resources.

## **Commercial Resources**

Black businesses in Georgia and elsewhere in the country have characteristically been small urban enterprises engaged in the sale of goods and services to the black community. The small scale of these operations is due largely to the racism that has plagued black business, depriving it of capital and nearly eliminating it from competition. The successful ventures attest not only to individual achievement but also to community cooperation.

During slavery, a few free blacks in Georgia established significant businesses. Solomon Humphries of Macon and James Tate of Atlanta became affluent grocers catering to whites. In fact, black enterprise through the late nineteenth century often served the white market. As Jim Crow policies became institutionalized around the turn of the century, and as segregated residential patterns developed in cities throughout Georgia, black businesses and professions were increasingly restricted to the black market. In 1890, blacks had dominated the barbering trade, outnumbering whites ten to one; by 1920 they were outnumbered by whites two to one.

Of the nearly two thousand black businesses in Georgia which were surveyed by Atlanta University in 1916, over half were food-related establishments such as groceries and restaurants, and personal service operations including barbering, shoemaking and repairing, tailoring, and pressing. These businesses had long traditions, many of them dating back to the early years of emancipation. Most of these businesses relied on black consumers in the early twentieth century. Other building trades such as blacksmithing, cooperage, bricklaying, and carpentry served primarily white patrons. Businesses which were relatively few in number, but which had significant impact on the black community and its built environment, included financial service establishments such as banks, insurance companies, fraternal organizations, and real estate companies; entertainment facilities like



31. Cotton Street, Macon, Bibb County. Macon's black business district in the late nineteenth century, photo taken c. 1905. (Charles H. Hutchings, IV)

theaters; and health-related services of physicians, dentists, druggists, and undertakers.

The following sections of this handbook describe some of these urban and rural commercial resources and summarize the role of black building tradesmen as key entrepreneurs in the development of the black built environment.

### *Urban Businesses*

Most of the historic commercial resources remaining in the black built environment are located in towns and cities. The urban environment encouraged the concentration of commercial activity. In addition, increasing racial segregation in the city made necessary and desirable greater black self-sufficiency. This self-sufficiency was evidenced in many Georgia towns by a small separate commercial district near the principal white business district or within a black residential neighborhood (Figures 31-33). The district often consisted



32. *West Jackson Street, Thomasville, Thomas County. An area developed beginning ca. 1902 which evolved into Thomasville's historic black business district. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

33. *Harlem Business District, South Jackson Street, Albany, Dougherty County. A black business district developed from the 1920s to the 1950s. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*



of a main street extending for one or more blocks on which fronted one-and two-story business structures of frame or brick. These buildings were generally early twentieth-century structures that housed a characteristic variety of black businesses: groceries, drugstores, restaurants, barber and beauty shops, funeral homes, lodge halls, and in the larger towns and cities, insurance companies, professional offices, and theaters, some of which were often located together in a single multi-story structure.

A number of developments contributed to the demise of these black business districts. The Depression of the 1930s, the out-migration of blacks from small towns and historic black neighborhoods, and the desegregation of public accommodations all eroded the economic support of these commercial areas. Black businesses lost the captive market they had relied upon under the reign of Jim Crow. Although some historic business districts remain, they are often threatened by disuse or urban redevelopment. These districts warrant further survey and research to reconstruct their characteristic patterns of development.

Somewhat better documented are the commercial resources of Georgia's larger cities. The business buildings along Atlanta's Auburn Avenue, for example, are exceptional black commercial structures, and perhaps shed light on the growth and decline of Georgia's other black commercial facilities. Black institutional and commercial development was in its ascendance in the early part of the century in response to, and in spite of, the restrictions of an increasingly racist society. The history of Atlanta's fraternal associations and insurance companies, for example, helps explain the development of what are perhaps the most significant kinds of black commercial structures in the state.

Auburn Avenue in the late nineteenth century was part of an interracial residential community. Black businesses at that time were located on Decatur Street, closer to Atlanta's central business district. As racial segregation took firm hold in the early twentieth century, black businesses left Decatur Street and concentrated on Auburn, while whites fled the Avenue. One of the most significant buildings constructed along Auburn Avenue was the Odd Fellows Building, which was owned by Georgia's largest and wealthiest chapter of a national black fraternal order. The Odd Fellows had purchased this entire block of Auburn Avenue, on which they constructed a six-story brick and stone building with a two-story auditorium addition that housed stores, shops, offices, lodge meeting rooms, and a theater and roof garden (Figure 34). Designed by white architect William A. Edwards and constructed by black mason Robert E. Pharrow in 1913,

the building is considered architecturally outstanding.

Multiple-use buildings were typical of business districts in other Georgia cities also. For example, Gainesville had a multi-use Odd

34. *Odd Fellows Building, Atlanta, Fulton County. Constructed in 1912. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*





Fellows Building. Athens had its Morton Theater Building (Figure 35), located in what was once a thriving black commercial area that developed in the early twentieth century west of the central business district. In addition to a theater, the Athens structure, like the one in Gainesville, housed the characteristic mix of black commerce: barber and beauty shops, restaurants, funeral homes, drug stores, professional offices, and insurance companies.

Not all substantial black commercial structures were multiple-use. The Atlanta Life Insurance Company, for example, occupied an entire building on Auburn Avenue that had previously been owned by the YMCA. The insurance company applied a Beaux Arts classical facade in 1927 and, during the next decade, added a wing in the same style.

35. *The Morton Building, Athens, Clarke County. Constructed in 1910. (James R. Lockhart)*





36. *Penny Savings Bank, Augusta, Richmond County. Constructed in 1922 at the time of the bank's merger with the Citizens Trust Company of Atlanta. (Richard Dozier)*

The history of Atlanta Life reflects the evolution of insurance companies from benevolent and mutual aid associations that originated in the black church to meet the financial emergencies of sickness and death.

Other black commercial facilities including banks (Figure 36), funeral homes, hospitals, hotels, and early transportation, food, and personal service establishments require more survey and research to determine their development patterns and architectural characteristics.

### *Rural Economic Development*

The information on rural commercial resources is even less complete than that on urban resources. Undoubtedly, rural areas had fewer and less substantial black businesses, and the buildings which housed these businesses are less likely to have survived. Nevertheless, these businesses are perhaps no less significant to black community



37. *Cooperative store at the Camilla-Zack Country Life Center, Hancock County. Constructed in 1930. (Van Martin for HPS)*

38. *Community center at the Camilla-Zack Country Life Center, Hancock County. Constructed in 1932. (Van Martin for HPS)*



development or no less worthy of study than those in urban areas. Much more survey and research is needed to determine the characteristic features of the small country stores owned and/or operated by African-Americans in rural black settlements. There is one unique example of rural black economic activity in the state. The Camilla-Zack Community Center (Figure 37 and 38), a complex of business, educational, and social institutions in Hancock County, was founded by the Camilla and Zack Hubert family to increase black self-sufficiency through landownership, improved farming methods, and economic cooperation. The Center, which was developed in the 1930s, and which thrived during the Depression, contained a cooperative store, cafeteria, health and community centers, swimming pool, and school and residential facilities for teacher training. The log structures were designed by architect W.W. Wilkes of South Carolina State College and constructed under the supervision of Antonio Orsot of Savannah State College.

### *Building Trades*

In Georgia and elsewhere in the South, slave artisans were dominant in many aspects of building construction. Plantation dwellings for slave and free were usually the work of slave carpenters, masons, plasterers, painters, and ironsmiths. Some of these trades had precedents in West African traditions of woodwork, metalwork, and earthen house construction. The craftsmen who hired themselves out, particularly those in the city, were among the first black entrepreneurs in this country. James Sims, a Savannah carpenter, accumulated enough money to buy his freedom and achieve some measure of wealth. A carpenter/builder known only as "Mr. Sessions of Virginia" is responsible for a number of fine plantation houses (Figure 39) and churches in Twiggs and the surrounding counties built between about 1845 and 1855. He is believed to be a black entrepreneur who worked in this state for some years. Horace King, a slave carpenter who eventually gained his freedom, became economically self-sufficient. He worked initially for Robert Jemison, a Black Belt bridge builder. In time, King designed and supervised the construction of bridges (Figure 40) and industrial buildings in Georgia and Alabama.

Following emancipation and through the nineteenth century, blacks continued to dominate some aspects of the building trades and to account for a significant proportion of the workers in other areas. By 1890, approximately 40 percent of Georgia's blacksmiths and carpenters were black, while two-thirds of the masons and three-fourths

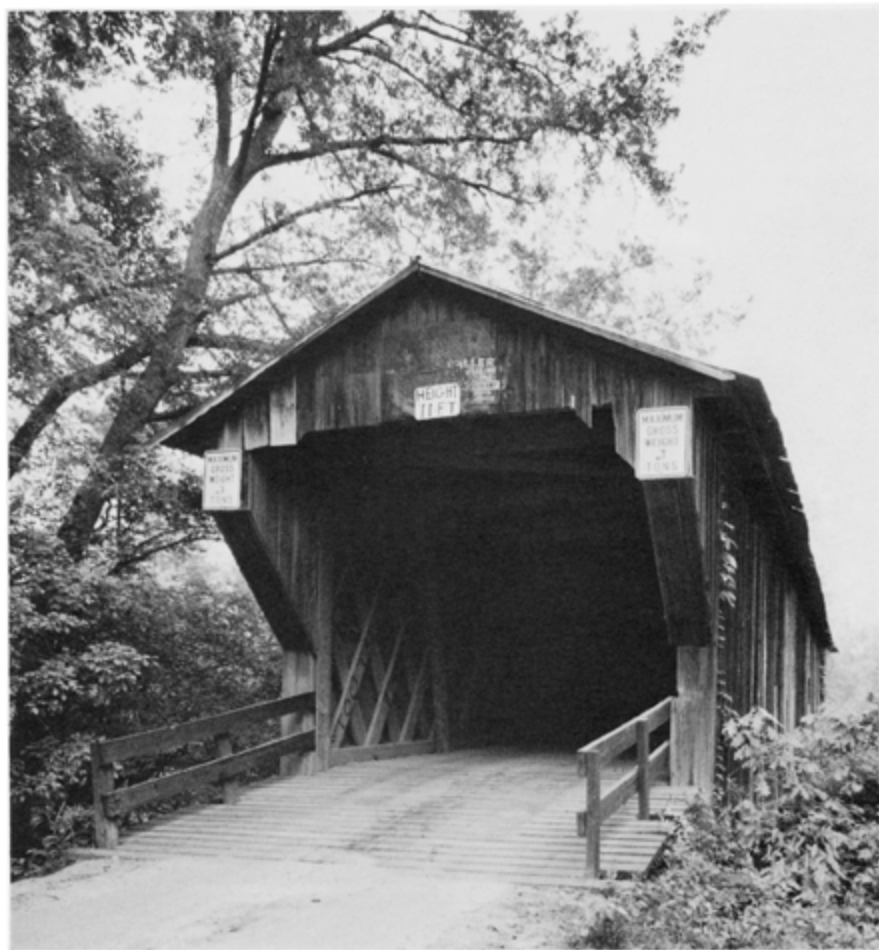
of the plasterers and cement finishers were black. In the twentieth century, however, white tradesmen succeeded in excluding blacks from jobs, union membership, and apprenticeship programs, severely reducing the participation of blacks in the building trades. In spite of this racism, the work of black craftsmen can be seen throughout Georgia. A few black builders continued to prosper. Alexander Hamilton, the leading black contractor in Atlanta during the early twentieth century, together with his son, built houses, churches, schools, and commercial buildings for both the black and white communities.

Historically, college-trained black architects were rare, but several are represented by work in the state. From early in its history, Tuskegee Institute, established in 1811, trained architects in the building trades and architectural drawing. Thomas Bynes, a Tuskegee graduate, designed First African Baptist Church in Bainbridge in

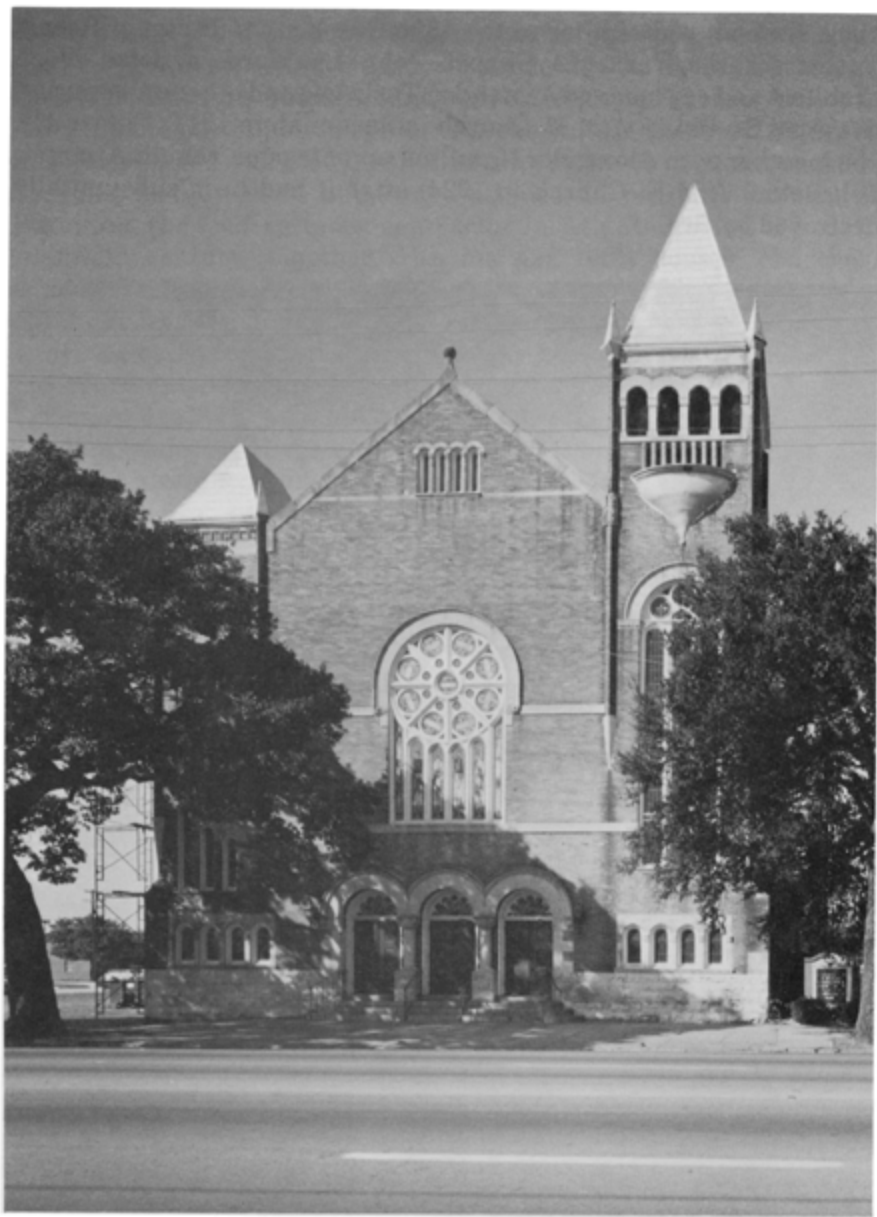
39. *Hollywood, Twiggs County. Constructed ca. 1850, probably by "Mr. Sessions of Virginia."* (James R. Lockhart for HPS)



1902. Its plan was similar to the 1896 Greek cross design of Robert Taylor for the Tuskegee Chapel. John Lankford, a noted black architect and engineer who attended Tuskegee and other universities, designed St. Philip A.M.E. Church in Savannah in 1911 (Figure 41). He, together with Alexander Hamilton as contractor, rebuilt Atlanta's Big Bethel A.M.E. Church in 1924, after it had been substantially destroyed by fire.



40. *Red Oak Covered Bridge, Meriwether County. Constructed ca. 1840 by black bridge builder, Horace King. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*



41. *St. Philip A.M.E. Church, Savannah, Chatham County. Designed by black architect, John Lankford and constructed in 1911. (James R. Lockhart for HPS)*

# 3

## Identification

This chapter presents a step-by-step process for surveying historic African-American resources. The procedure can be used by public and private agencies and persons interested in identifying significant districts and individual properties as an initial step in their recognition and protection.

Surveys are conducted at different levels of detail for different purposes. A quick overview of the kinds of historic resources in a designated area can be achieved through what is sometimes called a windshield survey. Such a survey, which is conducted by automobile or foot, identifies all or selected resources, recording such features as building type, style, material, age, setting, and integrity. This type of survey is often preliminary to the more comprehensive survey which records in greater detail the physical features of individual properties and their historical and architectural characteristics.

The guidelines presented in this chapter are for the more comprehensive surveys, those which compile information necessary for determining the eligibility of resources for the National Register of Historic Places. In addition, these guidelines can be used by agencies and organizations for initial documentation in establishing historic district zoning and for preliminary assessment of the impact of governmental projects on cultural resources.

### **Delineating the Survey Area**

Preservation objectives determine what area and what resources are to be surveyed. Frequently, the identification of all the resources in a neighborhood or community significant in terms of African-American history is desired. To accomplish this, a survey must consider all historic residential, institutional, and commercial facilities in the area. These resources may be widely dispersed. More often, because of racially segregated development patterns, they are likely to be clustered together, indicating the possibility of historic districts significant for their association with the black community. Sometimes a more limited objective will require investigation of a single building,



or a small complex of related resources such as a dwelling, its ancillary structures, and adjacent land. In many cases preservation activity will have been generated by interest in one or more historic buildings which may be threatened by deterioration or demolition. Other related resources, however, may still be standing but not identified, and they may be part of the historical context in which the known buildings take on greater significance. It is within this larger historical context that the resources must be evaluated.

To assist in determining the survey boundaries of potential districts, the following guidelines are suggested:

1. Determine the objectives of the survey.
2. Consult with historians, local residents, historical societies, and preservation organizations, as well as published histories and other information sources, to locate and determine the general historical background of significant African-American neighborhoods. Make a preliminary determination of the historical themes and broad patterns of history associated with the area. Research the events, individuals, patterns of development, and communities of people that are associated with the area.
3. Check with city agencies, local historical societies, preservation organizations, and the Historic Preservation Section of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources to determine if any surveys such as county surveys have identified African-American resources in the area.
4. Ride or walk the area to locate the concentration of historic resources.
5. Delineate survey boundaries that incorporate not only the obvious concentrations of historic properties, but also adjacent areas that may contain related resources.
6. Consult with the preservation planner of the Area Planning and Development Commission, or the Historic Preservation Section, for assistance in refining the survey boundaries. If the survey is a step to nominating a district to the National Register of Historic Places, keep in mind that the area must have a high concentration of relatively intact historic properties to be eligible.
7. Write a description of the survey boundaries, and explain why they were chosen.
8. Delineate the survey area on a suitable map.

## **Organizing the Survey**

Once the survey area has been defined, people, money, and time must be organized before the survey can begin. The following

guidelines are proposed to facilitate this effort:

1. Identify a person or persons who can direct or assist in the management of the survey. Identifying significant properties requires training and experience in recognizing kinds of resources, architectural styles, construction methods, and materials; in researching historical documentation; and in placing resources in a broad historical context. Survey management also requires organizational skills. The surveyor may be a local resident or an outside consultant contracted for a specific time to conduct the survey. Contact the preservation planner in the Area Planning and Development Commission, the local preservation organizations, or the Historic Preservation Section for help in finding such expertise.
2. Determine whether other personnel are required to conduct the survey. The survey may require one or more local residents who are key informants on community history, and who can facilitate the surveyor's access to the properties that will be surveyed. Volunteers may need to be trained to carry out some aspects of the survey project.
3. Estimate the amount of money required to conduct the survey, including the costs of a trained surveyor (if needed), local assistants, transportation, photography, and reproduction of survey forms.
4. Identify the financial resources available to carry out the survey. Local churches and organizations may provide some funds, as may special money-raising projects. A significant portion of the survey, however, will probably be supported by small contributions and volunteer services.
5. Develop or determine the appropriate survey form to be used. The survey-inventory form of the Historic Preservation Section is used as an example in this chapter (Figure 42). Public and private agencies can obtain it from the Historic Preservation Section, and are encouraged to reproduce it for local surveys.
6. Find or prepare a map for recording each property surveyed. For in-town surveys, Area Planning and Development Commission planning maps or tax maps that delineate individual properties will work best. City maps prepared by the Georgia Department of Transportation may also be used. For rural areas, Georgia Department of Transportation county road maps work well. Topographic maps such as United States Geological Survey maps may also be useful.
7. Develop a schedule for completing the survey in a reasonable period of time, and in accordance with available personnel and money.

COUNTY: Hart		No. <u>74</u>
GEORGIA ARCHITECTURAL AND HISTORIC PROPERTIES SURVEY-INVENTORY FORM		
I. IDENTIFICATION	PROPERTY NAME: Turner House	HISTORIC NAME: Jackson Morrison House
	STREET ADDRESS: 439 Rome Street	CITY: Hartwell
	PRESENT OWNER: Laura & V. Simpson Turner	MAILING ADDRESS: 714 Quincy Street
	CITY: Brooklyn	STATE: New York ZIP CODE: 11211
	CURRENT USE: Seasonal Residence	ACREAGE: 3.46 acres
	U.S.G.S. QUADRANGLE Hartwell	U.T.M. REFERENCE:
V.B.D. OR TAX MAP NUMBER: H-5-1-24		
II. DESCRIPTION	ARCHITECTURAL DESCRIPTION AND PRESENT CONDITION: One-story dwelling; plain style, frame construction, sheathed in weatherboard, one-story shed-roofed porch, gable roof covered in asphalt shingles, internal chimney, former rear porch enclosed, windows altered, house originally situated on brick piers now infilled with concrete block; central hall plan, interior altered with dropped ceilings and paneled walls; good condition; house and recent concrete-block garage situated in northeast corner of property and sited on highest elevation, pecan grove surrounding house, remaining property open pasture, new housing surrounds property.	
III. HISTORY	ORIGINAL OWNER: Jackson Morrison	ORIGINAL USE: Residence
	ARCHITECT/BUILDER: Jackson Morrison	HISTORIC ACREAGE: 4 acres
	DATE OF CONSTRUCTION: c. 1902	DATE(S) OF ALTERATIONS: 1970, 1981
	HISTORICAL NARRATIVE (FROM ORIGINS TO PRESENT): House built c. 1902 by Jackson Morrison. Morrison was carpenter, farmer. Also handled real estate transactions in Rome (Black) section of Hartwell, helping white landowners to sell property to Black citizens. Between 1920 and 1928 bought 10 lots which he later resold. As farmer, he raised corn, cotton, wheat, vegetables. Farmed 4-acre homeplace, land he acquired for resale, additional land in county. Wife worked as cook at Hartwell hotel. Couple died in 1960s. Homeplace purchased by granddaughter and husband in 1977. Interior remodeling and window alterations occurred in 1970. Garage built in 1980.	
IV. SIGNIFICANCE	N.R. AREA(S) OF SIGNIFICANCE: Architecture, landscape architecture, local history	LEVEL: Local
	STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE (ARCHITECTURAL AND HISTORICAL): In terms of <u>architecture</u> , the property is significant as an example in Hartwell of one type of <u>early-20th century house</u> that documents typical building materials, construction technology, and design principles associated with housing of the Black community. In <u>landscape architectural terms</u> , it is important for the siting of the residence on the highest point of the property. In terms of <u>local history</u> , it is significant for its association with Jackson Morrison, a prominent <u>citizen of Hartwell's Black community</u> . Morrison was an early entrepreneur, who made a living through his skills at carpentry, his <u>management of several tracts of farmland, and speculative real estate practices</u> .	
V. SOURCES	FORM PREPARED BY: Dale Jaeger	ORGANIZATION: Georgia Mountains APDC
	ADDRESS: Post Office Box 1720 Gainesville, Georgia 30503	TELEPHONE NUMBER: 404/536-3431
	REPRESENTATION IN EXISTING SURVEYS: Historic Structures Field Survey: Hart County (#74)	
SOURCES OF INFORMATION: Hart County Courthouse Records Interviews: Ms. Annie Armstrong, Hartwell, Georgia Ms. Laura Turner (granddaughter), Brooklyn, N.Y.		

42a. Example of a completed Georgia Architectural and Historic Properties Survey-Inventory Form (front side).



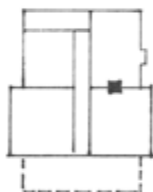
PHOTOGRAPHER: Dale Jaeger

DATE: 1981

ROLL NO.      FRAME NO.      NEGATIVES FILED: Georgia Mountains APDC

DIRECTION PHOTOGRAPHER FACING: Southwest

USE SPACE BELOW FOR CONTINUATION FROM FRONT, SKETCH PLANS OR MAPS, ADDITIONAL COMMENTS, ETC.



FLOOR PLAN



SITE PLAN

42b. Example of a completed Georgia Architectural and Historic Properties Survey-Inventory Form (back side).

8. Inform the general public of the survey project, its purpose, the geographic area and kinds of resources to be surveyed, the period during which the survey will be conducted, and the ways in which the community can cooperate in the effort. Announcements in local news media, distribution of flyers, and community meetings may be effective means for informing the public and enlisting its support. The surveyor and assistants should carry identification that indicates the sponsor of the project. There should be a local contact person who can answer community inquiries about the survey.

## Conducting the Survey

If carefully organized, the historic resources survey can proceed systematically without needless delays. The following suggestions are offered to help ensure this:

1. Properties should be surveyed in some order, street by street, and section by section, according to a time schedule, so that every resource in the survey area is eventually identified. The checklist of historic resources located in Appendix A should serve as a reference to the full range of potentially significant properties.
2. As each resource is surveyed, a survey form is filled out. The survey-inventory form designed by the Historic Preservation Section is described below. Figure 42 is an example of a completed form.
  - *Identification.* The first section of the form calls for the location of the resource by county. A number is assigned to each property surveyed according to a system predetermined by the survey manager. Each resource is then identified by name, address, ownership, and by reference to official maps. The amount of technical information provided in this section depends on the survey's purpose.
  - *Description.* The second section of the form records briefly the physical features of the property, including building type and size, architectural style, building material, and present condition (whether poor, fair, good, excellent, deteriorating, moved, or threatened by demolition). Additions and alterations to features such as siding, windows, doors, rooflines, and porches should be described. It is also helpful to record here the general environment and the relationship of the resource to manmade structures and natural features. A description of the interior may be appropriate for some surveys.
  - *History.* If known, the original owner and use are recorded in

the third section of the form, as are the dates of construction and alterations. A brief narrative should state the property's development from its origin to the present, citing changing uses and associations with events and users. (Specific suggestions for documenting historical and architectural background are given in Chapter Four.)

- *Significance.* This section asks for the areas of significance as defined by the National Register of Historic Places. The list of areas of significance includes the following: prehistoric archaeology, historic archaeology, agriculture, architecture, art, commerce, communications, community planning and development, conservation, economics, education, engineering, exploration/settlement, industry, invention, landscape architecture, law, literature, military, music, philosophy, politics/government, religion, science, sculpture, social/humanitarian, theater, transportation, and other (specify). (Guidelines for determining and evaluating significance are provided in Chapter Five.)
  - *Sources.* In preparing the survey form, a number of information sources will have been consulted, including maps, local histories, oral testimony, and public and private records. These sources should be cited in the fifth section of the form. (See Chapter Four and the bibliography for assistance on information sources.)
  - *Photography.* Each property surveyed should be photographed in black and white. Photographs should be taken from an angle that captures both the front and one side of each structure. A print of snapshot size should be attached to the survey form, with the photographer and location of the negative identified, and the date and orientation of the photograph indicated.
  - *Additional Information.* A sketch plan of the resource should be drawn in the last section of the survey form. If access to the resource or the information is available, the sketch should show the floor or site plan, its approximate dimensions, and the functions of rooms or areas indicated. The northerly direction and front entrance should be marked. The last section of the form can also be used for additional information or comments on the architectural and historical description and significance of the property. Other supporting documentation such as maps, interview notes, and copies of public and private documents should be kept with the survey form.
3. As each resource is surveyed, the survey map should be coded by number to correspond with the number of its survey form.
  4. Each completed survey form, photograph, map notation, and piece

of supporting documentation should be reviewed for consistency and clarity.

5. Arrangements should be made for the permanent storage of survey forms, maps, photographs, and supporting documentation. The Historic Preservation Section should be informed of the location and accessibility of the survey data and would like to receive a copy for its files, if possible.
6. As a general rule, survey forms for non-historic resources in the survey area (those constructed within the past fifty years) may be filled out in less detail than those forms for historic resources.

# 4

## Documentation

To identify historic properties and determine their significance, a variety of information sources must be consulted. Property records and historical narratives, for example, are keys in the documentation of a building's ownership history, its changing uses, and its importance to the community's development. This chapter will state the kinds of questions to ask in researching black historic resources and will describe information sources that help provide some of the answers.

### **Where is the Property Located?**

Most historic resources will be identified or located during the field survey. Some, however, may come to the attention of the surveyor by word of mouth or through documentary research. Resources identified or to be identified in the field should be referenced on a map. A variety of maps depict buildings, property lines, roadways, topography, and other features which not only locate historic resources, but also give evidence of the nature and density of the built environment at various stages in a community's development.

#### *U.S. Geological Survey Maps*

U.S. Geological Survey (U.S.G.S.) maps show topography, which is the elevation of the land, and its manmade and natural features. They are highly detailed maps (commonly one inch equals two thousand feet) which record such features as civil boundaries, roadways, paths, bodies of water, railroads, utility structures, buildings, and cemeteries. Georgia maps can be purchased for \$2.25 each from the Georgia Geologic Survey, Department of Natural Resources, Room 400, 19 Martin Luther King Drive, S.W., Atlanta, Georgia 30334. An index for ordering the desired quadrangle of the U.S.G.S. series can be obtained free of charge from that office. These maps can also be purchased at higher cost from some city and county offices, regional planning commissions, engineering firms, and camping stores. They



can also be ordered directly from the U.S.G.S. Branch of Distribution, 1200 South Eads Street, Arlington, Virginia 22202.

### *Planning Maps*

Cities and counties which have engaged in planning activities will probably have detailed base maps that show roadways, railroads, bodies of water, civil boundaries, property and easement lines, and structures. Maps depicting structures may also indicate address, building type, land use, condition, age, and other features useful in historic sites surveying. These usually are prepared by the Area Planning and Development Commission in which the city or county is located.

### *Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps*

Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps (commonly called "Sanborn maps") are highly detailed, 1" = 50' scale maps of America's towns and cities. They were published and frequently updated by the Sanborn Map Company between the 1870s and the 1960s. These large maps (21" x 25") indicate the location, plan, construction material, and number of stories of individual buildings in a community. This information is conveyed graphically, through notation, and through a color-coded system of symbols on the maps.

Sanborn maps exist for 163 Georgia communities. A complete set of the maps is located in the Map Room of the Science Library at the University of Georgia in Athens. In addition, the Georgia State University Library in Atlanta has microfilm copies of the maps available in its Microfilm Room. Information on specific Georgia communities mapped, the dates of each mapping, and the number of map sheets for each date can be obtained from the University of Georgia Science Library in Athens or the State Historic Preservation Office (the Historic Preservation Section) in Atlanta.

Photocopies of Sanborn maps can be ordered conveniently from:

Map Collection  
 Science Library  
 University of Georgia Libraries  
 Athens, Georgia 30602  
 Attention: Tom Hardaway  
 Telephone: (404) 542-4535

Orders are processed promptly, and customers will be billed by the University Copy Service. Copying charges are: for black-and-white

copies, \$0.40 per Sanborn map sheet (it takes 4 sheets of 11" x 17" copy paper at \$0.10 per sheet to cover each Sanborn map sheet); for color copies, \$3.60 per Sanborn map sheet (it takes 6 sheets of 8 1/2" x 11" copy paper at \$0.60 per sheet to cover each Sanborn map sheet).

Sanborn maps are an invaluable research tool and should be consulted in compiling documentation for surveys and nominations to the National Register. They are especially useful when dealing with commercial properties, industrial complexes, and historic districts. Sanborn maps can be used to date buildings, structures, and other features, to identify historic building materials, to document historic development patterns in districts, to determine the integrity of structures and districts, and to locate historically vacant lots and the sites of demolished historic structures.

More information about Sanborn maps can be found in *Fire Insurance Maps in the Library of Congress: Plans of North American Cities and Towns Produced by the Sanborn Map Company*, published by the Reference and Bibliography Section, Geography and Map Division, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. (1981).

### *Property or Tax Maps*

These maps are developed for tax assessment. In rural areas they have sometimes been compiled from recorded deeds. Cities have also developed them from field surveys and property records. Today, property is often mapped from aerial photographs which show fence lines, structures, and other features that help delineate ownership. The county tax office and the city clerk's office will have available maps or sketches of plats.

### *Transportation Maps*

The Georgia Department of Transportation prepares general highway maps of each county showing several classifications of roads, railroads, watercourses, and utility structures. These maps also record dwellings, and commercial, agricultural, industrial, and institutional buildings, such as cemeteries, churches, and schools. They can be obtained for \$1.50 each from the Georgia Department of Transportation, 2 Capitol Square, Atlanta, Georgia 30334-1002, Attention: Map Sales.

### *Other Maps*

Miscellaneous historical maps may be found in local government offices or in published materials. Sometimes private manuscript

collections in local libraries and historical societies contain informative maps. For early maps of towns, districts, and plats, also contact the Surveyor General's Office in the Georgia Department of Archives and History, 330 Capitol Avenue, S.W., Atlanta, Georgia 30334; the Library of Congress, Geography and Map Division, John Madison Building, 101 Independence Avenue, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20540; and the National Archives, Cartographic and Architectural Archives Branch, NNSC, Washington, D.C. 20408.

## **Who is Associated with the Property?**

Identifying the owners, occupants, users, designer, and builder of a resource requires research of public and private documents. Determining ownership involves investigation of official records. However, since most African-Americans, like a significant proportion of European-Americans, have not owned the resources of their built environment, investigating the occupancy of slave and rental properties calls for the creative use of a variety of information sources, such as estate records, censuses, and city directories.

### *Deeds*

The transfer of landownership is recorded in deeds. These can provide information on a property if the name of an owner and the approximate time of the transfer are known. The present owner, or more likely his lawyer, may have title notes that report previous transfers of ownership. To obtain the ownership history predating the information available through the present owner, it may be necessary to work back through the deeds to reconstruct the chain of ownership. Deeds will identify the buyer (grantee) and seller (grantor), give the acreage of the property, its boundaries, and sale price, and will date the transaction. Deeds are recorded voluntarily in the office of the Clerk of Superior Court in the courthouse of the county where the property is located. Recorded deeds transacted before 1900 are also on microfilm at the Georgia Department of Archives and History.

### *Tax Digests*

The tax digest is an annual list of taxable property. It records the amount and value of land, slaves, household goods, and capital investments. The nature and value of the property assessed are indicators of the presence of dwellings and other improvements; changes in property valuation may document the construction of structures. Tax digests can be researched at the county courthouse.

They can also be found at the Georgia Department of Archives and History. Those that predate 1870 are on microfilm; those dating from 1870 on can be consulted in their original form. Knowing whether and when a building was located within a city limits is essential to determining the availability of tax information for the building in the county tax records.

### *Estate Records*

A series of records provides for the transfer of property at death. These records include wills, inventories, appraisals, and annual returns. Since estate records deal with the nature and extent of a person's wealth, the will and inventory usually identify slaves. For free blacks during slavery, and for all citizens after emancipation who either had wills or administered estates, there should be some direct or indirect reference to the ownership of land, buildings, and other capital. The county office of the probate judge maintains estate records. The Georgia Department of Archives and History has estate records prior to 1900 on microfilm for most counties.

### *Censuses*

The household composition of owners and occupants can be determined from federal manuscript population censuses for Georgia (1820 to 1880, 1900, and 1910). Once the head of the household has been identified, the names (for available censuses beginning in 1850), ages, and relationships (for available censuses beginning in 1880) can be established. Slave census schedules identify slaves by age and sex, not by name. The slave schedules for 1860, however, record the number of slave houses for each plantation and permit an estimate of a plantation's household size. The Federal Archives and Records Center at East Point has population censuses and selected manufacturing and mortality schedules. The Georgia Department of Archives and History in Atlanta has population, mortality, manufacturing, social statistics, and agricultural census schedules. Many local libraries also have population censuses on microfilm.

### *Directories*

City directories, which for the most part are published annually, list heads of households alphabetically and by street address. Early city directories usually indicated black residents. Classified sections are useful in the identification of black businessmen and professionals, including architects and building tradesmen. Business directories,

which are published for the larger cities, list merchants by name and address. The directories' advertisements may provide additional information such as the date the business was established.

### *Other Sources*

Identifying persons associated with a structure may require collecting oral history from persons who knew or knew of the property, its designer/builder, or its owners and occupants. Building permits, newspapers, and secondary sources may also be helpful in the identification process. See the sections below for use of these sources.

## **When Was the Structure Built?**

Dating a property is often difficult. The style, building materials, plan, and construction methods of the structure itself will in most cases suggest an approximate date of construction and the dates of later alterations. The records discussed below may help establish a more specific construction date.

### *Building Permits*

Authorization to construct and alter buildings in a city sometimes had to be obtained through building permits. These documents are dated, and describe generally the building to be constructed or the alterations to be made, specifying dimensions and materials, builder/architect, and sometimes the number of laborers. Some of these permits may still be on file at the issuing office. Early permits, however, may not have been maintained, having been either destroyed or deposited at a local records center. The Atlanta Historical Society, for example, has building permits for that city dating back to the late nineteenth century.

### *Tax Records*

County and city tax assessment offices often record on an index card the approximate date of a building and a sketch of the floor plan.

### *Other Sources*

Insurance maps, such as the Sanborn series which was prepared every seven to ten years, will suggest the approximate date of buildings. The first appearance of a building address in the city directory will also help determine the date of its construction. Family or business records may also document the date of construction of residential or commercial structures.

## What is the Property's History?

Locating a property, identifying the persons associated with it, and dating it provide historical background. Other information, however, must be gathered to reconstruct more fully the property's historical development and determine its historical and architectural significance. A variety of primary and secondary sources is available to assist in this. Oral information is of particular importance in researching the built environment of African-Americans, who are generally unaccounted for in traditional historical literature. Private papers, architectural records, and local histories are also valuable for research. For larger cities, newspapers may cover events and persons significant in the development of historic resources.

### *Oral Information*

Much of the history on black resources may come from community residents, usually older persons, who know of or were involved in the development of late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century dwellings, institutions, and businesses. These persons may be of assistance not only in identifying and dating properties but also in narrating their development and discussing their significance. Community leaders can refer surveyors and researchers to these informants. Persons presently occupying historic buildings may also be key informants, as may descendants of earlier owners and occupants. The kinds of questions that guide the oral interviews are: What purposes and uses did the resource serve at various stages of its development? How did physical alterations reflect changing uses and functions? What role or importance did the resource play in the overall development of the black community? Who was associated with the resource in the past? Interview notes should identify the sources of all testimony and any documentation supporting or conflicting with it.

### *Private Papers*

Families and individuals possess many documents which shed light on historic properties. Personal letters as well as business correspondence may refer to plans for construction and alteration, or may describe physical features and the uses of specific spaces. Business receipts may itemize building materials and services, furniture, or other articles that suggest specific activities and uses.

Photographs document the appearance of a building at earlier stages, sometimes capturing the original environment. Picture post-cards are sometimes the only available visual record of historic properties during the early twentieth century.

### *Institutional Records*

Organizations often have records such as minutes, membership lists, and special publications that identify persons and describe activities in the history of a site or structure. Sometimes photographs are available. Government offices in education, health, transportation, and rural and urban development may have photographs and annual reports that identify and describe resources.

### *Architectural Records and Periodicals*

Architectural drawings may exist for larger, more substantial structures. Generally difficult to find, some are on file at colleges and universities in the state or at federal agencies. The Historic American Building Survey (HABS) is a collection of over 45,000 photographs and 31,000 drawings that documents a wide range of American buildings (a number associated with the black community) dating from the seventeenth through the early twentieth centuries. The survey, begun in 1933, includes information on many long-since demolished structures. The survey documents are deposited in the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C. A copy of the Georgia HABS survey is at the Historic Preservation Section. Some photographs and drawings from the Georgia survey are published in *The Georgia Catalog* by John Linley (see bibliography). An additional collection of photographs documenting many lost architectural resources in Georgia and seven other southern states is the over 7,000 photographs taken by Frances Benjamin Johnston for the Library of Congress between 1930 and 1943. Johnston's work includes photographs of great plantation houses and their outbuildings as well as frontier cabins and crude mills. This work, too, is on file at the Library of Congress.

Architectural pattern books which contain nineteenth-century floor plans and elevations, and mail order catalogs such as those of the Sears, Roebuck and Company through which one could order houses in the early twentieth century, may serve as a reference to specific building styles and types. The *Southern Architect and Building News* (1889-1932), many issues of which are at the Atlanta Historical Society and Emory University, and the *American Architect and Building News* (1876-1938), which can be found at Southern Technical Institute in Marietta, are valuable sources of information on the work of major architects, as are *The Manufacturer's Record* (1882-present) and the *Industrial Index* (1906-1966?). These publications also contain lists of buildings constructed, architectural plans, and illustrations.

### *Newspapers*

Newspapers are good primary sources of local information. Some larger towns and cities had black newspapers which covered events and personalities of significance in the African-American community. Articles often referred to facilities in which special or regularly scheduled events were held, and reported on persons and activities. Advertisements and program announcements serve as a kind of directory of local businesses and institutions. The University of Georgia Libraries at Athens have an extensive microfilm collection of early Georgia newspapers which is available through interlibrary loan. The *Union List of Newspapers* and the *Newspapers in Microform in the United States*, which are standard references for public libraries, identify newspapers by geographic area but not by the race of the publisher. University libraries, however, and the Atlanta Public Library have *Newspapers and Periodicals by and about Black People: Southern Library Holdings*, which is arranged alphabetically by name of publication.

### *Secondary Sources*

Secondary sources are published works which compile or analyze information derived from original documents. Typical examples are county or city histories, biographies, and monographs. They provide historical background on some resources. Generally however, the development of Georgia's black communities is either ignored or treated superficially in state and local histories. These materials may be used, nevertheless, as a starting point in gathering historical context, and before collecting oral testimony and other primary source information. Among the most helpful books are those reporting surveys or studies of specific kinds of black resources. Some of these are cited in the bibliography at the end of this handbook. Other general and special histories relevant to the development of the black community and its resources are also contained in the bibliography.



# 5

## **Evaluation for the National Register of Historic Places**

Survey and documentation are initial steps in the preservation planning process. The ultimate goal of this process is the protection of significant properties. Formal recognition of a property by listing it in the National Register of Historic Places is preliminary to various protection measures. It is the official acknowledgment that a property possesses qualities which make it worthy of preservation. This chapter presents the standards by which a property is evaluated for inclusion in the National Register. The guidelines suggested here also give direction to identification and documentation, which precede registration.

The National Register, which was established by the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, is the federal government's list of historic districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects in American history, architecture, engineering, archaeology, or culture, which have been determined worthy of preservation. Listing in the Register carries protective and economic benefits. It mandates review of the impact of federal actions on properties listed or eligible for listing, and it makes certain properties eligible for federal tax benefits. The listing of properties in the National Register is administered jointly by the National Park Service of the U.S. Department of the Interior and the designated historic preservation office in each state, which in Georgia is the Historic Preservation Section of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources.

### **Historical Context**

Properties must be evaluated on the basis of their significance to broad patterns or themes of history. In terms of African-American history, a significant building or district will reflect or represent people, events, and developments important to the black community in Georgia. For example, some rural slave dwellings may derive their

historical significance from the larger context of Georgia's nineteenth-century cotton agriculture and the social, economic, and political processes which this theme of history incorporates. The significance of a town's black business district may reflect the development of black economic self-sufficiency that characterized many urban communities in Georgia during the first part of the twentieth century. In general, properties must be fifty years old or older to be considered historic. Exceptions are made for properties or districts constructed within the past fifty years if they are associated with people or events of exceptional importance. Defining the patterns or themes of Georgia's history is an ongoing process being carried out in part by the Historic Preservation Section to provide a framework for evaluating the significance of historic resources. Agencies, organizations, and individuals are encouraged to identify, document, and evaluate properties in the context of such historical themes.

## **Integrity**

How well a property's physical features reflect the historical context that makes it significant is a measure of the property's integrity. To be eligible for the National Register, a property must retain those characteristics of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association that make it historically significant. A good rule of thumb to follow in determining the integrity of a building is to consider whether its historic occupants would recognize that building or district today. If too many of a building's historic features (such as exterior siding, front entrance, porches, doors, windows, and interior room arrangements and finishes) have been altered, the building will not have sufficient integrity to be eligible for the National Register. Generally, a building which has been covered with non-historic siding that obscures but has not damaged the building's important features will only be individually eligible if that siding is removed. If too many substantially altered properties, non-historic properties, and/or recent intrusions are located within a historic area, that area cannot qualify as a district. If a building has been moved or the setting of a building or district has been drastically altered, in most cases that resource will not be eligible for the National Register.

## **Evaluation Criteria**

If a resource has retained its integrity, then it must meet at least one of four specific standards or criteria to qualify as a property of

historic or architectural significance. These criteria apply in the evaluation of districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects in relation to the pertinent themes or broad patterns of history. The criteria address the property's association with important events and persons, its distinguishing characteristics, and its value as a source of information. What these criteria mean, how they can be applied, and what other standards must be considered in identifying significant resources are discussed briefly below. Evaluation guidelines used in the National Register program are presented in detail in a pamphlet by the National Park Service entitled *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, which is cited in the bibliography.

*Properties Associated with Events That Have Made a  
Significant Contribution to the Broad Patterns of History*

To be recognized under this criterion, a property can be associated with a single event, such as the founding of the first public high school for blacks, or with a series of events, such as the settlement of blacks in a particular city. Both the founding of a school and the settlement of a community are linked to important themes in the development of Georgia's history. One event reflects the struggle of African-Americans for public education in the state; the other represents the development of racially separate urban neighborhoods. Historic themes and broad patterns of history are being defined as part of the state's preservation planning process. Complementary to this effort are the documentation and compilation of background history by surveyors and preservation researchers to determine the relevant themes associated with identified properties. To satisfy the criterion, properties must have associations that are strong, clear, and documented by historical record or physical evidence.

*Properties Associated with the  
Lives of Persons Significant in the Past*

Significance according to this criterion requires that a property be associated with a clearly identified individual who has distinguished himself or herself in the context of important themes in history. Generally one who is no longer living, this person should have had greater significance than others in the context of the particular theme. For example, the home of a publisher of a black newspaper may satisfy the criterion within the context of African-American communications development, while the home of a reporter for the same paper might not. An individual's significance comes not from his African-American identity, but by virtue of his relative importance in association with a

specific theme in American and African-American history. The property should represent the individual's contributions better than other associated resources. As was the case in applying the first criterion, the individual's significance must be documented.

*Properties That Embody  
Distinctive Architectural Characteristics*

A resource may be significant because it has distinctive characteristics of type, period, or method of construction, or because it represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values. Properties which may meet this criterion would include the following kinds of resources: a secondary school designed according to the Rosenwald Fund model; a church that is one of the finest examples of Victorian Gothic Revival architecture in a city; an archaeological site containing slave dwellings of earthen wall construction; a bridge designed and constructed by Horace King at the height of his career; and sculptured grave markings of a coastal cemetery. A property, however, need not be unique to be significant. Resources that possess representative characteristics may also be significant.

Another class of properties which meets this criterion is that which represents "a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction." For example, a neighborhood, whose individual buildings may not be distinctive in style, period, or method of construction, may be a discrete district. As a whole it may constitute a coherent and identifiable historic environment, distinguishable from its adjacent areas. One inherent value of properties which satisfy the criterion of distinctiveness is their ability to enhance our understanding of a class of resources, its characteristics and variations, its changes and continuities over time.

*Properties Which Have Yielded or May Be Likely to  
Yield Information Important to Prehistory or History*

This criterion is generally applicable to archaeological resources, although historic properties can be recognized by this standard, if the physical materials of a building, for example, are the only source of information for understanding a particular aspect of history. The information potential of a property must relate to human occupation or use for an identified period of time. In addition, the informational potential of the property must be measured with respect to a research design or questions that address important data needs.

### *Special Considerations*

Usually religious properties, cemeteries, birthplaces, gravesites, and commemorative properties are not eligible for listing in the National Register. Nor, generally, are properties which have been moved or reconstructed, and those which have achieved significance within the last fifty years. There are, however, exceptions to these rules. Some of these properties may be eligible for the National Register if they are part of an historic district, or if they fall in at least one of the following categories:

- A. a religious property (i.e. a church) deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical significance; or
- B. a building or structure removed from its original location but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with an historic person or event; or
- C. a birthplace or grave of an historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no other appropriate site or building directly associated with his productive life; or
- D. a cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of exceeding importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or
- E. a reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association survives; or
- F. a property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own historical significance; or
- G. a property achieving significance within the past fifty years if it is of exceptional importance.

### **Level of Significance**

The National Register nomination process calls for evaluation of a property's level of significance. This refers to the geographic area—local, state, or national—for which a property is considered important. Stating a property's level of significance requires an understanding or perspective of local, state, and national historic themes. For example, the William Spencer House in Columbus is of local significance because of its association with a person prominent in the education of African-Americans in that city. The Morton Building in Athens has

state significance. It is one of the most important buildings in the state associated with black commercial development. The First Bryan Baptist Church of Savannah is of national significance because of its association with this country's first black Baptists and its outstanding architectural qualities.

## **Nominating Properties to the National Register of Historic Places**

Individuals and groups who wish to have properties or districts nominated to the National Register should submit property information to the Historic Preservation Section of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources. Forms for reporting this information can be obtained from the Historic Preservation Section. The forms request a detailed description of a property's or district's physical characteristics, history, and significance and ask for such supporting documentation as photographs, maps, and the identification of information sources. Although comprehensive survey data will be useful in completing the forms, additional research is usually needed to provide the required information. Based on the information submitted, the Historic Preservation Section determines whether the property appears eligible for the National Register and assigns the priority in which properties will be considered for nomination. The state office assists with the preparation of official nomination forms. Documentation on properties and districts proposed for nomination is reviewed by the Georgia National Register Review Board, a body consisting of citizens and professionals in preservation-related areas. National Register nomination forms for properties and districts approved for nomination by the Georgia National Register Review Board and the State Historic Preservation Officer are then submitted to the National Park Service of the United States Department of the Interior, which makes the final decision on listing in the National Register.

## **National Register Properties in Georgia Associated with African-American History**

Of the more than one thousand National Register listings in Georgia, relatively few are directly associated with themes in African-American history. However, in spite of their small numbers, these National Register listings reflect important aspects of the state's African-American heritage, and they suggest the types of black resources which can be listed in the National Register.

Appendix B is a list of National Register properties in Georgia that includes:

1. resources whose primary significance is associated with African-American history;
2. resources whose primary significance is not associated with African-American history but which are related in some way to persons, events, or developments significant to the history of the black community; and
3. districts which include significant African-American resources.

Many National Register properties in Georgia which were designed, constructed, or operated by African-Americans are not identified in this list. These would include, for example, the plantations where blacks resided and worked. For many such National Register properties, the associations with African-Americans may not be explicitly stated or fully understood.

The relatively small number of these National Register properties in no way reflects the significance of black historic resources or the number of properties potentially eligible for listing. Rather, it emphasizes the need for a concerted effort by public and private agencies, organizations, and individuals to identify and document significant African-American resources. Only through such heightened activity can a broader spectrum of Georgia's African-American heritage be recognized and preserved.

# **Appendixes**



# Appendix A:

## Checklist of Historic Resources

### Residential

Dwellings (single-family, multi-family)	Greenhouses
Detached kitchens	Gardens
Wells	Plantings
Privies	Fountains
Smokehouses	Fences
Root cellars	Garages
Sheds	Carriage houses

### Institutional

Churches	Lodge halls
Cemeteries, burial grounds	Clubhouses
Schools (primary, secondary, colleges)	Hospitals, clinics
Libraries	

### Commercial

Goods	Physicians' offices
Groceries	Dentists' offices
Bakeries, confectioneries	Drugstores
General and department stores	Funeral homes
Specialized merchandise stores	Financial Services
Markets	Insurance company offices
Commissaries	Benevolent associations, fraternal organizations
Coal and wood yards	Banks
Personal and health related services	Real estate offices
Restaurants	Trades
Hotels	Carpenters' shops
Barber and beauty shops	Coopers' shops
Dressmaking and tailoring shops	Blacksmiths' shops
Laundries, pressing shops	Brick yards
Shoemaking and shoe shining shops	General contractors' shops
Photography studios	
Lawyers' offices	

## Agricultural

Barns	Granaries
Stables	Threshing houses
Dairies	Fields
Animal pens	Irrigation dikes, contours
Corn cribs	Fences
Smokehouses	

## Industrial and Manufacturing

Mills (wheat, rice, sugar, lumber, textiles)	Fisheries
Factories	Warehouses, storage bins
Processing plants	Water towers
Gins	Waterworks
Mines	Power houses
Quarries	Gas works
Forestry and naval stores facilities	

## Transportation

Paths	Railroad stations, depots
Sidewalks	Livery stables
Streets, roads, highways	Carriage houses
Driveways	Streetcar rights-of-way
Bridges	Streetcar barns
Canals	Garages
Docks	Gas stations
Railroad tracks	Bus stations

## Recreational

Hotels	Pool halls
Restaurants, taverns	Parks, playgrounds
Theaters	Lodges, clubhouses

## Governmental

Courthouses (county and federal)	Post offices
City halls	Municipal auditoriums
Fire stations	Public works facilities
Jails, calaboses	(waterworks, etc.)

## Military

Fortifications	Bases, posts
Battlefields	Armories

## Appendix B:

# National Register Properties in Georgia Significant in African-American History

### **Atkinson County**

Willacoochee vicinity, *McCranie's Turpentine Still*

### **Bibb County**

Macon. *Macon Historic District* (Douglass Theater\*)

### **Brooks County**

Quitman. *Quitman Historic District*

### **Bryan County**

Richmond Hill vicinity. *Richmond Hill Plantation*

### **Camden County**

St. Marys vicinity. *High Point-Half Moon Bluff Historic District*

### **Catoosa/Walker Counties**

Fort Oglethorpe. *Fort Oglethorpe Historic District*

### **Chatham County**

Burroughs. *St. Bartholomew's Church*

Nicholsonville. *Nicholsonville Baptist Church*

Savannah. *First Bryan Baptist Church*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Green-Meldrim House*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Laurel Grove-South Cemetery*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Savannah Historic District* (First African Baptist Church, Beach Institute)

\_\_\_\_\_. *Savannah Victorian Historic District*

\_\_\_\_\_. *William Scarbrough House*

\_\_\_\_\_. *St. Philip A.M.E. Church*

\_\_\_\_\_. *United States Custom House*

Savannah vicinity. *Hill Hall at Savannah State College*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Wormsloe Plantation*

## **Clarke County**

Athens. *First African Methodist Episcopal Church*

\_\_\_\_\_. *The Morton Building*

Athens vicinity. *Chestnut Grove School*

## **Clay County**

Fort Gaines. *Fort Gaines Historic District*

## **Columbia County**

Winfield vicinity. *Woodville*

## **Dougherty County**

Albany. *The Bridge House*

## **Floyd County**

Rome. *Myrtle Hill Cemetery*

## **Fulton County**

Atlanta. *Butler Street C.M.E. Church*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Atlanta University Center District (E.A. Ware School, Friendship Church, West Hunter Street Baptist Church, University Homes, Herndon Home)*

\_\_\_\_\_. *First Congregational Church*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Grady Hospital*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Martin Luther King, Jr., Historic District*

\_\_\_\_\_. *Oakland Cemetery*

\_\_\_\_\_ *Odd Fellows Building and Auditorium*

\_\_\_\_\_ *Stone Hall, Atlanta University*

\_\_\_\_\_ *Sweet Auburn Historic District*

\_\_\_\_\_ *Yonge Street School*

## **Glynn County**

Brunswick vicinity. *Hofwyl-Broadfield Plantation*

## **Hancock County**

Mayfield vicinity. *Camilla-Zack Community Center District*

## **Jefferson County**

Louisville. *Old Market*

## **Liberty County**

Midway. *Midway Historic District*

South Newport vicinity. *St. Catherines Island*

## **Lowndes County**

Valdosta. *Dasher High School*

## **McIntosh County**

Darien. *Vernon Square-Columbus Square Historic District*

## **Meriwether County**

Alvaton vicinity. *White Oak Creek Covered Bridge*

Woodbury. *Red Oak Creek Covered Bridge*

## **Muscogee County**

Columbus. *Columbus Historic Riverfront Industrial District*

\_\_\_\_\_ *Historic Resources of Columbus, Multiple Resource Area:  
St. John Chapel, St. James A.M.E. Church, Porterdale  
Cemetery, First African Baptist Church, St.  
Christopher's Normal and Industrial Parish School,  
John Stewart House, William Price House, Wiley  
Storey House, Isaac Maund House, 1612 Third Avenue*

- \_\_\_\_\_ *Liberty Theater*
- \_\_\_\_\_ *Rankin Square*
- \_\_\_\_\_ *William Henry Spencer House*
- \_\_\_\_\_ *Springer Opera House*

## **Randolph County**

Cuthbert. *Fletcher Henderson House*

## **Richmond County**

- Augusta. *Pinched Gut Historic District (Cedar Grove Cemetery, Thankful Baptist Church, Trinity C.M.E. Church)*
- \_\_\_\_\_ *Springfield Baptist Church*

## **Sumter County**

Americus. *Americus Historic District*

## **Thomas County**

- Thomasville. *Bethany Congregational Church*
- \_\_\_\_\_ *Dawson Street Residential Historic District*
- \_\_\_\_\_ *Thomasville Commercial Historic District*

## **Washington County**

Sandersville. *Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School*

\*Individual properties cited in parentheses are examples of African American resources in districts. Not all significant black properties in a district have been noted.

# Appendix C:

## Agencies and Organizations Providing Preservation Assistance

The following is a list of agencies and organizations which can be of assistance in the identification, documentation, and evaluation of black historic properties in Georgia. The *Directory of Georgia Historical and Preservation Organizations* (see bibliography) describes some of these and other such sources.

### Federal

National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior  
440 G Street, NW  
Washington, D.C. 20243  
(202) 434-6401

Southeast Regional Office of the National Park Service  
U.S. Department of Interior  
Richard B. Russell Federal Building  
75 Spring Street, SW  
Atlanta, GA 30303  
(404) 221-5187

### State

Georgia Department of Natural Resources  
Historic Preservation Section  
(Georgia's State Historic Preservation Office)  
270 Washington Street, SW  
Room 704  
Atlanta, GA 30334  
(404) 656-2840

Regional Preservation Planners  
Contact Area Planning and Development Commissions

Georgia Department of Archives and History  
330 Capitol Avenue, SE  
Atlanta, GA 30334  
(404) 656-2393

Georgia Department of Community Affairs  
 40 Marietta Street, NW  
 Suite 800  
 Atlanta, GA 30303  
 (404) 656-3836

Georgia Downtown Development Association  
 40 Marietta Street, NW  
 Suite 800  
 Atlanta, GA 30303  
 (404) 656-3898

Georgia Trust for Historic Preservation, Inc.  
 1516 Peachtree Street, NW  
 Atlanta, GA 30309  
 (404) 881-9980

## **Chatham County**

Beach Institute Neighborhood Association  
 King-Tisdell Cottage  
 514 East Huntingdon Street  
 Savannah, GA 31401  
 (912) 234-8000

Savannah-Yamacraw Branch  
 Association for the Study of Afro-American Life and History  
 514 East Huntingdon Street  
 Savannah, GA 31401  
 (912) 234-8000

Savannah Landmark Rehabilitation Project, Inc.  
 P.O. Box 8801  
 Savannah, GA 31412  
 (912) 232-6036

## **Clarke County**

Athens-Clarke Heritage Foundation, Inc.  
 Fire Hall #2  
 489 Prince Avenue  
 Athens, GA 30601  
 (404) 546-1818



Office of Cultural Affairs  
Clarke County Board of Commissioners  
P.O. Box 448  
Athens, GA 30603  
(404) 546-8330

## **Fulton County**

Atlanta Preservation Center  
Suite 302, The Healy Building  
57 Forsyth Street  
Atlanta, GA 30303  
(404) 522-4345

Friends of the Southwest Community Hospital  
501 Fairburn Road, SW  
Atlanta, GA 30331  
(404) 658-7088

Historic Oakland Cemetery, Inc.  
248 Oakland Avenue, SE  
Atlanta, GA 30312  
(404) 622-0733

Martin Luther King, Jr., Center for Nonviolent Social Change  
449 Auburn Avenue, NE  
Atlanta, GA 30312  
(404) 524-1956

## **Muscogee County**

Historic Columbus Foundation  
700 Broadway  
P.O. Box 5312  
Columbus, GA 31906  
(404) 322-0756

William H. Spencer Golden Owlettes, Inc.  
745 Fourth Avenue  
Columbus, GA 31901  
(404) 322-1014

## **Richmond County**

Bethlehem Area Community Association, Inc.  
1634 Milledgeville Road  
Augusta, GA 30901  
(404) 722-0406

Historic Augusta, Inc.  
1840 Broad Street  
Augusta, GA 30904  
(404) 733-6768

## **Whitfield County**

Whitfield-Murray Historical Society, Inc.  
Crown Garden and Archives  
715 Chattanooga Avenue  
Dalton, GA 30720  
(404) 278-0217

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