“Seeking A Home Where He Himself Is Free”

Rebecca Brooks Harvey and her children reached Douglas County, Kansas, in January 1863 after escaping slavery in northwest Arkansas. Once in Kansas Rebecca reunited with her husband David, with whom she had lost contact during the family’s flight. The Harveys remained in the countryside near Lawrence, where David and his brother farmed “on the shares” for a white neighbor, and after five years of hard work the family had acquired fifteen acres of their own land. Image courtesy of the Kansas Collection, Kenneth Spencer Research Library, University of Kansas Libraries, Lawrence.
African Americans Build a Community in Douglas County, Kansas

Katie H. Armitage

Rebecca Brooks Harvey and her children reached Douglas County, Kansas, in January 1863. They arrived with one hundred others who had fled enslavement in the company of General James G. Blunt’s Union army troops when they left northwest Arkansas. In the confusion of this Civil War exodus, Rebecca Harvey was separated from her husband, David Harvey, who had been born a slave in Missouri and was subsequently taken to a plantation in Arkansas, where he worked as a teamster. David Harvey left Arkansas with another army division that moved north through St. Louis to Leavenworth, Kansas. After many weeks of separation and hardship, Rebecca and her children were reunited with David near Lawrence, where, with many others of similar background, they built a vibrant African American community in the symbolic capital of “free” Kansas.¹

Rebecca Harvey’s journey to freedom was not unusual, harrowing as it was. As her son Edward Harvey later wrote, “Rebecca Brooks Harvey was born in slavery in North Carolina. She did not know when or where nor the name of her mother,” he explained, because as an infant Rebecca had been given, “as a chattel,” to pay a debt. The creditor turned the baby over to a female slave named Brooks. When Rebecca was five or six years old, the slave owner brought her and her foster mother through South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Louisiana to Arkansas. Rebecca grew to womanhood on the Foster plantation near Van Buren in the northwestern part of the state, and there she formed a family with David Harvey.²

¹ According to family tradition, during their time of separation from David Harvey, Rebecca and her children were aided by a Quaker woman who shared some of her food with the destitute mother and children. Family histories, 1945, and newspaper clippings, Harvey Family Collection, Kansas Collection, Kenneth Spencer Research Library, University of Kansas Libraries, Lawrence (hereafter cited as “Harvey Family Collection, Kansas Collection”), See also Kansas State Census, 1865, Douglas County, Wakarusa Township, 4; and U.S. Census, 1870, Kansas, Douglas County, Wakarusa Township, 3. The Harvey family’s “color” category in the census was “M” for mulatto.
² Ed. S. Harvey, “Story of his Mother Rebecca Brooks Harvey,” Lawrence, 1945, manuscript, Harvey Family Collection, Kansas Collection. The Harveys had not been able to marry in slavery, but legalized their union when they reached Kansas, as did a number of formerly enslaved couples. Donna M. Shogrin, comp., Douglas County, Kansas, Marriages, 1854–1884, Volume I (Lawrence, Kans.: Douglas County Genealogical Society, 1989), 33.
In Kansas the Harveys remained in the countryside near Lawrence, where David and his brother farmed “on the shares” for their white neighbor, Stephen Ogden. After five years of hard work, the Harvey family acquired fifteen acres of land adjoining the Ogden farm and really began to make their mark in Douglas County. Rebecca became a beloved part of the community, where she participated in a racially mixed women’s Methodist auxiliary and served as a midwife for the families living near her. Of her three sons born in Kansas who survived childhood, Frederick D. G. Harvey became a physician and Sherman a lawyer, while Edward returned to farm the land his descendants still own.

The black community in Douglas County, formed by migrating families such as the Harveys, can trace its origins back to 1861. That year Chaplain Hugh Dunn Fisher of James H. Lane’s Union army brigade escorted a contingent of newly liberated black refugees or “contrabands” from Springfield, Lamar, and other Missouri towns to Lawrence, the county’s seat of government and largest settlement. In November 1861 Lawrence’s Kansas State Journal reported, in the language of the time, “Our colored population is now not far from one hundred.” By 1863 the Harvey family and many other African Americans had arrived in Douglas County and two black churches had been founded in Lawrence. Further evidence of a significant black presence in Douglas County surfaced on August 21, 1863, when William Clarke Quantrill’s Confederate guerrillas raided Lawrence. As many as twenty African Americans, including a baby, were among the nearly two hundred killed, and several firsthand accounts mentioned blacks “being pursued with special malignity.”

Despite the raid, and as the war continued, many more formerly enslaved individuals and families from Missouri, Arkansas, and Indian Territory migrated to eastern Kansas. In 1865 the first Kansas decennial census enumerated more than 2,000 black or mulatto persons living in Douglas County. Most were former slaves or children of slaves, but the population included a few freeborn persons of color. At this time Douglas County’s black population was second only to Leavenworth County and far exceeded that of Topeka in Shawnee County.

The ways in which the African American community in Douglas County developed were similar to those unfolding in other eastern Kansas counties that received black migrants. Black churches were important in defining these communities, and everywhere African Americans faced discrimination and segregation in public accommodations and schools. One freedom celebration that was early and widely observed in Lawrence, Atchison, Leavenworth, Manhattan, and other Kansas communities was Emancipation Day, usually held on August 1, the anniversary of the freeing of the slaves in the West Indies in 1833. As they attracted both blacks and whites, public officials often took to the platform during these large gatherings to deliver political speeches.

The Douglas County community was distinguished by a large presence of black soldiers stationed in Lawrence at the end of the Civil War, some of whom remained to raise families and participate in public life. The county was also the home to several important African American leaders, such as Charles H. Langston, one of the most active and articulate spokesmen for civil rights in Kansas.

3. In 1865 the Harveys sent for David’s parents in Arkansas, but only his father, Allen Harvey, made the move, as David’s mother had died in the interim. U.S. Census, 1870 and 1880, Kansas, Douglas County, Wakarusa Township.

4. Kansas State Journal, November 28, 1861; H. D. Fisher, The Gun and the Gospel: Early Kansas and Chaplain Fisher (Kansas City, Mo.: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co., 1902); Debby Lowery and Judy Sweets, compilers, African Americans in the 1865 Kansas State Census (Douglas County) (Lawrence, Kans.: D. Lowery and J. Sweets, 2006), iv–vi; Dorothy L. Pennington, “The Histories and Cultural Roles of Black Churches in Lawrence, Kansas,” manuscript, 1982, Kansas Collection. The late Richard B. Sheridan, professor of economics at the University of Kansas, studied Quantrill’s raid and compiled and edited sources on that event including RichardCORDeye’s “The Lawrence Massacre” and Richard J. Hinton’s estimate of twenty blacks killed. Sheridan wrote that “even this number may be too low.” Richard B. Sheridan, ed., Quantrill and the Lawrence Massacre: A Reader (Lawrence, Kans.: Richard B. Sheridan, 1995), 331.


and the West. Such advocacy became especially critical when in 1879 and 1880, soon after the official end of Reconstruction, thousands of Exodusters left the South in the single most significant wave of black migration into the state. They settled in several eastern Kansas communities, most notably Topeka, the state capital. Even as this influx generated controversy, Topeka became the site of the state’s only comprehensive welfare and resettlement program. When a number of Exodusters settled in Douglas County, the presence of these mostly destitute newcomers generated attention and relief efforts, but strained the limited welcome early black migrants had found there. Lawrence’s African American community peaked in the 1880s and 1890s, as did the black communities in other Kansas cities, such as Manhattan and Topeka. Although blacks in Lawrence represented just over 20 percent of the total population in these years, their numbers declined by the early twentieth century during the period in which African Americans experienced increased discrimination nationwide.7

The impact of the Exodus, the lynching of three black men in Lawrence in 1882, and the challenge of a shrinking black population throughout Kansas after the turn of the century had a significant impact on the Douglas County community. By 1910 Lawrence remained home to more blacks than any other town in the state, save Topeka, but still only 1,849 individuals—just over 14 percent of the total population of 12,374—lived in the town. Nearly as many blacks lived in Lawrence in 1865, indicating that the town’s black population grew only marginally in forty-five years.8

During these years many black families in Douglas County experienced at least a measure of success, as they established homes, found work, and sent their children to school. Few matched the achievements of the Harvey family, but their willingness to risk all they had to achieve freedom and educational opportunities was not uncommon. All too often later generations of Harveys and other African Americans in Kansas and the nation found their hopes for equality deferred, sometimes dashed.9 The purpose of this article is to examine the development of the black community in Douglas County during its first two generations, from the late 1850s until about 1910, or from just before the founding of African American churches in the county through the early years of the second generation of black families.

8. F. W. Blackmar and E. W. Burgess, Lawrence Social Survey, To the Lawrence Social Survey Committee, Lawrence, Kansas (Topeka: Kansas State Printing Plant, 1917), 11.
Before the Civil War the black presence in Kansas Territory was limited. The U.S. Census for Kansas in 1860 enumerated 627 blacks, 100,390 whites, and 189 Indians. Only four blacks were listed as residing in Douglas County. The black residents of Kansas Territory included some enslaved families brought into the territory, a number of former slaves who had fled into Kansas from neighboring Missouri, and a handful of free persons of color. When the westernmost branch of the Underground Railroad was well established, more slaves fled from bondage on escape routes along the Missouri border into Kansas. Of this route Congregational minister Richard Cordley, an abolitionist who was sympathetic to blacks, wrote, “Lawrence had the reputation in Missouri of being one of the stations on the underground railroad. . . . There is no doubt that a good many slaves, fleeing bondage, made their way to Lawrence and there were aided on their journey towards Canada.” Cordley also recounted his experience of sheltering “Lizzie,” a twenty-two-year-old escaped slave, in his home in 1859.

Among the new arrivals to Lawrence in 1862 and 1863 were Andrew Williams, age eleven, William Harper, twenty, Harriet Thompson, sixteen, Troy Strode, forty, and Anthony Oldham, age unknown. Although they had each come through Missouri to Lawrence, their experiences before and after this journey differed markedly. Some survived Quantrill’s 1863 raid; others did not. In the former group was Andrew Williams, liberated by a foraging party of the Sixth Kansas Cavalry as it swept through south central Missouri. He, along with his mother and five other children from near Mt. Vernon, Missouri, spent the winter in Fort Scott, Kansas, before settling in Lawrence. But after surviving the horrors of the 1863 raid, the family moved to Topeka where Williams worked as a laborer and landscape gardener.

William Harper and Harriet Thompson, both from Jackson County, Missouri, married at the Unitarian Church in Lawrence in 1863. Employed at the Eldridge Hotel at the time of the raid, Harper eluded the guerrillas, who targeted black men. The Harpers, parents to nine children born in Kansas, lived into their nineties.

Troy Strode was born a slave in Tennessee and suffered consumption as a youth, which rendered him unable to perform manual labor. His master allowed him to learn to read; after escaping slavery in Missouri by fleeing to Lawrence during the Civil War, he was the only one of sixteen members of the Second Congregational or Contrasband Church who was literate. In Lawrence he established a blacksmith shop, though it burned in the August 1863 raid. Strode survived the conflagration, and by 1865 he had real estate worth nine hundred dollars and personal property of five hundred. A group of twenty or so unarmed African American army recruits camped near downtown also survived the raid, as they quickly grasped their imminent danger when they heard the raiders firing on the white recruits camped about three hundred yards away. The black recruits ran toward the Kansas River where they found protective cover in the underbrush.

Not all new arrivals to Lawrence, of course, found such protection. Anthony Oldham, another former slave from Missouri whose wife and certain of his children had been “sold down south,” came to Lawrence with a letter attesting he and his wife’s church membership. On that day in August 1863 Oldham was shot by guerrillas while in his own doorway and in the presence of his daughter, the only other member of his family to escape to Lawrence.

A few African Americans who had never been enslaved, such as Elias Bradley, also made their way to Lawrence. Bradley left Arkansas in 1857, after that state threatened to enslave free blacks. When he opened a Lawrence “Bathing Establishment,” his advertisement demonstrated a keen awareness of racial prejudice: “I

13. Cordley, Pioneer Days, 245–47; Sheridan, Quantrill and the Lawrence Massacre, 159; “Negro Patriotism,” Lawrence Republican, July 31, 1862; Report of the Adjutant General of the State of Kansas, 1861–65, Vol. I (Topeka: Kansas State Printing Company, 1896), 574–99. Many more black men might have perished had not some one hundred members of the First Regiment Kansas Colored Volunteers left town with “Lane’s black Brigade” in July 1862. By the summer of 1863 they were engaged in fighting in Indian Territory.
was told in the South that Northern people would not patronize me much ... that I would find out that Northern people were not friends of the colored man. Now is the chance to prove the contrary.” The fate of Bradley’s bathhouse cannot be determined, as his business, like virtually all others on Massachusetts Street, was burned out in Quantrill’s raid. Although Bradley survived the raid, his bathhouse did not; he spent the next forty years as a barber.14

Many Lawrence newcomers not only attended regular church services, but also night literacy classes organized along the lines of a Sunday school. Early in 1862 the Lawrence Republican described the “Contraband School” where ninety “scholars,” young and old, male and female, met nightly at the courthouse. Whites also organized a “Contraband or Freedman’s Church” as a Congregational mission, and late in September 1862 a brick building was dedicated for this congregation. John Speer, the Republican’s editor, believed this church—officially the Second Congregational Church of Lawrence—was “the first erected in the United States for fugitive slaves.” Once black church leaders began to arrive in Lawrence, however, many members of Second Congregational made plans to form African Methodist Episcopal (AME) and Baptist churches. These plans disappointed white supporters of Second Congregational, who, like Congregational minister Richard Cordley, were deeply committed to the abolition of slavery and who worked to help assist these newcomers. By July 1864 black Baptists had made a down payment on a building, a sure sign that members of the infant black community had begun to chart their own course rather than following the path expected by well-meaning supporters like Cordley and Speer. The black Baptist and AME churches became the most visible signs of the emergence of a confident black community in Lawrence.15

By 1865 the African American presence in Kansas had greatly expanded to 12,527. The majority of these men, women, and children came from Missouri, where the black population decreased by over 41,000 between 1860 and 1863. Most of these former slaves entered Kansas close to the Missouri border, and settled in towns with reputations for abolitionist sentiment. In 1865 the Kansas State Census recorded a population of 1,464 blacks in Lawrence and North Lawrence (separate until 1870) and almost 2,000 countywide.16

Black men of military age, who escaped into Kansas early in the Civil War, were enticed to join the army by the promise of ten dollars a month and “a certificate of freedom.” George Washington, one of the earliest recruits to General Lane’s “First Kansas Colored,” signed on at Fort Leavenworth in 1862 within a few months of his escape from the Miller tobacco plantation in Platte County, Missouri. Born in 1840 in Culpepper County, Virginia, and given as a wedding present to a family who moved to Missouri, in his early twenties Washington fled to a point opposite the free-state town of Quindaro, Kansas, where conductors on the Underground Railroad helped him cross the frozen Missouri River to freedom. Once free he became one of the approximately 180,000 black troops who fought in the Civil War.17

Kansas provided about 2,000 black soldiers, or 1 percent of the total number, and the First Kansas Colored Infantry had the distinction not only of being the first black unit raised in the North but the first to engage in battle. After making several excursions into Missouri and “fighting like tigers” at Island Mound in October 1862, six companies were officially mustered into federal service on January 13, 1863, as the First Regiment Kansas Colored Volunteers under the command of Lt. Colonel James M. Williams, a white Kansas officer.18

The question of whether or not blacks could serve as officers in Kansas’s regiments was not yet settled when Henry C. Copeland arrived in Lawrence in 1861. Copeland, who was born in North Carolina in 1840 and educated in Oberlin, Ohio, came from a family who fought for the abolition of slavery before the Civil War. His brother, Henry C. Copeland arrived in Lawrence in 1861. Copeland, who was born in North Carolina in 1840 and educated in Oberlin, Ohio, came from a family who fought for the abolition of slavery before the Civil War. His brother,
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Birth/Place</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Death/Burial</th>
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<td>barber</td>
<td>1896/pauper plot/OH</td>
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<td>1852/Mo.</td>
<td>teamster/porter</td>
<td>1944/OH</td>
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<td>1840/N.C.</td>
<td>carpenter</td>
<td>1895/OH</td>
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<td>1846/Ky.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1919/OH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dillard, Jesse</td>
<td>1826/Va.</td>
<td>porter/janitor</td>
<td>1925/OH</td>
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<td>1834/Va.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1923/OH</td>
</tr>
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<td>1874/Kans.</td>
<td>teacher/principal</td>
<td>1954/OH</td>
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<td>Dimery, Absalom</td>
<td>1835/La.</td>
<td>blacksmith</td>
<td>1890/OH</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>1826/Mo.</td>
<td>shoemaker</td>
<td>1908/OH</td>
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<td>Fuel, Harriet</td>
<td>1850/Mo.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1930/OH</td>
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<td>Gleed, Frederick</td>
<td>1842/Va.</td>
<td>produce sales</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>shoemaker</td>
<td>ca. 1904/-</td>
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<td>ca. 1846/Ky.</td>
<td>brick molder</td>
<td>before 1904/OH</td>
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<td>Harper, William</td>
<td>1839/Va.</td>
<td>laborer</td>
<td>1932/OH</td>
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<td>1843/Va.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1939/OH</td>
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<td>1826/Mo.</td>
<td>farmer</td>
<td>1893/-</td>
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<td>-/N.C.</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>physician</td>
<td>1923/OH</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>1915/pauper plot/OH</td>
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<td>Oldham, Anthony</td>
<td>-/Mo.?</td>
<td>victim, Quantrill Raid</td>
<td>1863/mass grave</td>
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<td>18247/Tenn.</td>
<td>blacksmith</td>
<td>1898/OH</td>
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<td>1911/OH</td>
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<td>1835/Va.</td>
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<td>laborer/gardener</td>
<td>1909/Topeka</td>
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MG: Maple Grove Cemetery, Lawrence, Douglas County
OH: Oak Hill Cemetery, Lawrence, Douglas County
VIN: Vinland Cemetery, Douglas County

John A. Copeland, joined abolitionist John Brown and his small band in the ill-fated 1859 attack on the federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Virginia. John Copeland was captured, and subsequently tried, convicted, and executed at Charles Town for his involvement in Brown’s plot to incite a general slave uprising. Two years later Henry Copeland came to Kansas, probably hoping to join John Brown, Jr.’s company, a part of the Seventh Kansas Cavalry. Instead, Copeland served as a first lieutenant in Company D of the First Kansas Colored from August 1862 to May 1863. However, when the First Kansas Colored was officially taken into the U.S. Army and later became the Seventy-Ninth U.S. Colored Infantry,Copeland and the regiment’s other black officers lost their commissions—the Union army allowed only white officers. Copeland left military service, but before the end of 1864 he was serving as first sergeant in the Independent Colored (Douglas’s) Kansas Battery, one of the Union’s few units to have black officers in the Civil War. Not until 1867 did Henry Copeland and other militiamen get paid for their service in Douglas’s Battery as the frontier state of Kansas was strapped for cash. Copeland finally received eighty-eight dollars in Union military script, though later in life he and other black veterans and their dependents collected federal military pensions.

Copeland settled in Kansas after the war and worked as a carpenter. He married Elizabeth “Libbie” Miner on June 19, 1866, in Lawrence, where the couple raised five children. Copeland ran unsuccessfully for the office of constable in 1880, even though the white newspaper had endorsed him. He commanded the black post of Lawrence’s Grand Army of the Republic and served as an officer in the Colored Odd Fellows lodge. When his health began to fail in 1892, Copeland wrote journalist Richard J. Hinton to inform him that he was “doin as well as could be expected of a man with a large family untell last fall when I had a bad attack of the heart deised.” When that disease took his life at age fifty-five, on August 10, 1895, the Lawrence Weekly Journal called Copeland “one of the best known colored men in the city,” and reported that an exceptionally large crowd attended his funeral at the St. Luke AME Church. Libbie Copeland, a seamstress, received a widow’s pension, while the sons in the family pursued occupations as a messenger, express man, and music teacher.

Nine of the ninety soldiers stationed in Lawrence in 1865—Henry Copeland, Joseph Bowers, Absalom Dimery, Ezekiel Dimery, Gabriel Gray, William Gray, Gratten Gregg, Moses Jenkins, and George Washington—remained in Douglas County after the war, most for the rest of their lives. Absalom Dimery, a thirty-six-year-old, married father of five children, reported a personal estate of only twenty-five dollars in 1865. Born a slave in Louisiana to a Portuguese father and African-


European mother, he was taken as a child to Arkansas. During the Civil War he fled to Illinois, then migrated to Kansas in 1862, where he joined the First Kansas Colored and served for three years. A fifer in his company, he was injured on June 15, 1865, when he was “breached in the right side of his abdomen.” By 1875 Dimery reported real estate holdings worth five hundred dollars, owned a blacksmith shop, and, as did many other black men of the day, participated in Republican Party politics. Dimery purchased a lot for twenty-five dollars at Lawrence’s Oak Hill Cemetery when his seven-year-old daughter Alice died in 1880. When he died ten years later, at age fifty-five, Absalom Dimery was buried in the family plot, which was marked with his military headstone and a Dimery family monument.

Gratten Gregg became a brick molder, William Gray a barber, and Gabriel Gray a Baptist minister, while Ezekiel Dimery, Joseph Bowers, and Moses Jenkins made their livings as laborers. All these former soldiers married and had families. George Washington, who farmed his own land in southwest Douglas County, married Aminda Simpson in 1868 and raised a family of five children. These men who had worn the uniform of their country and fought in the Civil War settled into civilian life with confidence. Some, such as Copeland, sought public office, others, such as Absalom Dimery, took part in public meetings, and still others, such as George Washington, hosted Fourth of July picnics.

I n addition to the ninety soldiers in Lawrence in 1865, the occupations of other black men included: eighty-seven day laborers, twenty-nine teamsters, fourteen farmers or farm laborers, six porters, and two stone masons. There were also four blacksmith shop owners and four workers, four barbers (some of whom owned their own shops), three hostlers, three woodcutters, two cooks, a carpenter, a shoemaker, a printer, and a preacher. After the devastation of the 1863 raid, many laborers were needed to construct new homes and businesses. Fewer black women than men worked outside the home, but of those who did, sixty were employed as domestics, twenty-seven did washing and ironing, and one was employed as a cook.

The white community provided most of the employment opportunities for these African Americans. Leaders of the broader community, such as editor John Speer and minister Richard Cordley, also supported the literacy school. After a number of ill refugees arrived in Lawrence in the summer of 1864, the wives of several white ministers formed the Ladies Refugee Aid Society, which met regularly in both the white and black Congregational churches to plan relief efforts. At the same time, however, an indication of white hostility appeared in the pages of Speer’s Kansas Tribune. In March 1864 he reported an “unprovoked attack” on a “colored” man, King Johnson. A year later when Cordley and John Archibald petitioned the Lawrence City Council “for protection of Mrs. Scott and others, colored people, in their persons and property,” these prominent men were rebuffed. A council motion to refer their petition to the committee on police and license failed to pass and was indefinitely postponed.

During the next decade African American businessmen established positions from which they could stand up for members of their community. Daniel Stone, a thirty-two-year-old father of seven, owned a blacksmith shop and a saloon. He appeared as surety for Tom Berry, a black man charged in 1873 with assaulting a white Swedish woman “with intent to ravish.” Soon afterward a black youth, Jim Givens, stood accused of

22. Kansas State Census, 1865, Douglas County, Lawrence, 7; Kansas State Census, 1875, Lawrence, 15; Schick, “The Black Community,” 1:10; “A. Dimmery” (spelling of the name varied) is listed as one of fourteen men at a large meeting, “Colored Men to the Front,” 1:10; “A. Dimmery” (spelling of the name varied) is listed as one of fourteen men at a large meeting, “Colored Men to the Front,” Lawrence Daily Journal and Evening Tribune, October 21, 1879. The cemetery lot purchase was confirmed via personal communication with Mitch Young, Oak Hill Cemetery (1605 Oak Hill Drive, Lawrence) official, February 23, 2005, and personal observation of Dimery monument, Old Section 5. “Declaration of Invalid Pension,” Absalom Dimery, reproduced in Lowery and Sweets, African Americans in the Kansas Census 1865, 70.

23. “Joseph Bowers” in Lawrence City Directory of the Business Firms, Incorporated Companies, Manufacturing Interests and Establishments in the City of Lawrence; Kansas for 1886 (Lawrence: P. T. Foley & Co.), 36; “Henry Copeland” in Johnson & McKinney’s Annual City Directory of the Inhabitants, Institutions, Incorporated Companies, Manufacturing Establishments, Business Firms, Enterprises, Etc., Etc. in the City of Lawrence for 1879 (Lawrence: H. A. Cutler, Book and Job Printer, 1879), 68; “Moses Jenkins” and “William Gray” in Lawrence City Directory of the Business Firms, Incorporated Companies, Manufacturing Interests, Inhabitants and Enterprises in the City of Lawrence, Kansas for 1883 (Lawrence: Lawrence Pub. Co., n.d.), 114, 95; Kansas State Census, 1875, Douglas County, Lawrence, 25; E. Dimmery (sic); 2: Gabriel Gray; 24: William Gray; 15: Gratten Gregg; Smith, “Catching up with the past”; Lawrence Journal, June 26, 1894. All of these men except E. Dimery and Washington have grave markers at Oak Hill Cemetery. Washington was buried at Clinton Cemetery in southwest Douglas County. Family names in the census and city directories suggest that more soldiers settled in Lawrence than can be documented.


25. Kansas Daily Tribune, June 28, August 13, September 6, October 19, and December 28, 1864. One of the founders of the aid society was Mrs. H. D. Fisher, whose husband, Chaplain Fisher of Lane’s Brigade, was Supervisor of the Refugees.

raping the ten-year-old daughter of a Swedish widow, and although Stone did not put up bond for Givens, he suffered the racial antagonism stirred up by Givens’s alleged crimes. Givens was threatened with lynching while being held in jail and Stone’s saloon was publicly reviled by Lawrence’s Republican Journal, which declared “Stone’s crib” to be “a dirty, vile, smelling nuisance” and demanded that it be “suppressed.” The paper also suggested that “the honest colored men of Lawrence owe it to themselves to join in driving these vagabonds and rascals out of town.” These incidents reveal a degree of racial tension present in eastern Kansas well before the arrival of the Exodus migrants in 1879 and 1880. Stone was not deterred, however; he persisted in business, and after the statewide Prohibition law took effect in 1881, he adapted his business by opening a restaurant, which his son continued.27

In 1865 black residents lived in a number of population pockets scattered across Lawrence and North Lawrence and resided in some 187 households. The largest concentration was east of the Massachusetts Street business district. Several families purchased lots from Rev. Richard Cordley, who owned property on New York Street, but many families lived in rental properties, sometimes with more than one family doubling up in a dwelling. A number of widows and orphans resided in extended families as the community took care of the most vulnerable of its members. Less than 10 percent of the African American population was domiciled in white homes.28

Although securing food, shelter, and employment took priority, many black families aspired to more, especially the education of their children. At the first opportunity, in 1862, black children attended school. Black classes were held separately from those of whites, apparently almost by default and without public discussion. Lawrence had no public school building during the first ten years of settlement; white children attended classes in the basement of the Unitarian Church, which was fitted out as a classroom. By 1865, however, with Rev. Cordley serving as Lawrence school superintendent for 550 children, a new school building was under construction at a cost of five thousand dollars. This new Central School was only large enough for the “Higher and Intermediate departments,” and primary departments remained in the basement of the Unitarian Church, while the Second Congregational Church housed the “Colored School.” Few questioned this arrangement in Lawrence or other Kansas towns following similar segregation practices. However, the Kansas State Teachers Association, which met in Lawrence in July 1866, resolved for teachers to lead the way in overcoming prejudice against equal admission of all children.29

The 1867 arrival in Lawrence of an agent from the Freedmen’s American and British Commission, a black self-help organization, may have inadvertently perpetuated segregated schooling. Miss A. M. Drury, one of two white persons on the commission, arrived from Washington, D.C., secured a downtown Lawrence location, held reading and geography classes, and planned instruction in arithmetic. After visiting and praising the work of Drury’s school in spring, editor John Speer called on the Lawrence public to help the school obtain needed books and furniture. Subsequently, Speer reported that the Freedmen’s school had about sixty children enrolled and noted that Drury was trying to revive the “colored Methodist Sunday School,” despite the fact that several well-established black churches offered religious services.30

In contrast to separate classes for black and white children in Lawrence, rural communities such as Blue Mound, where the African American population was small, chose integrated education. In 1857 classes for white children had been held in a home on the Ogden farm, while another home served the educational needs of black children. But when the district constructed a new school building in 1865, over one hundred children of “both races attended the same school.” The sons of David and Rebecca Brooks Harvey attended this integrated school; and they went on to graduate from the University of Kansas, where they participated in integrated sporting events. A few other rural schools in Douglas County also opted for integrated education.31

Most Lawrence residents, including staunchly antislavery men, appeared satisfied with the educational arrangements in Lawrence. On October 13, 1867, editor Speer boasted that, “No city of the West affords greater facilities for educating the young, than Lawrence.” Speer’s article listed six schools, their principals, teachers, and numbers of pupils including the “Colored Schools,” one with an intermediate department of fifty-one pupils and the other a primary school with forty-eight. The “Intermediate Colored” registered fifty-six students with an average attendance of thirty-seven for the 1868–1869 school year, while the “Primary Colored” had eighty-three, with average attendance of fifty. White teachers in the “colored” schools received pay identical to teachers in the white schools. In 1868 the Kansas legislature affirmed the segregation practices of larger towns when it passed a law that allowed first- and second-class cities to

African American political leaders during the early post Civil War years, such as Charles Langston, viewed voting rights for black men as the most critical issue of the day. Proponents of black suffrage argued that without this right, the gains of the Civil War would be lost. Beginning in 1863 Langston, then living in Leavenworth, campaigned for black male suffrage, and in 1866 he chaired the “Convention of Colored Citizens” meeting in Lawrence, which called for a constitutional amendment to strike the word “white” as a condition for voting from the Kansas constitution. During subsequent legislative debate on the suffrage of blacks and women, Langston was deeply suspicious of those who would couple the two propositions, arguing that to submit more than one amendment to the people “would defeat the one for negro suffrage.” Nevertheless, both were offered up and tensions arose between supporters of black suffrage, such as Langston, who quit his business activities to devote more time to the cause of black suffrage, and equally committed supporters of women’s suffrage.

Both sides were disappointed when the votes were tallied after the November 5, 1867, election. The proposition to extend the vote to black men lost 10,483 to 19,421 statewide; the proposed women’s suffrage amendment went down by an almost identical margin. Voters in Douglas County, as in all but two of the other forty Kansas counties, defeated both propositions, but the black suffrage amendment lost by a mere thirty votes. African American men had to wait for another three years and the ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution before gaining the right to vote; the achievement of equal suffrage for Kansas women, black and white, took much longer.  

In the months after the 1867 vote, Charles Langston relocated to Douglas County. While living in Leavenworth he had taught a contraband school, recruited black men for the military, and operated a grocery store; but when he moved to Douglas County, he purchased a farm northwest of Lawrence. Langston returned to Ohio in January 1868, where he married Mary Patterson Leary, the widow of Sheridan Leary, who had perished in John Brown’s Harpers Ferry raid. On his 122-acre farm at Lakeview, where he returned with Mary after their wedding, Langston grew winter wheat, rye, corn, and potatoes and cultivated a fine apple orchard. Here two sons and a daughter were born before the family moved into Lawrence around 1880.

Even as a farmer and family man, Langston was spurred by his education, family background, and commitment to civil rights and continued speaking across Kansas and traveling to national civil rights meetings, such as the Colored National Convention in Washington, D.C., in 1869. Born in Virginia in 1817, Langston was a son of Captain Ralph Quarles, the owner of a large plantation, and Lucy Langston, a slave of American Indian and African heritage. Quarles recognized his three sons with Lucy, provided them an education, and left his estate to them. Charles Langston and his brother, John, continued their education at Oberlin College in Oberlin, Ohio, where Charles participated in the rescue of an escaped slave who was about to be captured and returned to slavery in Kentucky. He was tried, convicted, fined one hundred dollars, and jailed for fifty-eight days in Cleveland, Ohio. At his sentencing Langston declared, “The [Fugitive Slave] law under which I am arraigned is an unjust one, one made to crush the colored man, and one that outrages every feeling of Humanity, as well as every rule of Right.” John Brown, who by this time was identified with the struggle in Kansas, passed through... 

34. D. W. Wilder, The Annals of Kansas, 1541–1885 (Topeka, Kans.: T. Dwight Thatcher, Kansas Publishing House, 1886), 463; Taylor, In Search of the Racial Frontier, 126. The Douglas County vote on the proposition to strike the word “Male” from the constitution’s suffrage clause was 652 for to 1,464 against; a state constitutional amendment providing equal suffrage for Kansas women was finally ratified in November 1912.
Cleveland while Langston was there and Langston may have been influenced by his example to cast his future with Kansas. Later in Lawrence, Langston served as grandmaster of the Colored Masons, president of a “colored benevolent society,” and continued his political activity until his death in 1892 at age seventy-two. His grandson, poet Langston Hughes, wrote that his grandfather gave fine speeches, but never cared much about money and “let his farm and his grocery store in Lawrence run along.”

Another important leader of the Lawrence black community, Thomas W. Henderson, arrived in Lawrence in 1868. Born into slavery in North Carolina and also educated at Oberlin, the twenty-five-year-old Henderson lived in Missouri before coming to Lawrence as pastor of St. Luke AME Church. The new minister and his young family found a vibrant African American community whose church members welcomed them with a surprise party, donations, and a new parsonage. The new pastor soon presided at three marriages, and in a few years began to edit the Colored Radical, published for a few months in Lawrence. Henderson became a member of the Lawrence School Board in 1871 and later acted as the crusading editor of the Colored Citizen in Topeka. He also lived in and served churches in Leavenworth and Topeka. Before Henderson left Kansas for St. Louis in October 1879, he spoke of Kansas as “the grandest, greatest, and freest of all the States,” and he supported, with some later caution, the black migration that was streaming into Kansas after the end of Reconstruction in the South.


37. Kansas Daily Tribune, December 3, 1868; Shogrin, Douglas County, Kansas, Marriages; “Collected Biographical Clippings,” 1:320, Library and Archives Division, Kansas Historical Society, Topeka, Kansas; “Schools,” Directory of the City of Lawrence, for 1871 (Lawrence: J. T. Atkinson, 1871), 12, 4th Ward, Wm C. Rote, Rev. T. W. Henderson; “The Power of the Press,” Republican Daily Journal and Daily Kansas Tribune (hereafter Republican Daily Journal), May 13, 1879; “Mr. Henderson’s Report,” Republican Daily Journal, May 17, 1879; in a February 7, 1876, letter to the Leavenworth Times Henderson asked “when the white population would ‘throw aside their hatred of us black citizens, because of color, and give our children a chance’” (Carper, “The Popular Ideology of Segregated Schooling,” 260). Henderson was associated with William L. Eagleson, who moved the Colored Citizen from Fort Scott to Topeka in July 1876 and promised his readers “a paper that will benefit the colored people of Kansas and adjoining States, and help them maintain their rights and privileges; to live as men should live, honest, moral and upright.” In his first Topeka issue, Eagleson assured his readers that Henderson too would “show no quarter to the enemies of the colored race, but will make a fair square fight for their every right” (Colored Citizen, July 26, 1878).

38. “Immigration Aid Meeting,” Republican Daily Journal, April 18, 1879; “Call for Public Meeting” and “Card from Mr. James,” Republican Daily Journal, April 23, 1879; “Refugee Committee Meeting,” Republican Daily Journal, May 7, 1879; “Personal,” Lawrence Daily Journal and Daily Kansas Tribune, July 3, 1879. Superintendent John M. Brown of the Kansas Freemen’s Relief Association testified before the Kansas Senate that the association’s activity was not intended to encourage further immigration. Cox, Blacks in Topeka, 57, 73.

white Lawrence neighborhood. The seventy-year-old Keith, who was identified as a gardener but owned real estate worth thirty thousand dollars in North Lawrence, was the wealthiest black man in the area. Gregg, born in Kentucky in 1824 to a black mother and white plantation owner, had been taken as a slave to Missouri in 1851. During the Civil War, Gregg escaped to Lawrence with his second wife and six children, where he participated in Republican politics, the Prohibition club, and helped organize the annual Emancipation Day celebration in August 1881. Although born in Georgia, Keith migrated to Lawrence by way of Ohio, where his five children were born and where he had served on the board of directors of Wilberforce University. By 1875 his daughter Judith was one of four black teachers in the Lawrence public schools, and when Ishmael Keith returned to Ohio his son, Green Keith, took over his father’s produce farm just north of Lawrence. Like Alex Gregg, the younger Keith participated in Republican politics and also represented North Lawrence on the Lawrence City Council. Green Keith was held in such high regard at the time of his death in 1915 that Lawrence city offices closed in his honor and flew the American flag at half-mast.

Despite the political participation and financial accomplishments of black men such as Alex Gregg and the Keiths, the black community as a whole did not share in these achievements. African American leaders in Topeka and Lawrence were distressed that many blacks could not find jobs and the Republican Party, which controlled the cities’ patronage positions, was not often willing to consider blacks. The Colored Citizen charged that the only blacks holding government positions in Kansas were one postal clerk in Leavenworth, and a single position at the state prison. In May 1879 a mass meeting of African Americans in Lawrence protested “the action of the City Council in not appointing a colored man to any office at their disposal.” The meeting’s eight leaders included shoe-makers Alexander Gregg and Henry Fuel, and blacksmith Troy Strode.

Other black immigrants to the state had not been successful in locating their families once they arrived. “Aunt Cynthia” Scruggs, a former slave of Nathaniel Scruggs of Jackson County, Missouri, pleaded in the Lawrence Daily Journal for information on the whereabouts of her three daughters, Francis Ann, Virgin Mary, and Tamatha, who were “all sold before the war” and “have gone the old lady knows not wither.” According to the 1850 census, the fifty-eight-year-old Nathaniel Scruggs owned thirteen slaves, among whom were likely Cynthia and her family. Whether Cynthia ever located her daughters is not known, but she is an example, in the words of historian David Blight, of one of the “thousands of black women [who] spent their aging lives trying to reassemble families dislocated by emancipation’s diaspora.”

Single black women, such as Cynthia Scruggs, were among the poorest in the community. Douglas County officials opened a “Poor House” south of Lawrence in 1869. Some poverty-stricken adults, black and white, refused to go to this institution. An 1879 newspaper article, “Buzzard’s Roost,” highlighted the terrible conditions in a downtown Lawrence hovel fashioned from an old dye house where thirty or forty “colored persons, mostly women and children,” including infants, had been living. Many left when ordered by police to “quit the premises,” but some stayed asserting that “they preferred the life they were leading to going to the poor farm.” Officials worked to find homes for children sent to the “Poor House,” as evidenced by a report in the local newspaper that a “colored girl eight years old” was among four children needing placement out of the facility. By 1881 this county institution housed only “seventeen inmates . . . many of whom are colored,” and most in ill health.

40. The Greggs lived at 903 Tennessee. The announcement for the Emancipation Day celebration, which featured a speech by Kansas Governor John P. St. John, advised that “all parties seeking to do business in the [Bismarck] grove that day will apply to A. Gregg, Lawrence.” For additional biographical information on Alex and Mary Gregg, see Kansas State Census, 1875, Douglas County, Lawrence, 2: Gregg; 5: Keith; Schick “The Black Community,” 1:5–6; Lawrence Daily Journal and Daily Kansas Tribune, July 28, 1881; “Silver Wedding,” Western Recorder, March 21, 1884, reprinted in Shogrin, Douglas County, Kansas, Marriages, 182.

On the most extreme end of the spectrum between success and failure in Lawrence’s African American community were three black men lynched by a Lawrence mob in 1882. Poverty, as well as racial animosity, contributed to the lynchings and the events that led up to them. The initial victim of these circumstances was Margaret “Sis” Vinegar, the fourteen-year-old daughter of Pete Vinegar, a father of seven who had migrated to North Lawrence from Arkansas after the Civil War. He had difficulty supporting his large family, especially after the 1873 death of his wife, and his motherless children often begged for food and clothing or engaged in petty crimes. “Sis” Vinegar turned to prostitution. When David Bausman, a forty-two-year-old white widower, was seen engaging in sexual relations with the black teenager, several men beat Bausman to death and threw his body into the Kansas River.\textsuperscript{45} The murder came to light when three boys fishing in the river noticed a human hand protruding from the water. As news spread, Bausman’s mutilated body was dragged from the river, and, after an investigation, the Douglas County sheriff arrested three African American men, including Pete Vinegar, holding them in the jail located near the river. The June 10, 1882, issue of the local newspaper reported the fates of these men under the boldfaced headline “HUNG.”

At one o’clock last night fifty or more men made their appearance at the jail and demanded admittance. . . . The lynching party had come armed with sledge hammers and cold chisels and cut their way through every barrier . . . Pete Vinegar, George Robertson and Isaac King were each swung over the bridge and their bodies left dangling over the muddy Kaw. . . . As the vigilance committee came back this crowd cheered them lustily.\textsuperscript{46}

Since Margaret Vinegar was suspected of plotting with the accused men to rob Bausman, she was also jailed. Although the lynch mob spared her life, she was never free again. Black lawyer John L. Waller spent years trying to arrange a pardon for Margaret Vinegar, but she died in the Kansas state prison at Lansing of consumption at age twenty-one. Pete Vinegar, who may have had nothing to do with the murder, was buried in the Pauper’s Field at the city-owned Oak Hill Cemetery.

These lynchings were not the first such extralegal punishment in Douglas County, nor were they the last in Kansas. Accusations of horse stealing sealed the fate of six whites in this manner during the 1850s and one in 1860. Thomas Corlew, a white man believed to have been an accomplice of Quantrill’s raiders, was hung in Lawrence on August 22, 1863, by an enraged citizenry the day after the massacre. Three black men accused of rape were lynched in Geary County in 1867, and in 1869 three African American soldiers of the Thirty-Eighth United States Colored Infantry Regiment, accused of murder in the frontier town of Fort Hays, were similarly dispatched. In 1888, two black men accused of murder were lynched in Labette County. That a disproportionate number of Kansas lynchings involved black men bears out larger, nationwide patterns. Historian Eric Foner found that in the United States between 1880 and 1930, 88 percent of victims of lynching were African American men. The lynching of Pete Vinegar, Isaac King, and

\textsuperscript{45} Cindy Schott and Kathy Scott Gates, \textit{Boys, Let Me Down Easy: Murder and Lawlessness in a Small Town} (Lawrence, Kans.: the authors, 2005), vii, viii, 3–10.

George Robertson in Lawrence, the last such incident of “mob justice” in Douglas County, falls into the early part of this period.47

Within days of the Lawrence lynchings, Waller, who had been born into slavery in Missouri and subsequently educated in Iowa before moving to Kansas, chaired a meeting of black men at the Douglas County courthouse. The assembled men condemned the murder of Bausman and praised the brave conduct of William Harper, “one of our colored citizens, who himself captured George Robertson and delivered him to the sheriff.” Among others attending were Christopher C. James, who also aided in the capture of the accused; two black barbers, one of whom was William Gray, a veteran of the First Kansas Colored; a black Baptist minister; a white newspaper editor; and former editor, John Speer, who would represent Lawrence in the Kansas House of Representatives during the 1883 session. Several resolutions came from this meeting, one of which cautiously objected to the mob action: “As law abiding citizens, we view with alarm the spirit of lawlessness, which under the garb of upholding and purifying the law, often violates the first principle of justice.”48

Congregational minister Richard Cordley, who had moved from Lawrence to a church in Emporia, denounced this tragedy, which he felt had disgraced Lawrence. He excoriated the Lawrence editor: “You say you ‘are sorry it [the lynching] was deemed necessary.’ It was not necessary. There was not a shadow of necessity for it.” Cordley concluded, “The blood of every law abiding citizen should tingle with shame, and his face blush with horror at such a deed.” In March 1883, months after the lynching, Waller founded the Western Recorder, “devoted especially to the interest of the race.” Besides printing news of the black community in his four-page paper, Waller discussed the 1882 lynching, deploring the fate of Pete Vinegar against whom no charges were filed and criticzing the jailers who offered no resistance to the mob.49

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Waller, a member of the Lawrence School Board in 1882, also championed integrated schools, Republican politics, and the temperance cause. In 1883 he penned a long article on “Decoration Day” in which he lamented that black Union veterans were left out of the observances. “There are more than a hundred colored soldiers in and around Lawrence,” wrote editor Waller, “but neither they nor their families have anything to do with the deliberations of this most solemn occasion.” In July 1884, after moving his newspaper to Atchison, Waller devoted his energies to electing blacks to state offices.50


48. “Law and Order,” Lawrence Daily Journal and Daily Kansas Tribune, June 13, 1882; the men mentioned in the article were identified in Lawrence City Directory of the Business Firms, Incorporated Companies, Manufacturing Interests, Inhabitants and Enterprises in the City of Lawrence, Kansas for 1883, 45, 97, 150, 168, 175, 181. See also, Wilder, The Annals of Kansas, 1541–1885, 1018.


50. “Decoration Day,” Western Recorder (Lawrence), June 7, 1883; “Our Bow,” Western Recorder (Atchison), June 27, 1884; Randall B.
Perhaps responding to leaders such as Waller, Charles Langston, and Thomas Henderson, Lawrence began to integrate its schools, but in a peculiar, halfway manner. When a high school and grammar school were opened, both blacks and whites attended the same classes, though poor children of both races were often forced to drop out of the upper grades when their families needed the money they could earn by working. In most primary schools white and black children attended school in separate classrooms in the same building through the third grade, but from fourth grade and up classes were mixed. However, in North Lawrence where a number of black families had settled, the school board—despite the presence of member Thomas W. Henderson who favored integration—maintained two “6th Ward” elementary schools: the black school named Lincoln, the white, Woodlawn. Similar arrangements took place in other Kansas cities, although black parents filed some dozen court cases against segregation before the U.S. Supreme Court held it unconstitutional in the Brown v. Board of Education case in 1954.51

Long before segregation ended, members of Lawrence’s black community continued to seek education for their children, support their churches, develop their own organizations, and acquire property, all with an eye toward providing for the second generation of their families. For example, Jesse Dillard was born into slavery in Henry County, Virginia, in 1826 or 1827, and despite being illiterate when he arrived in Lawrence in 1868, he became a respected property owner and made sure his daughter received an education. With five hundred dollars, Dillard purchased residential lot 56 on Louisiana Street where he eventually built a handsome two-story Queen Anne style house. In May 1872 the Daily Kansas Tribune printed a letter from Dillard’s employer, the Lawrence, Leavenworth and Galveston Railroad, congratulating him on his wedding and noting the company’s gift of a “beautiful silver castor.” By 1876 Dillard was conductor on a special Pullman car on the Atchinson, Topeka and Santa Fe’s route between Kansas City and Pueblo, Colorado. He left the railroad after a few years and thereafter was employed as a janitor for the Lawrence National Bank. On the occasion of his sixtieth birthday in 1895, the leading white Lawrence newspaper, which did not often report on African Americans, noted, “At the conclusion of a very enjoyable supper Mr. Dillard was presented a rocking chair, which was given by a few of his gentleman friends as a token of their respect to him, and with the hope of his living long to enjoy its comforts.”52

Though they had no formal education themselves, Jesse and Frances Dillard, like David and Rebecca Harvey, believed in schooling for their children. The Dillard’s daughter Mary graduated from Lawrence schools and then the University of Kansas in 1896. She became a teacher in the all black primary class within Pinckney School, where young Langston Hughes was enrolled when he was seven or eight years old. After taking graduate work at the University of Kansas in English and special education, Mary Dillard became principal of Lawrence’s all black Lincoln school.53

Mary Dillard, along with Frederick D. G., Sherman, and Ed Harvey and Fred, Curtis, and Sadie Stone, represented the second generation of African American families in Lawrence. In 1889, a month after Sherman Harvey graduated from the University of Kansas, he wrote to the American Citizen, a black Topeka newspaper:

Let us stay in America, where we belong; and let us go to work. The great obstacle to overcome is


African Americans Build a Community in Douglas County, Kansas


55. Sherman Allen Harvey, memoir, 3–7, typescript, National Military Home, Los Angeles, California, 1933, Kansas Collection, University of Kansas Libraries, Lawrence; Harvey, “Story of His Mother Rebecca Brooks Harvey,” Harvey Family Collection, Kansas Collection; Sherman Harvey employed Carrie Langston, daughter of Charles and Mary Langston, in the clerk’s office.


58. “We Shall Stay,” *American Citizen* (Topeka), July 19, 1889: “It is useless to study medicine because blacks were not admitted to the University of Kansas Medical School. He graduated from Meharry Medical School in Nashville, Tennessee, and for a time practiced medicine in that state.”

59. When the United States entered the Spanish American War in 1898, Frederick Harvey, Sherman Harvey, and John Waller joined the Twenty-Third Kansas Volunteers, and served as officers in the all black regiment. The African American press in Kansas, which reported on black regiments being called into service in the weeks leading up to the war, sympathized with the oppressed people of color in Cuba. Yet many black leaders viewed military service as a means to protection and status amidst the rising tide of prejudice and discrimination in late nineteenth-century Kansas and the nation.

60. Captain Sherman Harvey and Dr. Frederick Harvey, the regiment’s assistant surgeon, spent the winter of 1898–1899 in Cuba, mostly guarding Spanish prisoners of war before they were repatriated to Spain. After being discharged Frederick Harvey returned to Kansas City, Kansas, and eventually to Lawrence where he practiced medicine. Sherman Harvey entered the School of Law at the University of Kansas but only stayed for a year and a half. With this training and his past experience in the county clerk’s office, he took and passed the Kansas bar. Harvey had urged his fellow citizens to “stay in America where we belong,” though he was apparently changed by his wartime experience in Cuba and left the United States for the Philippine Islands in April 1902.

61. Although he was unsure that his Kansas law license would be of use half a world away, he adapted to the multiethnic Philippine culture and for nineteen years plied his profession there before returning to the United States.
Like his brothers, Ed Harvey grew up viewing the new University of Kansas building on Mt. Oread from a distance. Having entered the university directly from the racially-integrated country school at Blue Mound, he played football and graduated in 1894. At the turn of the century, he went to Washington, D.C., as secretary to Congressman Justin D. Bowersock, a Lawrence Republican, but Harvey returned to the family farm after the death of his father and spent the rest of his life in rural Douglas County. Active in church and community, Harvey served as secretary of the Douglas County Farmer's Institute, the Taxpayers League, and as a member of the Blue Mound School Board. Although the Harvey family is a remarkable example of how quickly black families in Douglas County could improve their situations, having leapt in one generation from slavery to the professions, not all of the Harvey children shared in the family’s success. The light-skinned Anna Brooks, born into slavery in 1850 in Arkansas, never found as prominent a place in Lawrence as did her Kansas-born brothers. She found work as a domestic and waitress and lived with her half-brothers in her later years.

Historian Rayford W. Logan has labeled the 1890s through to the opening of the twentieth century, when the status of blacks in American society declined due to betrayals of their civil rights, “The Nadir.” Although assaults on blacks and incidents of racial hostility in Kansas and in some northern cities were not as horrific as in the South, during this period race riots and lynchings increased in both regions. After 1900 Lawrence entered a period of slow growth and job opportunities decreased as the barbwire factory closed and two drug manufacturers moved to Kansas City, Missouri. With the loss of factory jobs the black population decreased in proportion to whites, receding from 25 percent of the total in 1890 to less than 17 percent in 1920. There continued to exist a number of successful black-owned businesses and several black teachers taught in the Lawrence schools. There were no black football players at Lawrence High School, however, and the school had a separate all black basketball team. Blacks were seldom mentioned in the Lawrence newspapers, except for reports of criminal activity or the heralding of black entertainer George William “Nash” Walker.

58. Harvey, “Story of his Mother Rebecca Brooks Harvey,” Harvey Family Collection, Kansas Collection; Kansas State Census, 1865, Douglas County, Wakarusa Township, 4: Anna Brooks, age fifteen, born in Arkansas; Kansas State Census, 1875, Douglas County, Lawrence, 10: Anna Brooks, age twenty-five, domestic, born in Arkansas. These data indicate the family did not consider Anna to be David Harvey’s daughter although one city directory designated her as Harvey, “Anna Harvey, waiter”: Johnson & McKinney’s Lawrence City Directory, 1879, 85. U.S. Census, 1930, Wakarusa Township: Anna Brooks, age eighty, living in Edward Harvey household. Anna Brooks was probably the daughter of a white Arkansas slave owner who forced himself on her enslaved mother. The author had unrecorded conversations with Harvey descendents in 1980 and later.

In late summer 1910, the Lawrence Daily Journal lavishly promoted its “birthday” with a party for Lawrence children at Woodland Park, a new amusement venture on the eastern edge of town. Along with a large advertisement, printed on August 17 and pictured here, inviting “children between the ages of 6 and 13” to the party, the newspaper printed a notice, “About That Party,” in which the white editor clarified that “The Journal knows the colored children have no desire to attend a social event of this kind and that they will not want to go. This is purely a social affair and of course everyone in town knows what that means.”

Born in Lawrence in 1872 to single mother Alice Hayden, Walker left Kansas in his early twenties and eventually became part of the famous traveling vaudeville duo, Williams and Walker. Early in 1902, Walker returned to Lawrence in triumph as the Lawrence paper exclaimed, “Nash Walker comes in a Blaze of Glory.” The paper described Walker, who grew up in poverty, as a “former Lawrence bootblack.” But this “ragged street urchin” was welcomed “home” with much fanfare. At the height of his fortune in 1904, Walker built a home in Lawrence for his mother, but seven years later he retired from show business and died of syphilis in Islip, New York. After his body was returned to Lawrence for burial, a racially-mixed, overflow crowd attended his funeral in a flower-filled Warren (Ninth) Street Baptist Church. Walker’s friend and contemporary, Frederick D. G. Harvey, was among the pallbearers and a young Langston Hughes attended, recalling, “I got my hand slapped for pointing at the flowers, because it was not polite for a child to point.”

Aside from this commemoration of a black man who had gained acceptance in white society by entertaining it, white tolerance of blacks at social gatherings in Douglas County was limited. Late in the summer of 1910, the Lawrence Daily Journal lavishly promoted its “birthday” with a party for Lawrence children at Woodland Park, a new amusement venture on the eastern edge of town. Along with a large advertisement inviting “children between the ages of 6 and 13” to the party, the newspaper printed a notice, “About That Party,” in which the white editor clarified that the invitation extended only to white children. “The Journal has been asked if the colored children will be in attendance,” he wrote. “The Journal knows the colored children have no desire to attend a social event of this kind and that they will not want to go. This is purely a social affair and of course everyone in town knows what that means.”

Langston Hughes, who was nearly nine years old and living with his grandmother, Mary Langston, wrote of this hurtful incident in his autobiographical novel, Not Without Laughter. In Hughes’s story when black children walked to the park and lined up to enter, a tall white man turned them away, saying “this party’s for white kids.”

A year after the “Children’s Day” incident, black leaders united, as they had in 1882, to defend their...
beautified her parks, erected her old and modern buildings—quarrying the stone from the summits of hills over-looking our beautiful city—constructed her sewers, laid her water conduits, planted and cultivated her groves, in fact, have largely made Lawrence a city . . . of beauty.63

The writers of this letter took pride in the African American community’s accomplishments, but their statement also indicated that, despite their achievements, opportunities for blacks in the city had ebbed.

In 1914 the young Langston Hughes and his friend John Taylor, grandson of the black City Councilman David Logan, protested discrimination in school. The white eighth-grade teacher had seated all the black students in one row prompting Hughes to write “Jim Crow Row” on cards that he and Taylor tossed out the window. The boys were called to the principal’s office and expelled from school. To argue for their reinstatement, Dr. Harvey accompanied the black youths back to the school, spoke to the principal, and the boys returned to class.64

Not only in the public schools but also at the University of Kansas blacks began to be segregated, if not excluded. Although the Harvey brothers had played on integrated athletic teams at the university in the 1880s and 1890s, after the turn of the century white attitudes changed and black athletes were no longer welcomed onto intercollegiate sports teams. In the 1920s the Harvey brothers, all University of Kansas alumni, visited with Chancellor Ernest Lindley “to tell him that blacks did not have a very good chance at the university.” Painfully aware that opportunities had decreased for blacks since his college years, Ed Harvey told his son that Lindley “did not believe blacks needed to get an education.” Sherman Harvey sadly realized that black students, once welcomed at the university, were now being humiliated at his alma

community as law abiding. Dr. Harvey, Councilman Green Keith, four ministers, and a businessman signed a public letter that deplored the “Fact That Colored People Are Censured for Major Portion of Crime in Lawrence,” which they believed to be “absolutely unfair to our race.” They noted,

We have for more than fifty years played our part in the industrial, social and moral development of this community. Our brain and brawn have done no little to bring Lawrence to her present delectable height. In honest toil, we have paved the streets,

64. The author had several interviews with John Taylor in 1976, wherein he related this story of the “Jim Crow Row.” Taylor’s grandfather, David Logan, represented North Lawrence on the City Council. R. L. Polk Lawrence City Directory, 1911, 196.
mater. The effects of discouraging blacks from attending the university were felt throughout the community. As just one example, after Dr. Harvey died in 1923 no other black physician practiced medicine in Lawrence until the late twentieth century.\(^\text{65}\)

D\(^\text{uring the Civil War African Americans had flocked to Kansas in pursuit of freedom and liberty, but fifty years after the Emancipation Proclamation their legacy was mixed. In Lawrence, although many first generation black settlers did well, and the second generation produced talented, dedicated leaders, by the second decade of the twentieth century the black community was suffering. This was in part due to natural transitions in the community. By 1910 first generation black leaders and civil rights activists, such as Charles Langston, and businessmen, such as Alexander Gregg and Daniel Stone, had passed from the scene, as had former soldiers Joseph Bowers, Absalom Dimerly, William Gray, Moses Jenkins, and Henry Copeland. No leader replaced Charles Langston, who had come to Kansas with education and ideals, or Ishmael Keith, who came with education and money. Black veterans of the Spanish-American War, who had fought on foreign soil, were dying out or, like Sherman Harvey, choosing to live elsewhere. The decline of the black community in Lawrence was also affected by the attitudes of their white neighbors. When black crime made headlines in the white press, all members of the black community became suspect.\(^\text{66}\)

National policies towards blacks also influenced their lives in Kansas. As sectional reconciliation of the North and South gained momentum in the late nineteenth century, concern for the welfare of the formerly enslaved faded. Racial prejudice was pervasive throughout the North and the border states, such as Kansas, where blacks were usually consigned to segregated theatres, restaurants, and public facilities. Black men had the vote, but school segregation remained in place. Only after the U.S. Supreme Court found the “separate but equal” doctrine as applied to public schools unconstitutional in 1954 did the vestiges of segregated education begin to disappear in Douglas County and throughout Kansas. From the mid-nineteenth through the twentieth century, overt and subtle discrimination endured. Despite the election of some black men to local and state offices, the contributions of former Union soldiers, the success of businessmen, the achievements of families such as the Harveys and the Dillards, and the fame of George “Nash” Walker, the ideal of Kansas as the freest state, so hopefully expressed in 1879 by T. W. Henderson, had not been fulfilled. Perhaps the irony of this failure was greater in Kansas, where hopes had been so high.

And not for no reason, for as historian James N. Leiker observed, Kansas had seen both racial hostility and cooperation. This was demonstrated in Douglas County, where fugitive slaves were given aid and Exodusters provided relief. But in the city of Lawrence, lynchings occurred and discrimination often prevailed. Douglas County fit the pattern that Leiker summed up as the tension between ideals and practice: paradoxically Kansas’s “racism had been neither consistent nor monolithic.”\(^\text{67}\)

The freedom and equality that Charles and Mary Langston sought when they settled in Kansas would not be realized even in the lifetime of their grandson, Langston Hughes, who left Lawrence in 1915 and died in 1967. The aspirations of pioneers—of Hughes’s own family, of the Harveys, of the Civil War refugees who settled in Douglas County and other communities nationwide—resounded in the author’s works. Their hopes, unfulfilled yet alive, were heard in his call to his country: “Let America be America again. / Let it be the dream it used to be. / Let it be the pioneer on the plain / Seeking a home where he himself is free.”\(^\text{68}\)


