THE HISTORY, ARCHITECTURE, AND PRESERVATION OF ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA

by

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(Under the Direction of Mark Reinberger, Ph.D.)

ABSTRACT

Through the collaboration of a pioneer of African American education and a staunch businessman, six rural, African American schools were constructed in Alabama in 1914, financed with matching grants. The success of this experiment marked the beginning of the fruitful partnership between Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald. It was also the modest beginning of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, an African American educational philanthropy that was responsible for aiding in the construction of over 5,000 schools in fifteen states in the southern United States. The Rosenwald Fund quickly became a leader in the field of African American education as well as an innovator of rural schoolhouse design. This thesis recounts the history of the Rosenwald Fund, those responsible for its establishment and its school-building program, and the evolution of rural school design and its subsequent standardization. This thesis also examines three case studies of Rosenwald schools in Georgia that were successfully preserved, restored, and reused by community members and former students. Finally, a synopsis of efforts in the state of Georgia to find and protect these schools is presented as well as steps for preserving and reusing Rosenwald schools.

INDEX WORDS: African American education, Julius Rosenwald, Booker T. Washington, school architecture, historic preservation

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Through the collaboration of Julius Rosenwald, the first president of Sears, Roebuck and Company, and Booker T. Washington, the Wizard of Tuskegee, sprang one of the most far-reaching and successful school-building programs of the early twentieth century—the Rosenwald school-building program. The history of these schools, and their importance to the communities they served, was mostly forgotten until the National Trust for Historic Preservation named the Rosenwald schools to their 2002 list of the 11 Most Endangered Historic Places in America. This dubious national attention sparked action amongst state preservation officers who began searching through records, interviewing community members, and scanning the countryside for extant schools and amongst Rosenwald school alumni who spearheaded their own efforts to preserve their beloved schoolhouses.

Considering the importance of the men involved, the impact the schoolhouses had on African American education and the development of school architecture, and the rekindled interest in Rosenwald schools, there was surprisingly little recent information about Rosenwald schools and the Rosenwald school-building program. In an attempt to compile a succinct history about Rosenwald and his school-building program, this thesis attempts to draw together the various strands of the stories of the people involved and the time period in which they lived in order to create a better understanding of the impact the school-building program had on African American communities, African American education, and schoolhouse design. Secondly, by

examining the successful reuse of Rosenwald schools in Georgia and by discussing the steps and considerations for the preservation of historic structures – specifically Rosenwald schools – it is intended to provide direction to those planning the preservation of their school. It is hoped that this thesis can act as a basis for future research, a reference for those embarking on the preservation of their own Rosenwald school, and a stimulus for advancing the campaign for the preservation of Rosenwald schools.

CHAPTER 2

JULIUS ROSENWALD, BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, AND EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

Since the Rosenwald school-building program was perpetuated due to one man's generosity and sense of obligation, biographical information about Julius Rosenwald is pertinent to understand his revolutionary school-building program. Rosenwald's personality bleeds through into the policies of the fund he established; the procedures of the fund reflect both his convictions and his business savvy.

Born in August 12, 1862 to German-Jewish immigrants, Rosenwald was raised in a middle class home in Springfield, Illinois. His father, Samuel Rosenwald, arrived in the United States in 1854 after leaving his homeland of Germany because of his personal hatred for the military and the lack of economic opportunities. Samuel Rosenwald worked as a peddler upon his arrival and eventually became a member of the Hammerslough Brothers clothing firm.[1] Upon gaining secure employment, Samuel Rosenwald married the Hammerslough brothers' sister, Augusta, in 1857. The couple almost immediately embarked on a series of moves around the United States as the Hammersloughs sent Samuel to oversee their various clothing stores. During this four-year period, the Rosenwald family slowly grew and finally settled in Springfield, as Samuel was to run the Hammerslaughs' clothing establishment there.[2] Growing up in Springfield, Illinois with his five siblings, Julius Rosenwald had a fairly average,

[1] M.R. Werner, *Julius Rosenwald: The Life of a Practical Humanitarian* (New York and London: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1939), 4.
[2] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 6.

comfortable childhood. He went to public school, ran around the streets of his small hometown with playmates, and attempted to earn spending money by doing odd jobs, such as pumping the organ at the Methodist church or helping in his father's clothing store on Saturdays.[3]

At the age of seventeen, Rosenwald dropped out of school and went to New York City in order to learn the clothing trade from his uncle, Edward Hammerslough. He worked in his uncle's clothing store for five dollars a week and in his spare time, Rosenwald worked at two other retail stores in order to earn extra money.[4] Rosenwald soon graduated to selling merchandise for the Hammersloughs in suburban towns outside of New York City. After working under the guidance of his uncles for five years, Rosenwald decided to strike out on his own as a clothing merchant. After a failed attempt to start a business with his younger brother Morris in New York City, the Rosenwald brothers moved back to Chicago with a new business plan. With their cousin, Julius Weil, the three men planned to manufacture summer clothing, goods that were in ever increasing demand. Just down the street from where the three men decided to start their new business lived Augusta Nusbaum, the daughter of a clothing merchant in Chicago. She and Julius Rosenwald were engaged on January 6, 1890 and married four months later on April 8th.[5] By the early 1890s, the two Rosenwald brothers and their cousin earned moderate success with their enterprise; enough for Julius Rosenwald to support his wife and their growing family.

In 1895, Richard Sears offered to sell one-half of the interest in his company, Sears, Roebuck and Company to Rosenwald's brother-in-law, Aaron Nusbaum, for the sum of

[3] Edwin R. Embree and Julia Waxman, *Investment in the People: The Story of the Julius Rosenwald Fund* (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1949), 11.
[4] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 17.
[5] *Ibid*, 26.

$75,000.[6] Not willing to risk such a large sum of money, Nusbaum offered half of the investment to Rosenwald. Nusbaum suggested that the two men jointly invest $75,000, each contributing $37,500, in the fledgling yet thriving mail-order company.[7] The partnership brought the total capital of the company to $150,000 and created a new Illinois corporation. Sears remained the president and controlled half of the stock, Rosenwald became the vice president, and Nusbaum the treasurer, each with a quarter of the stock shares.[8]

Rosenwald made an immediate impact on Sears, Roebuck and Company. By 1897, the "total annual sales of the company had increased to $3,020,557 from $1,273,924 the year before."[9] Rosenwald not only reorganized the mail-order company's warehouse and introduced more efficient methods of filling orders, but also strove to treat customers fairly, advertise all products honestly, and eliminate questionable products from the catalogue, such as patent remedies. Rosenwald could not completely implement all his ideas and changes until 1909, when Richard Sears sold his all shares in the company and Rosenwald became president of Sears, Roebuck.[10] By insisting that goods must be truthfully advertised and the company meet all its obligations to the manufacturers and the bankers who dealt with the company, Rosenwald helped to elevate the integrity of the mail-order business and increase the confidence of those who dealt with Sears, Roebuck.[11] The booming success of the company, and the rapidly growing industry and commerce of the United States during the early 1900s multiplied Rosenwald's initial investment of $37,500 into many millions of dollars.

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[6] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 40-41.
[7] Diane Granat, "More Than Blue Skies," *Preservation*, July/August 2003, 35.
[8] Embree and Waxman, *Investment in the People*, 12.
[9] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 65.
[10] *Ibid*, 74.
[11] Robert T. Grimm, Jr., ed. *Notable American Philanthropists: Biographies of Giving and Volunteering* (West Port, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 2002), 278.

Figure 1. Portrait of Julius Rosenwald
Reprinted from Werner, *Julius Rosenwald,* inside cover

This new-found wealth was not the beginning of Rosenwald's charity – giving was a quality he exhibited his entire adult life. Although possessing a natural sense of generosity, several factors influenced Rosenwald's giving and how he distributed his charity. First and foremost, his Jewish faith and its tradition of charity and social justice inspired his giving.[12] Talmudic injunctions and Biblical exhortations had taught the Jewish to give part of their wealth to the poor, a lesson that was not lost on Rosenwald.[13] As Rosenwald could afford to do so – and even when he could not – he gave small sums of money to several of the traditional institutions

[12] Granat, *More Than Blue Skies*, 35.
[13] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald,* 81.

established by the Jewish community in Chicago. Although his religious beliefs initially drew Rosenwald into the act of charitable giving, it was natural that a strong personality such as Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch would help to form and guide Rosenwald's eventual values and standards for charity.[14]

Hirsch joined the Sinai Congregation of Chicago in 1880 and immediately became an integral force for community service. Hirsch was born in 1852 in Luxembourg and was educated in both Europe and the United States.[15] Hirsch led several congregations throughout the United States before he was called to the Sinai Congregation in Chicago. With his approachable style, Hirsch made the religious teachings far more accessible to the average Jewish-American.[16] He attracted members to his congregation through his teaching style and intellect, and garnered respect within the community along the way. However, Hirsch often shocked his congregation with brash and sarcastic remarks made during services and by giving regular tongue-lashings to the richer members of the congregation whom Hirsch felt were neglecting their obligations to society.[17] It was his overall message of the importance of community service and leading a life of practical idealism that appealed to Rosenwald. Rosenwald consulted Hirsch often on ethical matters and took Hirsch's advice and teachings to heart.[18]

Another person who influenced Rosenwald's decision-making in the area of charity is Judge Julian W. Mack. Judge Mack was an intimate friend of Rosenwald and belonged to an informal group of social workers, who found great need and opportunities to do useful work in Chicago.[19] Judge Mack brought worthwhile causes and people to Rosenwald's attention and

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[14] Diane Granat, "Julius Rosenwald's Legacy: How Sears CEO helped Southern blacks build better schools," *The Atlanta Jewish Times*, 4 October 2002, 2.
[15] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 87.
[16] *Ibid*.
[17] Embree and Waxman, 13-14.
[18] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 89-90.
[19] Embree and Waxman, *Investment in the People*, 14.

Rosenwald regularly sought his advice on economic and philanthropic matters, particularly on specific charities that asked for Rosenwald's financial support.[20]

Through his relationship with Judge Mack, Rosenwald meet and befriended Jane Addams, a pioneer in the field of social work and the founder of Hull House, a social settlement in a poverty-stricken area in Chicago. Rosenwald was personally involved with Addams' organization; he contributed money to the Hull House beginning in 1902 and sat on the board of trustees for several years.[21]

Although Rosenwald had several influences on his charitable giving through faith and friendship, he received the greatest amount of support from his wife, Augusta. Her influence, as well as Rosenwald's charitable nature, is probably best reflected through an often recounted antidote:

> During the period before [Rosenwald] became a wealthy man he attended a meeting concerned with Jewish charities in Chicago. Carried away by the account given by a speaker of a specific need, Rosenwald impulsively offered a contribution of $2,500. He left the meeting and went out into the cold street, worried at what he had just done, for he could not afford to contribute so much at that time. He was so worried that he walked all the way home and pondered about the best way to tell his wife what he had done. At home he began to hint that he had done something rash, and that he was worried. "What is it, Jule, tell me what you did?" Mrs. Rosenwald asked. He told her of his offer, adding that it would mean that they would have to economize. "Don't ever hesitate, Jule, to give money," Mrs. Rosenwald replied. "I will never stand in the way of any gift you want to make."[22]

Throughout their life together, Augusta Rosenwald always encouraged and supported her husband's charitable giving.

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[20] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald,* 91.
[21] Grimm, *Notable American Philanthropists*, 278.
[22] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald,* 30.

Philanthropy in Black Education

Rosenwald's charitable contributions "knew no restrictions of race, religion, or geographical boundary."[23] Rosenwald gave freely to charities and causes supported by, or supporting, various ethnic, racial, or religious groups as long as Rosenwald felt the money went towards an appropriate cause. Although Rosenwald gave to black charities, such as the campaign to build more Young Men's Christian Associations (YMCA) in urban African American neighborhoods,[24] Paul J. Sachs helped Rosenwald to generate a more concentrated interest in black philanthropy. A junior partner at the banking firm of Goldman, Sachs, and Company, later a professor of Fine Arts at Harvard University, and a philanthropist himself, Sachs' and Rosenwald's meetings to discuss business always led, instead, to discussions about current social movements.[25] As Sachs became more involved with the work of urban leagues for aid to blacks, Sachs discussed these efforts with Rosenwald and solicited his financial support.[26] In 1910, Sachs sent Rosenwald two books: An American Citizen, the Life of William H. Baldwin, Jr. by John Graham Brooks and Up From Slavery by Booker T. Washington.[27] The former is the biography of a white man from the North who devoted himself to promoting black education in the South; the later is Booker T. Washington's well-known autobiography about his rise out of slavery to be a leader of black education. It is frequently noted that these two books influenced Rosenwald "more profoundly than almost any other book he had read."[28]

Booker T. Washington was born into slavery in Franklin County, Virginia in 1856. His mother, Jane, worked as a cook on a small plantation and his biological father was a white man

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[23] Embree and Waxman, *Investment in the People*, 14.
[24] David G. Dalin, "What Julius Rosenwald Knew," *Commentary* 105, no. 4 (April 1998): 37.
[25] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 107.
[26] *Ibid*.
[27] Dalin, "What Julius Rosenwald Knew," 37.
[28] *Ibid.*

who owned a nearby plantation.[29] Jane's husband, Washington Ferguson, was a slave on a neighboring plantation whose master only allowed him to make periodic trips to visit his wife and their daughter, Amanda.[30] During the Civil War, Ferguson ran away to West Virginia and found a job in a salt mine, sending for his family once Union armies began enforcing Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation.[31]

Figure 2. Portrait of Booker T. Washington
Reprinted from Frost, "The Quiet Force," 106.

Booker T. Washington always had an interest in learning. When a black school opened in town, Washington begged his stepfather for permission to leave his job at the salt mine in order to attend the school.[32] After months of receiving sporadic lessons at night in the teacher's spare time, Washington was allowed to attend school on the condition that he worked in the salt

[29] Bob Frost. "The Quiet Force: Booker T. Washington," *Biography* 4, no. 7 (July 2000): 102.
[30] Edgar A. Toppin. *A Biographical History of Blacks in America since 1528* (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1969), 437.
[31] *Ibid.*
[32] *Ibid.*

mines from four o'clock in the morning until nine o'clock in the morning, before school started, and then work in the mines again after school ended.[33] Washington soon left the salt mines once and for all when he secured a job as a houseboy for General Lew Ruffner, the owner of the mines.[34] General Ruffner's wife, Viola, made Washington her protégé; she encouraged Washington's studies, instilled in him the value of hard work, and taught him that it was acceptable to be ambitious.[35]

In 1872, after hearing about a black college in Hampton, Virginia, Washington took his life savings and headed to Hampton Institute in order to further his education. Washington earned admittance into the college and a job as a janitor by cleaning a room and passing the subsequent white glove inspection; the job paid for his room and board and a friend of the school's founder, Samuel C. Armstrong, paid Washington's tuition.[36] At his school, Armstrong provided a dual education: his students learned useful trades as well as academic subjects. The objective of the education at Hampton Institute was to give African American students a practical, or industrial, education in order to return to the black community as teachers or obtain specialized skills or trades. A school day often began as early as five o'clock in the morning and included lessons in arithmetic and history, instruction in various skilled trades, and the execution of military-type drills.[37] Within the disciplined environment of Hampton Institute, Washington thrived, soon became the institute's top pupil, and gained favor with Armstrong, who now occupied a position as a role model for Washington.[38]

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[33] *Ibid*, 438.
[34] Grimm, *Notable American Philanthropists*, 334.
[35] Frost, "The Quiet Force," 103.
[36] Toppin, *A Biographical History of Blacks in America*, 438.
[37] Frost, "The Quiet Force," 103.
[38] *Ibid.*

Although Washington held various teaching positions after graduating from Hampton Institute, he did not agree with the classical curriculum offered at other black colleges, such as Wayland Seminary in Washington D. C., because he felt the students at these universities desired to earn an education in order rise above and live off of the black masses.[39] Preferring the practical training offered at Hampton Institute and believing such an education would do more to elevate the black race, Washington returned to Hampton Institute in 1879 and served on Hampton Institute's faculty supervising the one hundred Native American students recently admitted to the college.[40]

As Armstrong's protégé and a discipline of the practical education ideology, Washington was Armstrong's natural choice for the job as principal and instructor of a new college for African Americans in Tuskegee, Alabama. Washington began classes in July of 1881 in a dilapidated shack to an audience of approximately forty students.[41] Within four months, Tuskegee Institute grew to consist of 100 acres of land, employ three instructors, and boast an enrollment of eighty-eight pupils.[42] Although Washington's initial goal was simply to teach the students how to teach, as the campus of Tuskegee Institute grew, the range and breadth of classes offered by the college expanded to include brick-making, printing, cooking, and agricultural studies.[43] The classes not only taught the students skills, but benefited the school; the resulting materials, for example, were used to construct more buildings for the campus or to provide meals for the students and faculty of the college.[44]

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[39] Toppin, *A Biographical History of Blacks in America*, 438.
[40] Insert Racial Desegregation in Public Education in the U.S. Historic Context
[41] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 110.
[42] Frost, "The Quiet Force," 103.
[43] *Ibid.*
[44] Toppin, *A Biographical History of Blacks in America*, 439.

Under Washington's thirty-four years of leadership, Tuskegee Institute evolved into one of the most important and innovative educational institutions in the United States – white or black. Through the promotion of community involvement and outreach, the students and faculty of Tuskegee Institute held farmers' conferences on campus and gave demonstrations at outlying farms, pioneering the "moveable classroom" in order to introduce improved agricultural techniques to local farmers.[45] By 1915, the year of Washington's death, Tuskegee Institute owned 2,000 acres of land, had an annual budget of $290,000, enrolled 1,500 students, employed two hundred faculty members, and held an endowment of nearly two million dollars – larger by far than any other black college or university and larger than most white Southern colleges.[46] The success and growth of Tuskegee Institute was the direct result of Washington's tireless lecturing and fund-raising efforts, primarily by garnering support from Northern white philanthropists.

When Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald met in 1911, the state of education in the South, for both African Americans and Caucasians, was deplorable. The average school term in Southern states was less than one hundred days, about half the length of the school term in New England.[47] Only three-fifths of children in the South were enrolled in school and less than three-fifths of those enrolled were included in average daily attendance; therefore just over one-third of school-age Southern children were regularly in school.[48] In addition to the discrepancy between Northern and Southern schools, there was also a financial discrepancy between rural and urban schools. For example, in the state of Georgia, $3.77 was spent per rural child enrolled for a term of 103 days compared to $12.72 spent per child enrolled for a term of 170 days for the

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[45] *Ibid*.
[46] Freeman, "Booker Taliaferro Washington," 335.
[47] Louis Harlan, *Separate and Unequal: Public School Campaigns and Racism in the Southern Seaboard States 1901-1915* (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1958), 9.
[48] *Ibid*

students living in urban areas.[49] While all rural Southern schools lacked funding, rural African American schools were even more under-funded than rural white schools. White Southern school boards and school superintendents slowly chipped away at the funding for African American education, so that by the turn of the twentieth century, African Americans received only twelve percent of public school funds[50] – greatly reduced from its high point during the late 1800s when the Freedmen's Bureau, an agency established during Reconstruction, organized and built over four thousand schools for African Americans within five years.[51] On average across the South, per pupil expenditure for schooling for whites was twice that for African Americans. African American teachers were also grossly undereducated, under-trained, and underpaid,[52] receiving one-third the salary of white teachers.[53] A lack of intervention from the Federal government and prevailing white attitudes in the South (such as beliefs that African Americans only needed a minimal education or that since African Americans paid fewer taxes they did not deserve to receive more funding) helped to establish a system of separate and unequal schools in the southern United States.[54]

One of Washington's many goals for the betterment of rural Southern African Americans was to provide African American children with safe, purpose-built school buildings.[55] Washington achieved early progress towards this goal with financial help from H. H. Rogers of the Standard Oil Company. An early supporter of Washington, Rogers, in 1904, offered to supply financing for the construction of schoolhouses in rural counties in Alabama, building two

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[49] *Ibid*, 224.
[50] National Park Service, "Statement of Historic Context: Racial Desegregation in Public Education in the U.S."; available from http://www.cr.nps.gov/history/online_books/ nhl/school.htm; Internet; accessed 16 April 2006, 27.
[51] Andrew Gulliford, *America's Country Schools* (Washington D. C.: Preservation Press, 1984), 103.
[52] "Board of Contributors: A Model of Philanthropy," *The Wall Street Journal*, 24 February 1998, sec. A, p. 22.
[53] National Park Service, "Statement of Historic Context," 27.
[54] *Ibid*, 35.
[55] Mary S. Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools* (Washington D.C.: Preservation Books, 2004), 2.

or three schoolhouses at first to assure the plan would be a success.[56] At this time, the two men arrived at the idea that rather than give the schoolhouses "to the Negroes, they should stimulate them instead to contribute to the work themselves, so that they might learn its value, and support the schools after they were built."[57] This initial school-building program was successful and within five years forty-six schoolhouses were constructed in rural Alabama.[58] In 1909, Rogers died and the school-building program was discontinued.

In May 1911, Booker T. Washington traveled to Chicago to raise funds for Tuskegee Institute. During this fund-raising trip, Washington first met Julius Rosenwald, who held a luncheon for Washington at the Blackstone Hotel – it was the first time the Blackstone had an African American guest.[59] Like other Northern, white philanthropists interested in supporting African American education in the early-twentieth century, Rosenwald was not only fascinated by Washington, but also enthusiastically agreed with Washington's philosophy of self-help and an industrial education for African Americans.[60] During the month of October in the same year, Rosenwald, accompanied by relatives and friends, traveled to Tuskegee Institute to meet with Washington and tour the school.[61] Only months later, on February 12, 1912, Rosenwald was elected a trustee of Tuskegee Institute and served in this capacity until his death in 1932.[62]

It was in the same year, on the occasion of his fiftieth birthday, that Rosenwald distributed $687,000 to various charities, with $25,000 given to Tuskegee Institute.[63] Capitalizing on his relationship with Rosenwald and Rosenwald's generous gift, Washington once again advanced the idea of a rural school-building program. With approximately $2,800

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[56] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 127.
[57] *Ibid.*
[58] *Ibid.*
[59] Grimm, *Notable American Philanthropists*, 278.
[60] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 2.
[61] Embree and Waxman, *Investment in the People*, 26.
[62] *Ibid.*
[63] Granat, *Julius Rosenwald's Legacy*, 2.

remaining of the original gift, Washington asked for permission to use the remaining monies to build six rural public schools in Alabama, following the same formula employed in his previous school-building program.[64] Rosenwald naturally agreed to Washington's request. All six schools were completed in the spring of 1914, with the Loachopoka School in Lee County, Alabama being the first dedicated.[65] Each of the communities received three hundred dollars from Rosenwald, with the rest of the money raised within the black community and from contributions from the white community as well as the state and county school boards.[66] Upon hearing positive reports on the initial six schools in Alabama, Rosenwald gave another $30,000 to aid the building of one hundred additional schools in Alabama, in the same manner, in cooperation with Tuskegee Institute and the state and county school officials.[67] The school-building experiment, on a much larger scale than the previous one, was also extremely successful, with approximately eighty schoolhouses constructed prior to Booker T. Washington's death in 1915.[68] Washington's passing, however, did not signal the end of the school-building program as the program was just beginning.

[64] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 2.
[65] S. L. Smith, *Builders of Goodwill: The Story of the State Agents of Negro Education in the South, 1910 to 1950* (Nashville: Tennessee Book Company, 1950), 64.
[66] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 2.
[67] Smith, *Builders of Goodwill*, 65.
[68] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 131.

CHAPTER 3

THE JULIUS ROSENWALD FUND

The early successes of the school-building program in Alabama demonstrated its viability to Julius Rosenwald, who donated the funds to build these initial schoolhouses from his own pocket.[1] The growing number of inquiries about the school-building program from other communities in the South indicated the need for such a program. By combining his social and philanthropic ideologies with his sense of civic responsibility and business savvy, Rosenwald created a prolific charitable organization that made an immediate impact in the early-twentieth century.

Rosenwald executed his giving as he did his business dealings, with organization, efficiency, and economy. In 1914, with initial success of the school-building experiment and his gift of $30,000 to build more schools, Rosenwald felt it necessary to spell out the guidelines for the school-building program to potential participants as well as the administrative staff at Tuskegee Institute, then comprised of Booker T. Washington, Clinton J. Calloway—coordinator of applications and grants for the school-building program—and Tuskegee's executive council.[2] As "The Plan for the Erection of Rural Schoolhouses" outlined, the grants were to assist public school officers and the people in the community in erecting schoolhouses in rural or village

[1] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 132.
[2] Mary S. Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South* (Gainesville: University Press of Florida, 2006), 45.

districts by supplementing what the public school officers or the people themselves may do.[3] Furthermore, the community members had to secure approval from school authorities before commencing a project, grants would not exceed $350 and were conditional on a community securing at least as much funding from public revenues or its own members, and Tuskegee Institute (and, if necessary, the state's department of education) must approve all building plans. By setting up formal guidelines, Rosenwald transformed the once experimental building program limited to a few counties in Alabama into a statewide program with the potential to operate on a regional scale.

Within a year, "The Plan" needed revisions. The revisions included the clarification that a one-teacher schoolhouse would receive $300 for construction and $50 for administrative costs as well as a provision that no aid would be given until the community raised the corresponding amount and were prepared to furnish the schoolhouse.[4]

By 1917, the Rosenwald school-building program aided the construction of over 300 schools and requests for aid continued to flood into the offices of Tuskegee Institute. Although the program proved successful, Rosenwald was still apprehensive about the feasibility of a large-scale school-building program. In August of 1917, the U.S. Commissioner of Education called a conference of the Southern states' superintendents of education and the state agents to meet in Washington, D.C. in order to report upon and discuss African American education in their respective states.[5] The General Education Board—an education foundation created in 1902 to improve people in the South, regardless of race, creed, or color[6]—sponsored the conference. Rosenwald, in Washington, D.C. on business, attended the conference and gave a brief statement

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[3] *Ibid.*
[4] *Ibid*, 51.
[5] Smith, *Builders of Goodwill*, 65.
[6] *Ibid*, 1.

recounting the school-building efforts in Alabama.[7] While the gathered state school officials and state agents commended Rosenwald for his efforts and generosity, they also urged him to extend such aid to other states in the South.[8] Agreeable, Rosenwald requested that a committee be selected to draw up general guidelines for an enlarged school-building program and submit it to him for his consideration. The committee comprised of Jackson Davis (field agent of the General Education Board), James L. Sibley (state agent in Alabama), and S. L. Smith (state agent in Tennessee[9]), met and drew up the following recommendations:

1. To extend aid for rural African American school buildings to all the other Southern states that had state agents paid by the General Education Board.

2. All buildings should be erected on well-designed, modern rural school plans.

3. Rosenwald's aid for building costs should be increased from $300 to $400 for a one-teacher school and to $500 for a two-teacher or larger school.

4. To continue the management of the general program through Tuskegee Institute, with a Department of Rural Schoolhouse Extension headed by someone who is in position to co-operate with the various school officials in the Southern states.

5. The program in each state be directed by the state agent of Negro schools.

6. Matching grants for extended school terms and school libraries. [10]

Additionally, it was suggested that a second committee form and develop a new plan for future Rosenwald school construction. An interracial committee composed of Sibley, Robert Russa Moton—Booker T. Washington's successor as president of Tuskegee Institute—and Emmett J. Scott, also of Tuskegee Institute, immediately began work on improved guidelines in

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[7] *Ibid*, 65-66.
[8] *Ibid*, 66.
[9] *Ibid.*
[10] *Ibid*.

order to effectively expand the program.[11] By combining the suggestions of the committee from the General Education Board meeting and their own experiences with the school-building program, the committee of three drafted an ambitious new version of the "Plan for the Erection of Rural School Houses." The revised plan retained its original conditions on the disbursement of aid to the communities and included increased aid to one- and two-teacher schools, expanding the program's reach from Arkansas to Maryland, and matching grants to extend school terms to six or seven months. Procedural changes were also called for, such as the Rosenwald committee and Calloway reviewing applications in the order in which they arrived at Tuskegee, and working more closely with the state departments of education in order to decide the annual quotas for the number of schools to be funded in each state.[12]

The reorganization of the school-building program was not the only reorganizing Rosenwald did in 1917. In order to better manage his personal giving, Rosenwald restructured his philanthropies into a charitable foundation. The Julius Rosenwald Fund was established "for the well-being of mankind" on October 30, 1917 and began its work with an endowment of 20,000 shares of Sears, Roebuck and Company stock.[13] While the Rosenwald Fund provided a means through which he could manage his charitable giving, Rosenwald initially used the Fund to manage his donations to social service agencies and other philanthropic interests besides the school-building program, through which, with the help of his personal secretary William C. Graves, Rosenwald remained deeply involved.[14] Initially, the Fund remained largely under control of Rosenwald and members of his immediate family: his wife, one of his sons, and a son-in-law.[15] During the first ten years of the Fund's establishment, Rosenwald shouldered the

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[11] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 67.
[12] *Ibid*, 68.
[13] *Ibid*, 69.
[14] Embree, *Investment in the People*, 28.
[15] *Ibid*.

responsibility of both president and treasurer with the help of Francis W. Shepardson, who served as secretary and acting director, and Alfred K. Stern, as director.[16] Shepardson and Stern headed a small staff located in Chicago who directed the Rosenwald Fund's early operations.[17]

The ever-growing school-building program strained the Tuskegee staff, even once Calloway received additional funds to hire more administrators and state Rosenwald building agents,[18] causing Rosenwald concern about Tuskegee's management of the school-building program. Rising complaints about efficiency of the program's work, financial issues (such as distributing grants before the communities raised the funds) and administrative missteps (such as not assuring the schools were built to standards or built at all) prompted Rosenwald to review Tuskegee's handling of the rural school-building program's finances and construction projects.[19] The financial audits showed shoddy bookkeeping and accounting as far back as 1913, and an assessment of Rosenwald school construction by Fletcher B. Dresslar, professor of school hygiene and architecture at Nashville's George Peabody College for Teachers, revealed county school officials and contractors altering the plans at will, using cheap materials to stretch construction dollars, and not upholding construction standards outlined in the Tuskegee building plans.[20] Naturally, Rosenwald found the results of the review disappointing and the criticisms struck a harsh blow to those at Tuskegee Institute who had invested all their time and energy into the program. Calloway and Moton attempted to remedy the situation by naming an accountant to handle only the school-building program's funds and to revise Tuskegee's schoolhouse plan book, but it was too little too late. It was obvious that Tuskegee could not effectively manage the program at its current scope and with larger plans for the school-building program, Rosenwald

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[16] *Ibid*, 28.
[17] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 3.
[18] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 69.
[19] *Ibid*, 74.
[20] *Ibid*.

made the necessary business decision to improve the quality of his philanthropy's products by replacing the inefficient management team at Tuskegee.[21]

In 1920, the school-building program was placed under the direction of the Rosenwald Fund, which now controlled all of Julius Rosenwald's philanthropic giving. With new administration, new ideas, and new ideals, a new plan of aid was required. The "Plan for Distribution of Aid from the Julius Rosenwald Fund for Building Rural School Houses in the South" was drafted in the same year and addressed the program's new administration as well as its new emphasis on school architecture.[22] While the Rosenwald Fund still contributed a matching grant that covered approximately one-third of the costs of constructing the schoolhouse with the rest of the money contributed by the local African American community and the county and state governments,[23] the "Plan for Distribution of Aid" outlined changes and new emphases.

Changes in the plan included: that the Rosenwald Fund's officers in Chicago and Nashville would administer the program through state departments of education and their Negro school agents; Florida, Texas, and Oklahoma were placed on the list of states eligible for aid; and Rosenwald Fund trustees and state education officials now determined how many schools to build each year, for which the Rosenwald Fund provided each state with $5,000 in working capital, replenished as needed to fulfill the year's construction allotments.[24] Additionally, the plan required a minimum school term of five consecutive months per academic year, that the building and property be deeded to local authorities, and that the local public school system assume responsibility for staffing and maintaining the schoolhouse.[25] Furthermore, in an attempt to more clearly define what constituted a "better rural school house," the community had to

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[21] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 5.
[22] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 86.
[23] James Conrad and Theodore M. Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas: The Sand Flat and Richland School Project," *East Texas Historical Society Journal* 43, issue 2 (2005): 51.
[24] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 86-87.
[25] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 51.

adhere to architectural plans approved by or provided to them by the Rosenwald Fund,[26] properly furnish the schoolhouse, and an agent of the Rosenwald Fund and of the state department of education had to approve the building site.[27] Samuel L. Smith was tapped to head the school-building program at its new headquarters in Nashville. Smith proved more than qualified for the position of general field agent as he was an early active supporter of African American and industrial education and was trained at and designed school plans for the Tennessee Department of Education with Dresslar while at George Peabody College for Teachers.[28] With new headquarters, new leadership, and a revised and more detailed plan of aid, the Rosenwald Fund officers extended the school-building program across the rural South. Over the next seven years, the school-building program continued to develop and the Rosenwald Fund officials learned how to use model buildings to address a broader range of educational needs. The Fund, in keeping with the times and ideological shifts, increasingly gave grants for larger consolidated school facilities as well as adding grants for four-, five-, and six-teacher schools while decreasing the monies for one-teacher schools to $200.[29] The Rosenwald Fund created additional grants for auxiliary buildings such as teachers' homes and vocational education buildings; aid for classroom additions to existing Rosenwald schools; and aid for the replacement and repair of deteriorated Rosenwald schools.[30] Besides the transition away from smaller schoolhouses to the promotion of larger and consolidated schools, the Rosenwald Fund began to sponsor initiatives independent of the school-building program that would improve conditions inside the classrooms. The first of these, beginning in 1927, was the school library program that provided at low cost large sets of carefully chosen books—those that included positive accounts of African Americans and other

[26] Grimm, *Notable American Philanthropists*, 279.
[27] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 87.
[28] *Ibid*, 89.
[29] *Ibid*, 116.
[30] *Ibid*.

cultures.[31] The library grants were first offered to any African American school, then to rural white schools at full cost,[32] and quickly expanded to include the improvement of the library facilities of African American colleges and to establish county library systems.[33]

The year 1927 also marked another transformation of the Julius Rosenwald Fund as a whole. The Rosenwald Fund was a reflection of Rosenwald's philosophy on philanthropy. Rosenwald believed that philanthropies, such as his own, should use their grants as seed money "to encourage individuals and governments to take responsibility for needed programs and services"—seeing the school-building program, for example, as an incentive to Southern states to fulfill their responsibility to provide a quality public education and schools for African American children.[34] Additionally, Rosenwald did not approve of perpetual trusts, believing that they could not respond to the unknown needs of the future.[35] Rosenwald also believed that a philanthropic foundation, in order to be a social agency rather than a personal convenience, had to have a policy-forming body consisting of members with a wide-range of interests and knowledge, who had no direct connection with the founder's fortune, and who could give all of their time to the work of the foundation.[36] Taking into account his personal philosophies and knowledge of other philanthropies that operated more as charitable corporations than personal benefactions, Rosenwald concluded that it was time to once again reorganize his foundation.

The transition from private to corporate giving officially went into effect on January 1, 1928, marked by the reorganization of the Fund.[37] Rosenwald felt that he needed to update the Fund's administrative structure in order to achieve a more vigorous application of aid on a wider

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[31] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools,* 10.
[32] *Ibid*.
[33] Embree, *Investment in the People*, 60.
[34] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools,* 3.
[35] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 322.
[36] Embree, *Investment in the People*, 29.
[37] *Ibid*.

scale and conform it to his idea of self-extinguishing philanthropy.[38] This restructuring had already begun in late 1927 when Rosenwald selected Edwin R. Embree, formerly of the Rockerfeller Foundation, as president of the Fund.[39] The two men quickly overhauled the foundation's policies and programs, creating an expanded board of trustees beyond Rosenwald's family members and hiring a full-time staff.[40]

Upon the reorganization of the Fund, Rosenwald created an opportunity to establish a philanthropic precedent. At the first meeting of the board of trustees of the newly restyled Fund, Rosenwald, as the chair of the board of trustees, gave another gift of 20,000 shares of Sears, Roebuck and Company stock to the Fund to stimulate its broader platform of African American and race-relations issues.[41] However, Rosenwald stipulated that in accepting his gift of 20,000 shares of Sears, Roebuck and Company stock, all of the Fund's assets must be spent and the Fund dissolved within twenty-five years of his death.[42] This stipulation guaranteed that the Rosenwald Fund would not become a perpetual endowment, an institution that Rosenwald adamantly opposed in several articles that discussed their drawbacks, including a widely noted piece in *Atlantic Monthly* from 1929 entitled "Principles of Public Giving."[43] The Rosenwald Fund now held more than 227,000 shares of Sears, Roebuck and Company stock with an estimated value of approximately forty million dollars.[44]

Embree's leadership of the Rosenwald Fund heralded an emphasis on social reform, shifting away from an exclusive focus on school building and broadening to instructional programming and economic issues. Up until this point, the rural school-building program had

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[38] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 126.
[39] *Ibid*.
[40] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 10-11.
[41] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 126.
[42] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 322.
[43] Grimm, *Notable American Philanthropists*, 278.
[44] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 334.

dominated the Fund's expenditures—with approximately eight-five percent of the 1927 budget dedicated to building rural schools.[45] The diversification of the Rosenwald Fund's giving included the entire field of African American education, medicine, school counseling, and public education in Mexico.[46]

During Embree's first year of leadership, the Rosenwald Fund staff supplemented the "Plan for Distribution of Aid" with additional grants, incentives, and policies to reflect the changes within the foundation. In order to gain tighter control over building-program finances, the distribution of working capital to the states ended.[47] However, the Fund offered permanent construction grants for brick or concrete schoolhouses; encouraged counties with an African American population of at least five percent (so-called "backward counties") to seek aid by offering a bonus of fifty percent over the standard grant for their first Rosenwald school; and created a short-lived urban industrial high school grant program that produced five high schools, including one in Columbus, Georgia.[48] The Fund also provided small subsidies to provide bus services for two-teacher or larger Rosenwald schools with terms of at least eight months and provide radios in the classrooms, which ultimately benefited the entire community.[49]

While the Rosenwald Fund offered larger amounts of aid for consolidated school buildings and subsidies to help black students receive a better education, they slowly phased out construction grants for smaller schoolhouses. The Rosenwald school-building program was no longer limited to small, rural communities; any African American community in the South could qualify for Rosenwald aid, which provided the Fund the opportunity to give aid to larger school

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[45] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 125.
[46] *Ibid*, 128.
[47] *Ibid*.
[48] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 128-133.
[49] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 10.

buildings and complexes.[50] The stock market crash of 1929 and the subsequent Great Depression accelerated the planned changes in the Fund. The Fund had already reduced the amount of money it would give for a one-teacher schoolhouse and soon after announced that it would no longer allow states to transfer unused money from other projects to construct one-teacher schools.[51] As the Depression wore on, the Rosenwald Fund's assets continually shrank and governments and communities did not have the extra funds for school-building projects. In 1930, aid for one-teacher schools was discontinued, with grants for two-teacher schoolhouses and for additions to existing Rosenwald schools ending a year later.[52] The elimination of these two programs reduced the school-building program by sixty percent.[53] The significant reduction in funding for the school-building program is best reflected in the 1931-1932 budget. The $142,000 that was originally earmarked for school construction was reduced to a mere $25,000 in order to put greater emphasis on "'work inside the schools."[54]

One way the Rosenwald Fund sought to accomplish this goal was by creating opportunities for African American teachers to gain further training. In conjunction with the Jeanes Fund and Slater Foundation—both rural education philanthropies, one committed to supporting rural teachers and the community and the other focused on the training of rural school teachers—the Rosenwald Fund aimed to improve the qualifications of African American teachers, to fund teaching schools in order to raise the training standards of teachers, and to extend the school term for African American schools.[55] In addition to providing financial support for teachers' training, the Rosenwald Fund also provided financial support to African American institutions of higher education. The Rosenwald Fund appropriated 1.25 million

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[50] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 136.
[51] *Ibid*.
[52] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 11.
[53] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 157.
[54] *Ibid*.
[55] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 336.

dollars to aid in the development of four university centers:[56] Howard University in Washington, D.C.; Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee; Dillard University in New Orleans, Louisiana; and the Confederated Institutions at Atlanta, which included Morehouse, Spelman College, Morris Brown, and Clark-Atlanta University.[57]

In 1932, the year of Rosenwald's death, it was announced that no further grants for the school-building program would be distributed and the program ended.[58] The decision to end the school-building program was primarily due to changing priorities centered on the desire to redirect resources to school instruction, higher education, public health, and building positive race relations. In addition, Embree believed it was necessary to wean Southern school boards from the Rosenwald Fund's aid so they did not become dependent upon the grants and shirk their responsibility to African American schools[59] and to stop the proliferation of small schools.[60] Although the school-building program officially ended in 1932, one final schoolhouse was constructed using funds from the Rosenwald Fund. Upon the behest of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, a schoolhouse was constructed in 1937 in Warm Springs, Georgia, where President Roosevelt had a vacation home.[61] By this time, the Rosenwald Fund had achieved the remarkable accomplishment of aiding the construction of over 5,000 schools in fifteen Southern states. On January 1, 1948, the Rosenwald Fund distributed the last of its grant monies and dissolved itself as its founder had intended.

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[56] *Ibid.*
[57] Embree, *Investment in the People*, 85-100.
[58] Werner, *Julius Rosenwald*, 334.
[59] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 11.
[60] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 157.
[61] Smith, *Builders of Goodwill*, 72-73.

CHAPTER 4

SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE AND ROSENWALD SCHOOLS

> Its style is nondescript, being too small for a barn; too deficient in the elements of just proportion for a dwelling, too lonely and too much neglect for the outbuilding of a farm, and in short, too repulsive in all respects, and exhibiting too many marks of the most parsiminous [sic] economy to be anything but a schoolhouse.[1]

The History of Rural Schoolhouse Architecture

Such was the state of rural schoolhouses in the mid-nineteenth century, as commented upon by James Johonnot, author of an 1859 architectural plan book for schools. Schoolhouses in the early 1800s—urban or rural, Northern or Southern—typically consisted of one room with one teacher responsible for the education of all the students, regardless of their age or education level. Although highly romanticized through film, novels, and paintings, the one-room schoolhouse was often "dirty, noisy, and ill suited to the process of education."[2]

As modest as these structures tended to be, early schoolhouses, particularly those in rural areas, were representative of the community, as well as the communal efforts of the people in the area that constructed the schoolhouse. In many communities, especially in the western United States, the schoolhouse was one of the first public buildings constructed.[3] Schoolhouses were the result of the entire community donating time, energy, resources, and skills in order to create a

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[1] Gulliford, *America's Country Schools*, 159.
[2] Ben E. Graves. *School Ways: The Planning and Design of America's Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1993), 22.
[3] Gulliford, *America's Country Schools*, 160.

building in which to teach the youth of the community. The effort put forth by the community and the feelings of accomplishment and pride which followed, established schoolhouses as the focal points of the community. Schoolhouses, along with churches, were the social centers of communities, serving functions from "accommodating town meetings to providing a place for holiday picnics."[4]

Schoolhouses were not merely representatives of a community's desire to educate their youth or a symbol of community pride. Early schoolhouse construction also represents the development of vernacular architecture, local building traditions, and available materials. The definition of vernacular is "characteristic of a period, place, or group."[5] The form of the vernacular schoolhouse was shaped by local traditions and embellished with details and decorative elements reflecting the knowledge of currents styles that filtered in from other places. In many cases, the schoolhouses were not only fashioned after regional vernacular building traditions, but also on a common cultural conception of how a schoolhouse should look.[6] These conceptions often translated into a hybrid between the form of a house and the design of a church. The size, scale, materials, and construction methods of rural schoolhouses often resembled houses or, in the worse cases, crude farm buildings. Design elements affixed to the schoolhouse such as separate entrances for boys and girls, a bell tower, and a gabled vestibule were usually most closely associated with churches.[7] The major factor limiting all of these aspects of schoolhouse design was money. Most communities, as mentioned previously, did not have much money to build the schoolhouse, and the labor and materials were all donated. The

[4] Graves, *School Ways*, 22.
[5] Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary (1986), s.v. "vernacular."
[6] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 164.
[7] *Ibid*, 159.

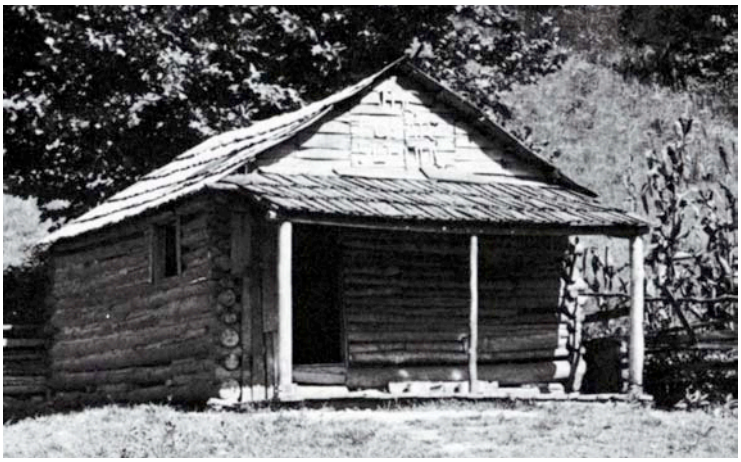

Figure 3. Examples of early rural schoolhouses in the South
Reprinted from Gulliford, *America's Country Schools*, 24-25, 178.

meager funds meant that the structures were often small, built of local materials ranging from lumber to stone to sod, and designed and built in the local tradition.

In general, schoolhouses constituted a distinctive type, despite the local building traditions, notions as to what a schoolhouse should be, or materials used. The rural schoolhouse is one instance in which form truly followed function: small utilitarian designs built with inexpensive materials to shelter small groups of children brought together to get an education.[8] The fairly standardized building type allows for easy recognition of the rural schoolhouse, even when its exterior personae resembles that of a church or outbuilding.

The shape of the rural schoolhouse was kept fairly simple. Consisting primarily of only one or two rooms, the schoolhouse was usually either rectangular or square. One determinant of the size of a schoolhouse was the carrying distance of the human voice. Even vernacular builders realized that the need for the teacher to be clearly heard by students and for students to be clearly heard by the teacher would place limitations on the size of the schoolhouse. Therefore, early rural schoolhouses were no larger than thirty by forty feet.[9] The roofs of earlier schoolhouses typically were gabled, however, hipped roofs became more common later on once recommended by plan books. In order to light the classroom, the schoolhouse had three to four small, widely spaced double-hung sash windows located on one or both of the long sides of the schoolhouse. There was usually one entrance on the shorter side of the building; however, some schoolhouses had two entrances, one for girls and one for boys, which was a carryover from religious prototypes.[10] Another common element most associated with rural schoolhouses is the bell tower. The bell tower, often the only ornamentation on the schoolhouse, quickly became the

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[8] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 172.
[9] *Ibid.*
[10] *Ibid.*

status symbol for many school districts.[11] Not only did the bell tower serve a decorative purpose, it also served a practical purpose, signaling the beginning and the ending of the school day. The bell also was used as a communication tool for the community. It was rung to relay emergency messages to the community, such as a fire or a hurt or lost community member, as well as mark holidays such as Christmas Day.[12] Additional common features of the rural schoolhouse include locations at a higher elevation, separate outhouses for boys and girls, and grassy, fenced schoolyards.[13]

As with the exterior of the rural schoolhouse, the quantity and quality of the interior furnishings depended on the school district's desire and ability to fund the school. The quality of the furnishings and other supplies varied greatly. For example, desks ranged from crude, wooden benches to mass-produced desk and chair combinations.[14] Although the interior furnishings of the schoolhouse varied, the interior of the schoolhouse itself was fairly uniform and plain. The floors were usually hardwood and the walls typically had dark wainscoting stretching half way up the wall from the floor.[15] Schoolhouses were heated, where the climate required it, by either a fireplace or a pot-bellied stove in the center of the room. Like the buildings themselves, the furnishings and the interiors of the rural schoolhouse remained eclectic until the push for standardization and major school reforms during the early twentieth century.

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[11] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office. *National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form for Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971*, Atlanta, 2005, 20.
[12] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 174.
[13] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia,* 20.
[14] *Ibid.*
[15] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 188.

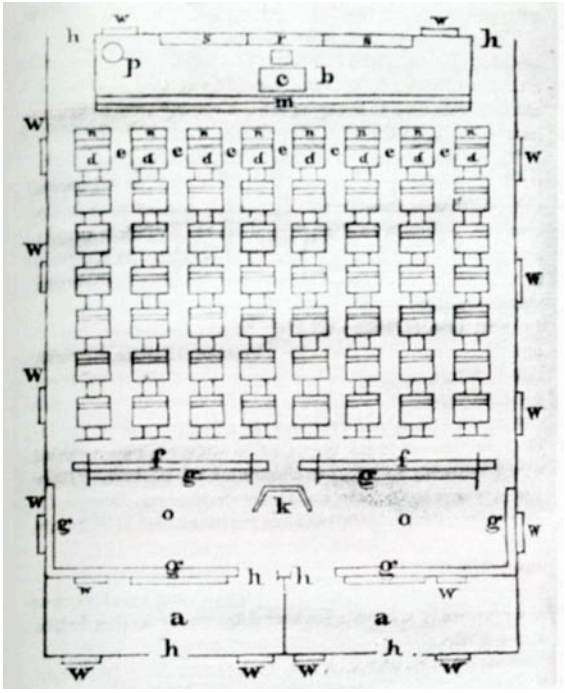

Figure 4. Floor plan showing suggested furniture arrangement, by Alcott
Reprinted from Gulliford, *America's Country Schools,* 167.

By the early nineteenth century, however, education started its "transformation from an informal, unregulated activity into a systematic, well-organized enterprise."[16] Upon the realization of the need for a reliable system of education, reformers, schoolteachers, architects, and government education departments attempted to standardize school design; not only to have more respectable schoolhouses but for—in theory—better education in both rural and urban communities. As early as 1831, architectural publications discussed schoolhouse architecture and held contests in order to find the best new ideas for schoolhouse design. William A. Alcott, a schoolmaster, won a contest held by the American Institute of Instruction for his essay on the design of schoolhouses. The article, which was published in 1832 and reflected improvements

[16] William W. Cutler, III, "Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice since 1820," *History of Education Quarterly* 29, no. 1 (1989): 2.

made in Alcott's own school, addressed elements of schoolhouse design such as desk arrangement to allow circulation through the room for the teacher and students, and windows for proper lighting and ventilation as well as suggestions including desks with backs and outdoor space for fresh air and recess.[17] Alcott's recommended architectural style for schoolhouses, Greek Revival, was not adopted for many rural schools; however, his suggestions for the interior arrangement were adopted.

Probably the one man who had the most enduring influence on schoolhouse design was Henry Barnard. Having served as the state superintendent of education in Rhode Island and Connecticut, as the United States Commissioner of Education, and as the editor of the *American Journal of Education*, Barnard had extensive experience in the field of education.[18] In 1838, Barnard's treatise *School Architecture* was first published. In this work, Barnard combined the architectural plans and designs of a pattern book with his sweeping knowledge of education in order to define the schoolhouse in the United States and initiate the idea of a connection between a well-built schoolhouse and an enhanced educational experience.[19] *School Architecture* is such a timely work that it was republished as recently as 1970.[20] In *School Architecture*, Barnard presents plans for schoolhouses in the latest architectural styles as well as addressing the exteriors, interiors, yards, equipment, and furniture.

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[17] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 167.
[18] *Ibid.*
[19] Cutler, "Cathedral of Culture," 6.
[20] *Ibid.*

Barnard believed that the style of the exterior of a schoolhouse was as important as the arrangement of the interior. According to Barnard, the style of a schoolhouse should

> exhibit good, architectural proportion, and be calculated to inspire children and the community generally with respect for the object to which it is devoted. It should bear a favorable comparison, in respect to attractiveness, convenience, and durability, with other public edifices, instead of standing in repulsive and disgraceful contrast with them.[21]

In order to inspire students to learn, Barnard favored the Greek Revival style for schoolhouses. He was convinced that

> every schoolhouse should be a temple, consecrated in prayer to the physical, intellectual, and moral culture of every child in the community, and be associated in every heart with the earliest and strongest impressions of truth, justice, patriotism, and religion.[22]

Although Barnard primarily designed schools in the Greek Revival style, he also designed schoolhouses in the simpler Gothic Revival style. Barnard's style of choice for schoolhouse exteriors—however genuine his aim—was too expensive and impractical for most rural school districts to build. A rural school district could little afford to build a simple structure for learning, let alone adorn it with full height Doric columns or a dome.

Barnard attempted to improve schools not only by standardizing the exterior, but also by paying attention to the interior space as well.[23] A schoolhouse should have separate entrances for boys and girls and rooms large enough to allow each student at least 150 cubic feet of pure

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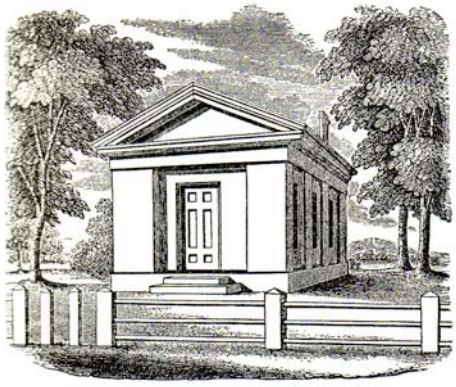
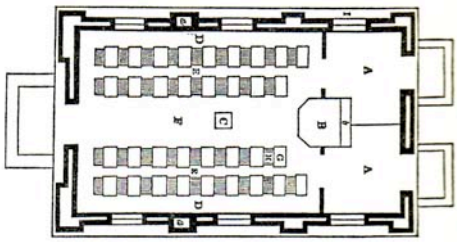
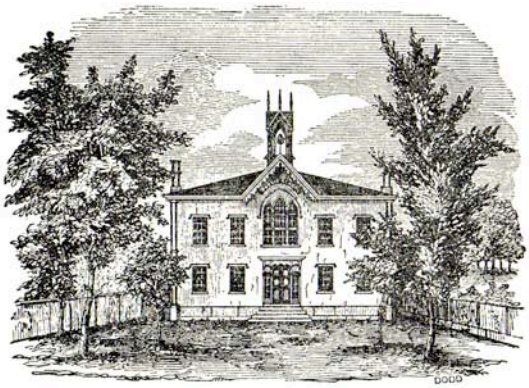
[21] Henry Barnard. *School Architecture; or Contributions to the Improvement of Schoolhouses in the United States* (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1848; reprint, New York: Teachers College Press, 1970), 55. (page citations are to the reprint edition).

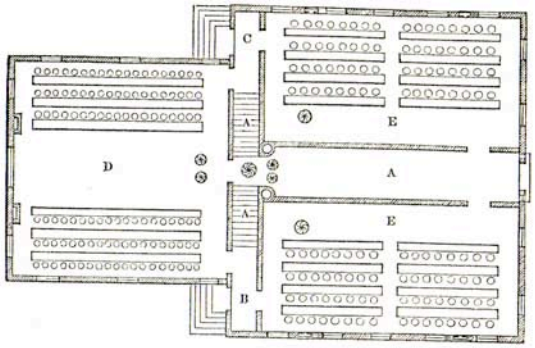
[22] *Ibid*.

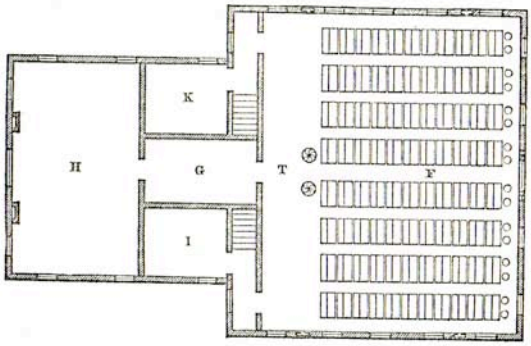
[23] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 168.











A—Entrance to High School. *B*—Entrance for Boys to the Primary and Intermediate Schools. *C*—Entrance for Girls to the Primary and Intermediate Schools. *D*—School-room, 30 feet by 24, for Primary School. *E,E*—School-room, 40 feet by 16, for Intermediate Schools. *F*—School-room, 40 feet by 40, for High School. *G*—Room for Apparatus, &c. *H*—Recitation room to High School, 20 feet by 16. *I*—*K*—Entrance room, one for Boys and the other for Girls, fitted up with hooks, shelves, wash-stand, &c. *T*—Teacher's desk without any platform.

Figure 5. Greek Revival (above) and Gothic Revival (below) school designs by Barnard Reprinted from Barnard, *School Architecture*, 120-121, 148-149.

air and movement to and from the student's seat without disturbing anyone. The space should allow enough space for the student to sit comfortably and engage in his or her studies while allowing the teacher to easily move about the room and supervise the students.[24]

In order to avoid the inconvenience and danger of excessive light, glare, or cross-light, Barnard suggested a dome, skylights, or clearstory windows in order to distribute light most steadily and evenly.[25] However, since these types of lighting were expensive and difficult to install, regular double hung sash windows along two exterior walls would suffice. These windows should be approximately three-and-a-half to four feet from the floor—to prevent distractions—and no windows should be placed behind the teacher nor on the side toward which the students face.[26]

Proper ventilation was equally as important as proper lighting. Not only is an efficient ventilation system essential for good health, it also, according to Barnard, creates a more conducive learning environment. By constructing one or more openings at both the top and the bottom of the room solely for the purpose of ventilation, a natural ventilation system is created as well as a more rapid and uniform diffusion of heat.[27] A regulated room temperature is also beneficial for one's health and leads to a more successful learning environment.[28]

Barnard not only dictated architectural styles and construction specifications for schoolhouses, he also addressed details such as the seats and desks the students should use and the arrangement of the furniture within the schoolhouse. The desks and seats should be proportioned for younger students, easy to access, and adaptable for all purposes for which they

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[24] Barnard, 56.
[25] *Ibid*, 56-57.
[26] *Ibid*, 57.
[27] *Ibid*, 64.
[28] *Ibid*, 65.

would be used.[29] The ideal school desk should be at least "two feet long by eighteen inches wide, with a shelf beneath for books, and an opening in the backside to receive a slate."[30] The ideal arrangement for the furniture within the schoolhouse, in Barnard's opinion, is a gallery arrangement that provides economical arrangement of space, freedom of movement, and easement of learning.[31] This arrangement also allowed the teacher to view the entire classroom, address the entire class at once, and easily approach students while seated at their desks. In order to further aid in the teacher's supervision of the class, Barnard recommends that the teacher's desk and chair be located at the front of the room on a raised platform with enough space for books and other necessary materials.[32]

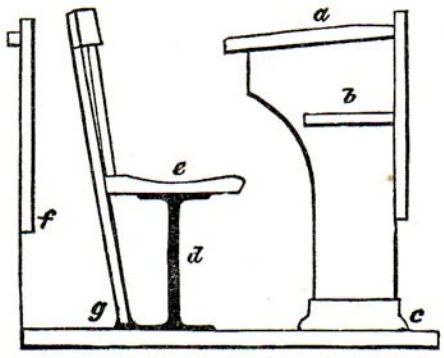

Figure 6. Section of a writing desk and seat recommended by Barnard
Reprinted from Barnard, *School Architecture*, 160.

Finally, Barnard believed that the outside environment of the schoolhouse was equally as important to the learning process as the interior. The schoolhouse should be located on a "dry, healthy, and pleasant site, but be surrounded by a yard of never less than half an acre, protected

[29] *Ibid*, 69.
[30] *Ibid*.
[31] *Ibid*, 72-73.
[32] *Ibid*.

by a neat and substantial inclosure."[33] The space, which was to be divided into separate spaces for boys and girls, needed to be large enough to provide room for various recreation activities and landscaped with trees such as oaks, elms, and maples.[34]

Barnard's recommendations, in all their intricacies, did not initially alter the design of most rural schools. However, during school standardization in the early-twentieth century, his relentless efforts for education reform were eventually incorporated into state and federal laws, school designs, and plan books.

While several individuals, embracing Barnard's ideal of better schools for better education, published rural school pattern books, one architect of note to produce a handbook of schoolhouse design was James Johonnot.[35] A contemporary of Barnard, Johonnot incorporated designs and elements from previous plan books. However, Johonnot was cognizant of the differing needs of rural and urban schools. He realized that "'the principles developed in city architecture are not applicable to the wants of the smaller district schools.'"[36] Johonnot felt that the Greek Revival and Gothic Revival styles suggested by Barnard would need to be scaled down if the styles were to be applied to the smaller rural school, if they were applied at all. Johonnot disdained such wasteful elaborations which he thought more suitable "to the gods than to children" and went so far as to say that their:

> introduction into school-house architecture was unfortunate, and we trust the time is not far distant when they will fall into disuse . . . A diminutive structure can never call up the emotion of the sublime; and . . . when the Greek forms are used . . . in small buildings, the old maxim is illustrated, that 'there is but a step from the sublime to the ridiculous.[37]

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[33] *Ibid*. 80.
[34] *Ibid*.
[35] Cutler, "Cathedral of Culture," 6.
[36] Gulliford, *America's Country Schools*, 168.
[37] *Ibid*, 170.

Johonnot was able to take advantage of the growing desire throughout the country to improve local schoolhouses and their furnishings. Noting the developing commercial market for schoolhouses and school furnishings, Johonnot's second volume of plans was published in 1871 by a furniture dealer, J.W. Schermerhorn.[38] The designs in the second volume did not vary greatly from the first—the second volume of plans did indicate greater window area and included a Renaissance Revival school.

At the end of the 1800s, educators desired more control over school planning and construction than ever before. Under the belief that improving America's schools required more than a recognition of the problem, educators felt their insider expertise could resolve such issues plaguing the country's schools.[39] Educators striving for recognition and respect, combined with the apparent relevance of school design on learning, made school design seem well suited to centralization and professional control. Schoolhouse architecture seemed to be a natural candidate for expert planning and oversight, and a corps of school architecture specialists emerged by the turn of the twentieth century.[40]

The emergence of school architecture specialists coincided with the development of the Progressive Era and its mandates of social reform. Naturally, the realm of education was not excluded from Progressive reforms, whose ultimate desire was to standardize education and make it more efficient. From Progressive era principles and the growing specialization of school design, influenced by Barnard's ideals of better school buildings, arose Progressive school design. The hallmarks of Progressive school design include maximally efficient lighting, heating and cooling systems to provide a comfortable temperature for the teacher and students, and appropriate furnishings and supplies. The schools were to be models of hygiene and provide

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[38] *Ibid.*
[39] Cutler, "Cathedral of Culture," 7.
[40] *Ibid,* 8.

clean running water and sanitary bathrooms. In addition, efficiency dominated the overall school design. Progressive educators and designers "invoked a functionalist aesthetic that rendered modernity and progress in light, airy, and hygienic classrooms arranged within simple, symmetrical floor plans and facades."[41] The schoolhouse was elevated above the simple role as a structure in which to learn; it was also representative of the enterprise and culture of a community and its commitment to its children.

By the second decade of the twentieth century, the standardization of schools was a well-established practice. Through state laws, plan books, and directives from state and federal education departments, the standardization process was promoted and carried out.[42] Plan books issued by state and federal educators replaced the commercial ones so prevalent in the late nineteenth century. Model schoolhouse designs were found in publications such as S.A. Challman's *The Rural School Plant* and in bulletins from the United States Office of Education written by Fletcher B. Dresslar between 1914 and 1930.[43] The model schoolhouse design did not differ drastically from vernacular structures; cloakrooms, separate entrances for boys and girls, hipped or gable roofs, and an appearance that still resembled a house. Improvements were made in the areas of lighting, ventilation, and heating. Additionally, separate classrooms for domestic training and technical training were included in the design. Rural schoolhouse standardization ended the construction of vernacular schoolhouses and with it, the individuality and expression of the community. In exchange, rural communities were ensured that their students have the opportunity "to attend school under hygienic conditions, have sufficient books and supplies, and learn from a qualified teacher."[44]

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[41] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 54.
[42] Gulliford, *America's Coutnry Schools*, 193.
[43] *Ibid.*
[44] *Ibid*, 194.

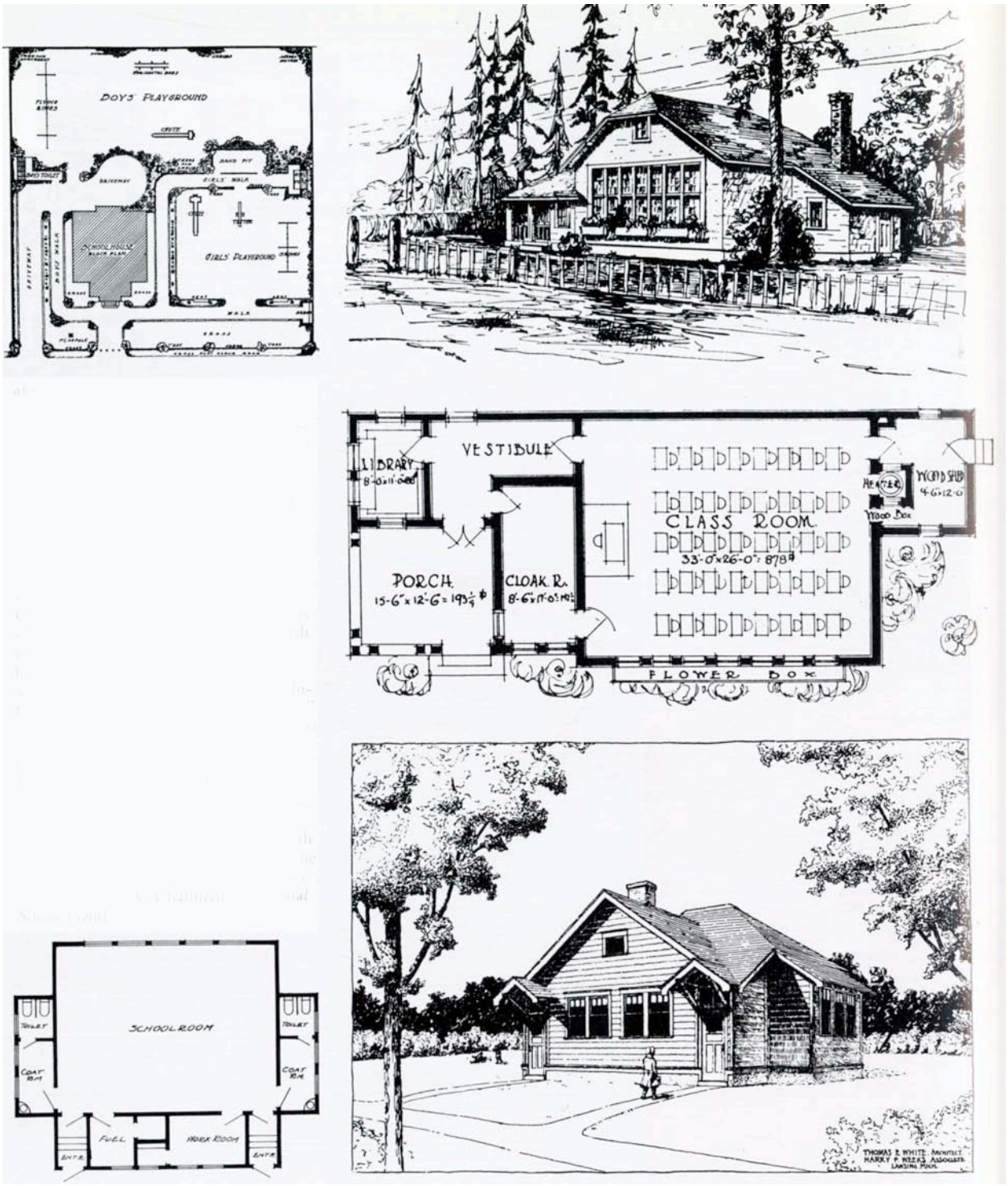

Figure 7. Examples of standardized rural schools by Challman
Reprinted from Gulliford, *America's Country Schools*, 226.

Rosenwald School Architecture

The South had difficulty providing school facilities comparable to those in other regions of the country. In the early-twentieth century, the South had only half as much per capita wealth as the rest of the nation and one-third more children per hundred thousand than the average for the nation, coupled with the problem of providing a dual system of education in every county and community.[45] The racial gap in public expenditures on education grew during the first decade of the twentieth century, as funds were funneled away from black education to help provide better universal schooling for southern white children.[46] On average, twice as much was spent on the education of white children as on African American children. For example, in Georgia, less than ten percent of the total allocation for public school buildings, equipment, and library maintenance was spent on African American schools.[47] These discrepancies were visually apparent in the condition of rural African American schoolhouses. The African American community typically had to hold classes in small, dilapidated structures, such as one-room log cabins, sheds, or shelters for livestock.[48] In other communities, private buildings such as churches and Masonic halls were put to use as schools when not accommodating their intended groups.[49] Several black communities did not even have access to a structure in which to hold classes and had to hold classes outdoors during fair weather.[50] The schoolhouses lacked standard amenities such as adequate lighting, heating, toilets, and washing facilities.[51] Even standard items, such as desks, benches, and supplies, were makeshift and difficult to obtain.

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[45] Virgie Alcorn, "Rosenwald Schools," *CEFP Journal* July-August (1986): 4.
[46] National Park Service, "Statement of Historic Context," 35.
[47] *Ibid.*
[48] Gulliford, *America's Country Schools*, 103.
[49] Adam Fairclough, "'Being in the Field of Education and Also Being a Negro . . . Seems. . . Tragic': Black Teachers in the Jim Crow South," *The Journal of American History* 87, issue 1 (2000), available from http://www.historycooperative.org/journals/jah/87.1/fairclough.html; Internet; accessed 11 January 2006.
[50] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 50.
[51] Fairclough, "'Being in the Field of Education and Also Being a Negro . . .'"

One of Booker T. Washington's, and ultimately Rosenwald's, goals in the creation and establishment of the school-building program was to provide African American children with safe, purpose-built schoolhouses.[52] Therefore, the schoolhouses themselves became one of the many innovative features of the Rosenwald program. The Rosenwald school architects applied Progressive architectural theories and principles to their rural school designs. The Progressive school architectural principles incorporated new ideas about pedagogy and health in order to develop new standards of lighting, ventilation, heating, sanitation, instructional needs, and aesthetics in order to create a positive, orderly, and healthy environment for learning.[53] The Rosenwald school-building program created schoolhouse designs that served as models for all rural schools and, as a result, became a major force in rural school design.[54] The schools were built according to innovative, yet standardized architectural plans that incorporated the Progressive ideas in layout, furnishings, and sanitation facilities. Additionally, in order to provide space for industrial education for boys and girls, the schoolhouses were equipped with kitchens and industrial shops and included space on the grounds for ball fields and gardens.[55]

During the early years of the Rosenwald school-building program, Clinton J. Calloway and his staff ran the school-building program out of Tuskegee Institute. Calloway and members of the mechanical industries and architecture programs developed the initial Rosenwald schoolhouse plans, which appeared in Tuskegee Institute's 1915 publication entitled *The Negro Rural School and Its Relationship to the Community.*[56] It is clear from the designs that the

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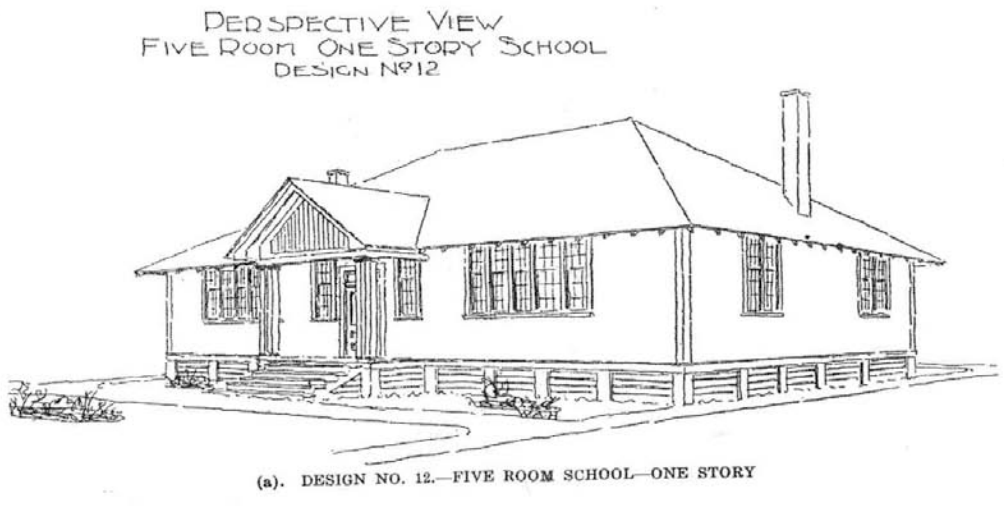
[52] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 2.
[53] National Trust for Historic Preservation, "Rosenwald School Buildings"; available from http://www.rosenwaldschools.com; Internet; accessed 15 September 2004.
[54] *Ibid.*
[55] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 52.
[56] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 3.



(a). DESIGN NO. 12.—FIVE ROOM SCHOOL—ONE STORY

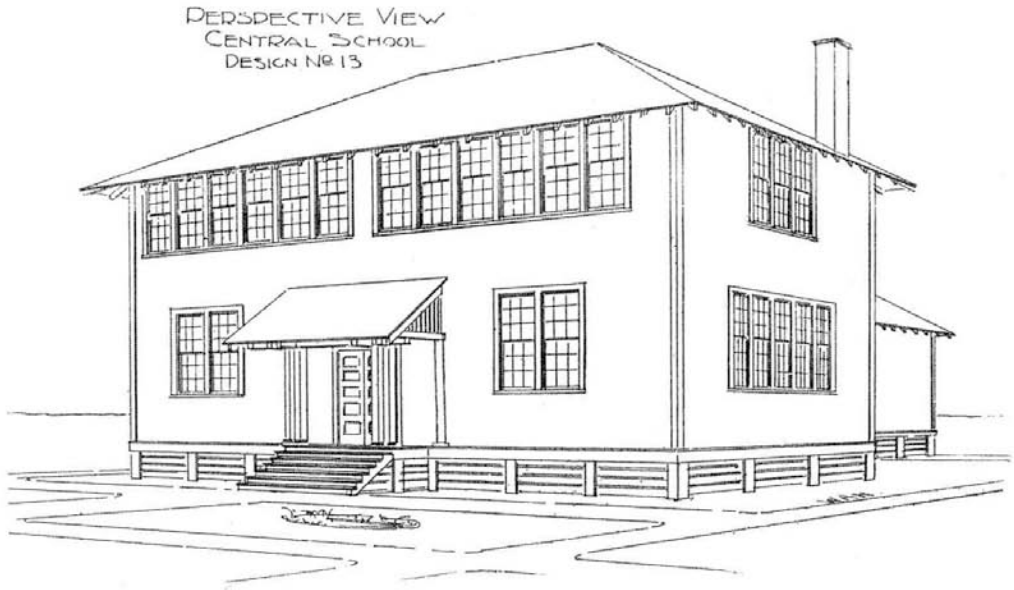


Figure 8. Tuskegee Designs Numbers 12 and 13
Reprinted from Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 60.

authors followed the Progressive ideals of school design, which emanated from departments of education and schoolhouse architects. The publication featured three building types: a one-teacher school, a central or consolidated school, and a county training school. Although only three general types of schoolhouses were available, each schoolhouse had multiple designs. For example, Tuskegee Design No. 12 was for a one-story school and consisted of two classrooms along the front separated by a large central hallway in the middle and three rooms across the rear of the schoolhouse. It was lit by batteries of windows across the front and rear elevations.[57] The three general types do have similar architectural details and amenities. Overall, all three types of school buildings feature hipped or clipped-gable rooflines and central entrances protected by projecting gable or shed porch roofs. Batteries of windows consisting of five to seven double-hung sash windows provide the main light source for the classrooms, while pairs of double-hung sash windows pierce the other sides of the school building as well. Since the Rosenwald school-building program emphasized the benefits of an industrial education, as found at Tuskegee Institute, the plans included rooms for instruction in such curriculum. The space provided was usually a smaller classroom within the schoolhouse for girls' domestic science work and a separate structure for boys' vocational work.[58]

There are several aspects introduced in the Tuskegee Institute's Rosenwald school plans that remained components of later Rosenwald school design. Two of utmost concern were lighting and ventilation—also two critical aspects of Progressive school design. The Tuskegee Institute's plans addressed these issues by grouping windows into "batteries" in order to maximize natural light inside the building, and by raising the schoolhouse up on short piers in

[57] *Ibid*, 4.
[58] National Trust, "Rosenwald School Buildings".

order to provide better ventilation and moisture control.[59] An additional aspect of Progressive educational theory addressed by the Tuskegee Institute's plans was the notion that schools should serve as community centers and that small rural schools should be consolidated into larger facilities, not only to support an expanded curriculum, but to also create a sense of community between neighboring school districts.[60] The notion of the school as a community center was expressed in the schoolhouse design through the integration of learning and meeting space. This translated into folding or sliding partitions between classrooms in smaller schoolhouses and modest auditoriums in larger ones, providing a large, open space for special events and community meetings as well as space for future additions to the schoolhouse.[61] Lastly, the method of classification of the different sizes of Rosenwald schools remained consistent throughout the history of the program. The Rosenwald school-building program classified its schoolhouses by the number of teachers, not rooms, in order to emphasize that the schools provided classrooms, workrooms, cloakrooms, and even auditoriums and offices in the larger schools. For example, the one-teacher schoolhouse was the smallest design, but it was not a one-room school for it included a classroom, an industrial classroom, a kitchen, a library, and cloakrooms.[62]

By 1919, the organized expansion of the school-building program two years prior had already begun to overwhelm the small staff at Tuskegee Institute. The Rosenwald Fund undertook a review of the program's operations and hired Fletcher B. Dresslar, professor of school hygiene and architecture at Nashville's Peabody College for Teachers, to assess Tuskegee

[59] *Ibid.*
[60] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 4.
[61] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 52.
[62] National Trust, "Rosenwald School Buildings."

Institute's architectural plans and the constructed schoolhouses.[63] Dresslar was a pioneer of Progressive school design and school hygiene and one of only a handful of educational professionals committed to rural schoolhouse design. His resume included authorship of two bulletins on rural school design for the United States Bureau of Education and a publication on school hygiene. Dresslar harshly criticized the structures he inspected for his 1920 *Report on the Rosenwald School Buildings*[64] and recommended increasing on-site supervision and requiring complete adherence to the design plans as a condition of financial assistance as well as new architectural plans which would address his concerns for lighting and ventilation and would better allow for an auditorium and future classroom additions.[65]

Dresslar's critique prompted not only a change in the organization of the building program and its relocation to Nashville, but also the modification of the schoolhouse plans. Dresslar and Samuel L. Smith, the new building program director and former student of Dresslar, prepared plans that would become the archetypal Rosenwald schools of the 1920s and early 1930s. Dresslar and Smith derived the designs from a variety of sources: existing Tuskegee Institute designs; contemporary school designs from white rural schools; and designs Dresslar and Smith had previously collaborated on for the Tennessee Department of Education.[66] In reworking the Tuskegee Institute schoolhouse designs, some of the features were eliminated. For example, gable roofs replaced hipped and clipped-gable roofs and all the schoolhouses were designed as one-story structures.[67]

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[63] Smith, *Builders of Goodwill*, 66.
[64] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 75.
[65] *Ibid.*
[66] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 5.
[67] National Trust, "Rosenwald School Buildings."

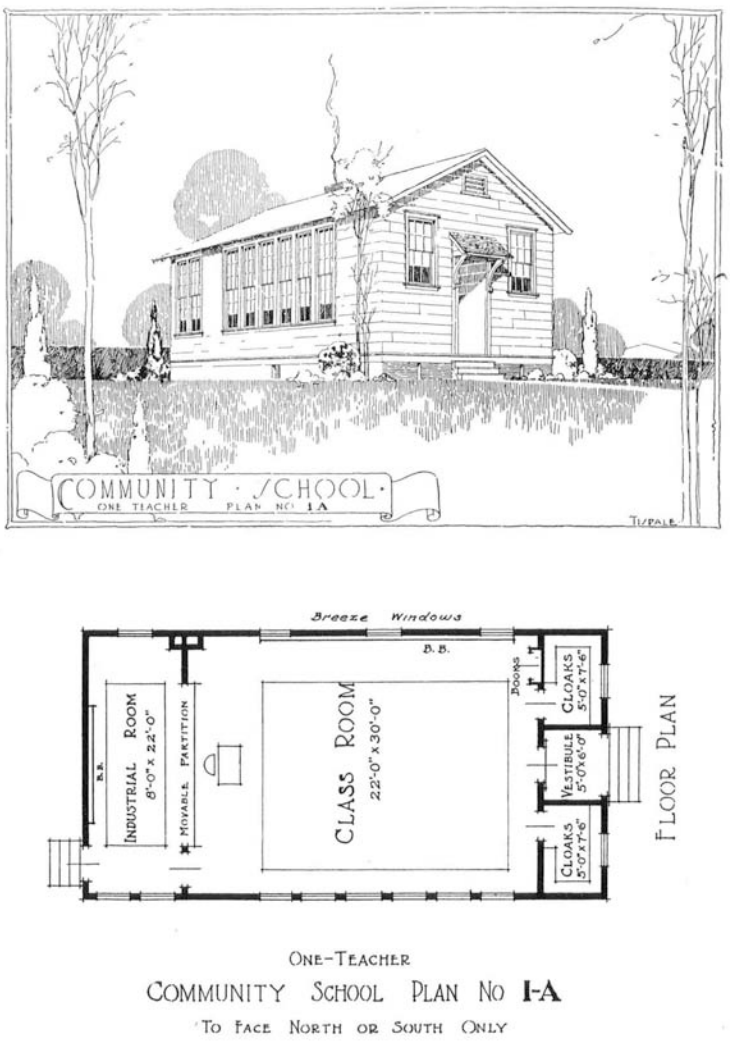

Figure 9. One-Teacher Community School Plan
Reprinted from Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 98.

Dresslar's and Smith's designs were compiled to create *Community School Plans*, a publication issued regularly by the Rosenwald Fund from 1924 until the 1940s.[68] *Community School Plans* became the Bible of the Rosenwald school-building program. It outlined the strict architectural standards required by the Fund. Every detail was addressed, from the size of the

[68] The Julius Rosenwald Fund, "Community School Plans"; available from http://www.rosenwaldschoolplans.org; Internet; accessed 15 September 2004.

schoolhouse's lot and the orientation of the schoolhouse to the interior arrangements and type and quality of the building materials used. Perfecting lighting and ventilation, for example, were of special concern. Windows were located on one side of the classroom in order to reduce eyestrain, and to maximize the amount of light entering the classroom narrow muntins and window frames was used and windows stretched from the cap of the wainscoting to the eaves.[69] Breeze, or clearstory, windows placed high under the eaves or on interior walls provided cross ventilation by pulling air from the windows across the room and hallways or adjacent classrooms.[70] Additionally, types, colors, and placement of window shades were recommended in order to properly adjust light levels while maintaining adequate ventilation.[71] Light tan window shades were suggested to help control light levels, with the recommendation to leave between ten and twelve inches of the top of the window unobstructed so the students on the dark side of the classroom could receive adequate light. Recommended interior paint schemes employed bands of color to accentuate the effect of the battery of windows on light levels and students' vision. Typically, walnut or oak stained wainscot ran along the lower section of classroom walls, surmounted by gray or buff painted walls and light cream or ivory ceilings.[72] The resulting bands of color reflected and intensified light while minimizing the glare at desk level.

Other interior elements of the Rosenwald Schools were just as carefully planned and arranged. Removable blackboards and sliding partitions, an almost universal feature in the two- and three-room Rosenwald schools, opened up the interiors and created space for church

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[69] Tom Hanchett, "Saving the South's Rosenwald Schools," available from http://www.rosenwaldschools.com/history;Internet;accessed September 15,2004.
[70] National Trust, "Rosenwald School Buildings."
[71] The Julius Rosenwald Fund,"Community School Plans."
[72] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 5.

programs, public meetings, and community functions.[73] In order to create a proficient learning environment, Dresslar and Smith also specified classroom furnishings and equipment such as the installation of blackboards on three walls for use by the teachers for instruction and the students for practice assignments.[74] The Fund also stipulated that modern patent desks (standard-issue school desks) be used in place of the typical rough wooden pews and benches often found in African American schools. While African American community members often found it difficult and unnecessary to pay for these desks and white school officials would have preferred to use the old furnishings from white schools, the Rosenwald Fund refused to make final payments on the schoolhouse until it met its standards, inside and out.[75]

As for the exterior of the schoolhouses, the Fund also had a series of suggestions for the facades and grounds. In general, the schools built according to the community school plans are as simple as possible. The exterior embellishments were limited to merely the suggestion of the Mission or Colonial Revival styles, both popular in the early twentieth century.[76] Not only was simplicity a key progressive design concept "denoting order, rationality, and functionalism," it also made the buildings affordable yet modern in appearance.[77] Neutral color schemes were selected for the modest schoolhouse exteriors. School facades, particularly early in the school building program, were painted a nut brown or "bungalow" stain with white trim; however, white with gray trim and light gray with white trim were also recommended.[78] As for the school

[73] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 52.
[74] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 6.
[75] National Trust, "Rosenwald School Buildings."
[76] Hoffschwelle, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools," 6.
[77] *Ibid*.
[78] The Julius Rosenwald Fund, "Community School Plans."

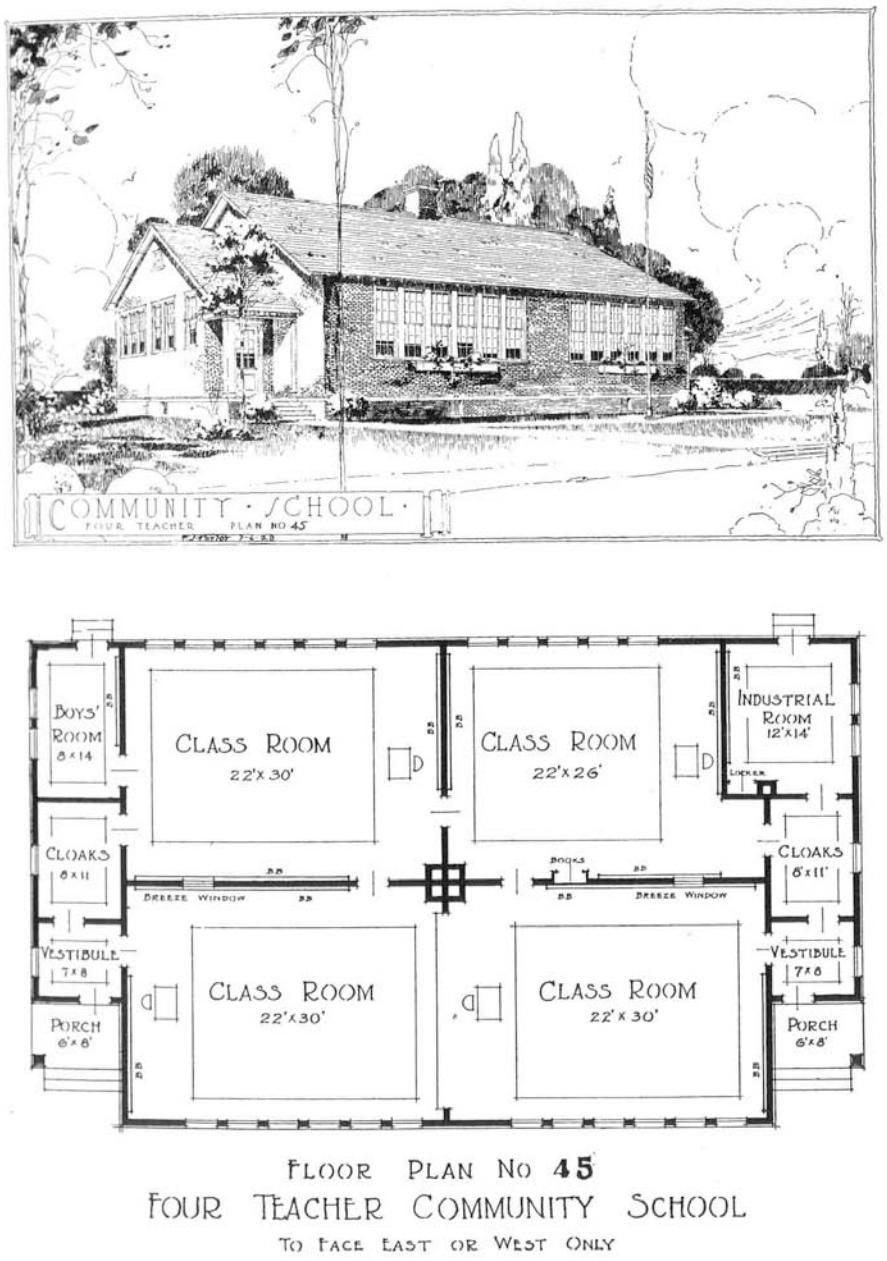

Figure 10. Four-Teacher Community School Plan
Reprinted from Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 107.

grounds, the Fund recommended a minimum of two acres for the school site in order to provide space for the schoolhouse and its ancillary buildings, such as wells, privies, teachers' homes, and workshops.[79] However, the site also needed ample space for a playground and/or ball field, practice gardens, and farm plots. The initial Tuskegee Negro Rural School Publication recommended flowering plants, fences, and lawns to beautify the school grounds in addition to an agricultural demonstration plot. *Community School Plans* went one step further and outlined standards and recommendations for walkways, lawns, shrubs, and trees. For example, in the section "Suggestions for Beautifying School Grounds," it is recommended that longer walkways "should have gentle, graceful curves" and that shrubs should be "planted at the angles suiting the shrubs to the places."[80]

The detailed specifications of the Rosenwald Fund for its schoolhouses reflects Rosenwald's personality: his desire to help the African American community improve their level and quality of education combined with his innate sense for efficient management and good planning. Each year Rosenwald would inquire if the quality of the construction of the schoolhouses was improving, and each year he was pleased to learn that the Rosenwald school was usually the first modern rural school in the county.[81] Typically, when the first modern Rosenwald school was built for the African American community, the white community would become dissatisfied with their older schoolhouse and demand the county build them a modern rural schoolhouse as well.[82] By making their plans available to all communities—black and white—the Rosenwald Fund drew attention to the development of rural school architecture and

[79] Diane Granat, "More Than Blue Skies," 36.
[80] The Julius Rosenwald Fund, "Community School Plans."
[81] Smith, *Builders of Goodwill*, 69.
[82] *Ibid*.

exercised greater influence on the planning and design of these buildings than any other organization.[83]

[83] Francis R. Sherer, "Trends in School Architecture and Design. Current Developments," *Review of Educational Research* 12 no. 2 (April 1942), 179.

CHAPTER 5

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA

Of the 5,358 modern, rural black schools built with aid from the Rosenwald Fund, 242 were built in the state of Georgia between 1915 and 1937 (see Appendix A).[1] Many of the school properties included auxiliary structures, such as teacher's homes and industrial education buildings or workshops. As of present, forty-three schools, teacher's homes, and/or workshops are extant in the state of Georgia, with eight of the forty-three structures listed in the National Register of Historic Places (see Table 1). Unfortunately, almost as many—forty-one—are no longer extant. As more schools are identified across the state, communities are learning of the importance of their schoolhouse on a national level and rediscovering the importance of its the role within the community. The following are three successful examples of Rosenwald schools in Georgia that have been restored and have a new part to play in the community: the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center; the Hiram Colored Schools; and the T.J. Elder Community Center. In addition to their successful preservation and reuse, These three schools were selected as case studies, in part, due to the different geographic regions within Georgia in which they serve and the varying population size and type of each community. The T. J. Elder Community Center represents a large County Training School with a more urban setting while the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center and the Hiram Colored School served a smaller, rural community. The schools are also excellent examples of their type, each exhibiting a different plan and use of

[1] Smith, *Builders of Goodwill*, 68.

various construction materials. Finally, the three schools illustrate the preservation of a Rosenwald school and the variety of challenges and issues involved. While the results were positive in each instance, the individuals involved sought out and used the tools available—as well as their own ingenuity and hard work—to return their schools, once again, to a point of pride for the community.

Table 1. Extant Rosenwald Schools in Georgia

County	Name(s) of School	Type	Year of Construction
Banks	Homer	2-Teacher	1916
Bartow	Cassville/Noble Hill-Wheeler*	2-Teacher	1923
Ben Hill	County Training School/Fitzgerald	7-Teacher	1925-26
Bleckley	Cochran	3-Teacher	1930
Brooks	Crossroads	2-Teacher	1927
Brooks	Grooverville	2-Teacher	---
Camden	Kinlaw	3-Teacher	---
Campbell**	Poplar Spring	1-Teacher	---
Chatham	Practical Georgia A&M /Thunderbolt/Powell Laboratory	3-Teacher	1925-26
Chattahoochee	Cusseta	2-Teacher	1930
Chattahoochee	Friendship	2-Teacher	1930
Clarke	Clarke Training School #2	5-Teacher	1925-26
Cobb	Acworth	2-Teacher	---
Coweta	Turin/Walter B. Hill Industrial School	3-Teacher	1925-26
Dooly	County Training School/Vienna	7-Teacher	1925-26
Emanuel	Summertown	3-Teacher	---
Emanuel	Swainsboro	4-Teacher	---
Emanuel	Summitt #1	3-Teacher	---
Emanuel	Summitt #2	---	---
Glynn	County Training School/Risley High School*	10-Teacher	1922
Hancock	Sparta/Agricultural & Industrial School	5-Teacher	---
Hancock	East End/Sparta	4-Teacher	1930
Jeff Davis	Hazlehurst	2-Teacher	1925-26
Jefferson	County Training School/Louisville	4-Teacher	1928
Johnson	Dock Kemp	4-Teacher	---
Lamar	Sugar Hill	2-Teacher	1925-26
Lee	Smithville	4-Teacher	1929
Lowndes	Valdosta High School/Dasher*	8-Teacher	1929
Lowndes	Mount Zion	7-Teacher	---
McIntosh	Sapelo*	2-Teacher	1927
Meriwether	Eleanor Roosevelt/Warm Springs	6-Teacher	1936
Meriwether	County Training School/Manchester	5-Teacher	1928
Mitchell	Camilla/Old Rockdale	6-Teacher	1930-31
Monroe	Forsyth A&M/Forsyth Normal & Industrial School*	Teacher Home	1928, 1930-31

Source: Jeanne Cyriaque, African American Programs Coordinator Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, Atlanta, Georgia, 2007.

Table 1 -- *Continued*

Montgomery	Ailey	3-Teacher	1927
Paulding	Hiram*	2-Teacher	1930
Peach	Allen Chapel	3-Teacher	---
Peach	County Training School/Fort Valley*	10-Teacher	1927
Pierce	Blackshear	4-Teacher	1925-26
Pike	Concord	2-Teacher	1930
Randolph	County Training School/Howard Normal & Industrial School	6-Teacher	---
Stewart	Omaha	4-Teacher	1925-26
Washington	County Training School/T.J. Elder High & Industrial School*	6-Teacher	1927-28

*Structures listed on the National Register of Historic Place
** Campbell County was ceded to Fulton County in 1941

Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center

Built in 1923, the Noble Hill School in Cassville was the first Rosenwald school built in northwestern Georgia. One of only two schools in Bartow County built with grants from the Rosenwald Fund; the school was incorporated into Georgia's school system and was established to improve the quality of education for African American children in the area.[2] The school was closed in 1955 when the black elementary schools in Bartow County were consolidated to form Bartow Elementary School.[3] In 1989, the Noble Hill School was restored with funds raised by alumni—members that include state supreme court justices and doctors—and is now the home of a black culture museum and community center.[4]

The history of African American education in Bartow County begins on the site of Noble Hill School. In 1885, the first one-room schoolhouse for African Americans in the area was built on a one-acre lot near the New Hope Baptist Church.[5] By 1921, the one-room schoolhouse had fallen into disrepair, primarily due to age and a lack of resources necessary to maintain the

[2] Beth L. Savage, ed., *African American Historic Places*, (New York: John Wiley & Sons Press, Inc., 1994), 171.
[3] Sheri Moore, "Noble Hill Rosenwald School currently under restoration," *(Georgia) Bartow Neighbor*, 6 August 1986, 1A.
[4] The Georgia Trust, "Searching for Endangered Schools," *The Rambler* 30, no. 1 (Jan/Feb 2003): 6.
[5] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook: Summary of the Activities of the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center*, Atlanta, 1990, 10.

building, and it was condemned.[6] Classes were held in another older building owned by the neighboring New Hope Baptist Church. In the same year, C.W. Williams and his wife moved north from Atlanta to Cassville to teach.[7] Williams, aware of the Rosenwald Fund school-building initiatives, met with the school superintendent and the local trustees of Noble Hill and, once securing their support, pursued and procured a grant from the Rosenwald Fund in order to build a new schoolhouse on Noble Hill.[8]

Once the Rosenwald Fund awarded the grant money to the African American community in Cassville, their quest for a new schoolhouse had only begun. The grant was a matching grant. Therefore, the community still had to raise money in order to not only receive the $700 from the Rosenwald Fund, but to insure they had the funds to build the schoolhouse to specification as well. The community's efforts yielded a total of $661.35, which included monetary donations from both white and black citizens and donations of materials and labor.[9] The Bartow County Board of Education gave $275 and loaned the community another $400 towards the construction of the schoolhouse.[10] In total, the community collected $2,036.35 for the construction and establishment of a new schoolhouse.[11] Webster Wheeler and Daniel Harris assumed the task of constructing the schoolhouse. Wheeler, a farmer and carpenter by profession for the majority of his life, had relocated from Cassville to Detroit, Michigan to work at the Ford Motor Company.[12] Upon hearing from relatives that his hometown had received a Rosenwald Fund grant, he returned to Cassville to build the schoolhouse.[13] Harris also worked as a farmer and, having

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[6] *Ibid.*
[7] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Historic Property Information Form for the Noble Hill School*, Atlanta, 1985, 5.
[8] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook*, 10.
[9] *Ibid*, 23.
[10] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Noble Hill Rosenwald School*, Atlanta, 1986, 1.
[11] *Ibid.*
[12] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook*, 9.
[13] *Ibid.*

some carpentry skills, volunteered to assist Wheeler in the construction of the schoolhouse.[14] Both men served as trustees of the school.

As a condition of the Rosenwald Fund school-building program, the community receiving a grant from the fund had to construct their schoolhouse following the stipulations of and using plans supplied by the Rosenwald Fund. The Noble Hill School is no exception. First, the site and setting of the Noble Hill School meets the Rosenwald Fund requirements for a schoolhouse of its size. Located off of U.S. Highway 41, the school is along a public highway and would have been centrally located to the rural African American population it served, as per the requirements of the Rosenwald Fund. The school site is on a rise in the land that is a large, fairly level area. The setting not only meets the requirements for size, but also for drainage and sanitation. The present landscaping of the school grounds even meets the suggestions of the Rosenwald Fund, from the grassy yard surrounding the building to the low shrubbery and plantings around the foundation of the school.

The school building itself also conforms to the plans set forth by the Rosenwald Fund. The Noble Hill School is a structure of frame construction sheathed in wooden weatherboard siding that is painted white, in accordance with the suggested exterior paint colors. Situated on a north-south orientation, the Noble Hill School rests on brick and masonry piers and is topped by a front gable, raised-seam metal roof with exposed rafter ends along the eaves. Two brick, corbelled chimneys pierce the metal roof at the peak. Several large, nine-over-nine double-hung sash windows adorn the exterior of the simple school building. Six windows line both the east and west sides of the building, allowing light into the classrooms, as required by the Rosenwald Fund criteria. Six-over-six double-hung sash windows are also located on the north and south ends of the schoolhouse. However, these windows are breeze windows installed in order to

[14] *Ibid.*

provide cross ventilation rather than to aid in lighting the classroom. The two entrances are located on either side of a centrally-located, projecting gable front extension on the south elevation of the schoolhouse. Each entranceway leads into a separate vestibule, which in turn leads into one of the two classrooms. In addition to two classrooms, the Noble Hill School also had an industrial training room and two cloakrooms. A four-foot high partition separated the classrooms.[15] The classrooms were furnished with wooden desks and blackboards and were heated by wood-burning stoves; the school had neither indoor plumbing nor electricity.[16]

Noble Hill Wheeler Memorial Center, front oblique

The two teachers employed at the Noble Hill School taught first through seventh grades with a curriculum that included "mathematics, reading, spelling, English, history, geography, hygiene, writing, music, and industrial arts."[17] The average daily attendance of the school was sixty-three students, primarily children who lived in the Cassville area and who walked to the

[15] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook*, 10.
[16] Mary S. Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 14.
[17] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Noble Hill Rosenwald School*, 1.

school.[18] However, since the Noble Hill School was only one of thirteen schools for African Americans in Bartow County and, of the thirteen, the only one whose building was specifically used as a school, the attendance at times would swell up to one hundred students.[19] Within four years of its inaugural day of classes, the Noble Hill School was valued at $2500 and even had forty patent desks, which could seat two students per desk.[20] The Noble Hill School continually absorbed students from the meager surrounding schools, most which met in churches, lodge halls, or various dilapidated community buildings. In 1951, students were regularly bussed to the Noble Hill School from two other communities, so two additional teachers were hired in order to accommodate the increased enrollment.[21] The school closed in 1955 when all the schools for African American children in Bartow County were consolidated into one school, Bartow Elementary School.[22]

The property was initially purchased by the New Hope Baptist Church, located just to the south of the schoolhouse. When the church changed locations in 1960, Mr. Bethel Wheeler, a son of the schoolhouse's original builder, Webster Wheeler, bought the property and used the former schoolhouse as a storage facility and for baling paper.[23] As a former student of the Noble Hill School, Dr. Susie Wheeler possessed a natural fondness for the old schoolhouse. Additionally, since her husband, Dan, was also a son of Webster Wheeler, the schoolhouse had a special meaning for her family.[24] Determined to preserve the dilapidated school and transform it into an African American heritage museum, Dr. Wheeler went straight to the source and convinced her sister-in-law and the widow of Bethel Wheeler, Mrs. Bertha Wheeler, to donate a

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[18] *Ibid.*
[19] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook*, 23.
[20] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Noble Hill Rosenwald School*, 1.
[21] *Ibid.*
[22] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form for the Wheeler-Noble Hill School*, Atlanta, 1987, 2.
[23] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Noble Hill Rosenwald School*, 1.
[24] Alan Patureau, "Preserving the Past," *Atlanta Journal and Constitution*, 27 August 1993, E4.

portion of the property in memory of Webster Wheeler.[25] After securing the property in 1983, Dr. Wheeler contacted alumni of the Noble Hill School and spread the word through the community of her intentions to restore the schoolhouse. After several meetings at Mrs. Bertha Wheeler's house, a group of trustees was established. The effort gained momentum in 1984 as the trustees contacted the Historic Preservation Department of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources and the Coosa Valley Regional Development Center requesting a site visit and evaluation.[26] The group's fundraising activities immediately commenced. They raised over $200,000 in private donations and obtained $3,000 in grant monies through the Governor's emergency fund and the Georgia Humanities Council.[27]

The Noble Hill School trustees needed every cent they raised since the schoolhouse was in poor condition. The site visit by an architectural historian yielded a lengthy list of repairs and suggestions necessary for an appropriate restoration of the schoolhouse. The schoolhouse was missing large sections of its roof, several of the joists and purlins were rotted, and almost all the windows were missing.[28] Further, one of the foundation piers was missing, the southwest corner of the building was not intact, and the weatherboard exterior had incurred damage and deterioration.[29] The schoolhouse also had extensive beetle and termite damage, which led to the destruction of the southwest corner of the structure.[30] In the interior of the schoolhouse, the floorboards and ceiling boards had rotted due to moisture entering the building from the holes in the roof and walls and missing windows.[31]

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[25] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook,* 8.
[26] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook,* 15.
[27] Hoffschwelle,*Preserving Rosenwald Schools,* 14.
[28] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Noble Hill School Suggestions for Stabilization/Rehabilitation*, Atlanta, 1986, 2.
[29] *Ibid.*
[30] *Ibid.*
[31] *Ibid.*

Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center, front elevation

Efforts to stabilize the schoolhouse began in 1986 by repairing the roof, covering the windows and other holes in the exterior of the structure, and removing debris from inside and around the schoolhouse.[32] The trustees and a group of dedicated volunteers provided the labor and, "[a]s in the 1923 days, the ladies brought refreshments."[33] The next year, the schoolhouse and the trustees received a boost when the Noble Hill School was placed on the National Register of Historic Places. Furthermore, the property boundaries expanded when seven families purchased the remainder of the original one-acre plot, designating one section as a picnic and recreation area.[34] The restoration of the schoolhouse neared completion in 1988 as windows, as well as plumbing and electrical systems, were installed.[35] Meanwhile, in order to accurately replicate a small rural schoolhouse from the early-twentieth century, researchers combed through

[32] Moore, "Noble Hill Rosenwald School currently under restoration," 6A.
[33] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *1990 Handbook*, 13.
[34] *Ibid*, 8.
[35] *Ibid*, 16.

pictorial and written histories of African American schools in Bartow County and Cassville through the early 1960s in order to uncover facets of civic involvement, religion, recreation, social activities, and information on political, economic, cultural, and agricultural life.[36] By 1989, the finishing touches to the schoolhouse—such as a fresh coat of paint, landscaping, and furnishing the interior—marked the completion of the restoration process.[37] On December 17, 1989, the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center held an open house, marking its first day opened to the public.[38]

Today, the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center operates as a heritage museum as well as a community center. One of the old classrooms displays exhibits about African American life in northwest Georgia during the Depression era while the other classroom is used for community meetings.[39] Wooden school desks from the 1920s and other educational memorabilia from the 1920s help maintain the feeling and association of an early-twentieth century schoolhouse as well as reminding visitors of the museum's former use.[40] The schoolhouse and grounds are open to the public for various activities ranging from school field trips to community meetings and family reunions.

The Hiram Colored School

The Hiram Colored School holds two distinctions: one for being the only Rosenwald school constructed in Paulding County and a second for being the only school for blacks in Paulding County with a library. Constructed in 1930, the two-teacher school operated until 1955 when, like the Noble Hill School, the school was closed due to the consolidation of all the

[36] Sara Hines Martin, "Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center," *Georgia Magazine*, November 2001, 22.
[37] 1990 Handbook, 16-17.
[38] *Ibid.*
[39] Hoffschwelle, *Preserving Rosenwald Schools*, 14.
[40] *Ibid.*

African American schools into the Matthews Consolidated School.[41] Threatened by road widening and the sale of the property to developers, a group of former students and other interested individuals joined together to protect the school and once again make it a gathering place for the whole community.

On April 4, 1930, the Paulding County Board of Education held a special session to consider an application for Rosenwald Funds to build a school in Hiram with a library. Upon receiving the promise from the Trustees of the Hiram Colored School and the African American community that the building would be completed by June 20 of the same year, the Board of Education approved the application.[42] The trustees received a land donation of three and one-half acres from Mr. Fitzgerald, a Hiram resident, and had raised $1,400. The white community donated $210 to the school-building project and the trustees secured another $650 of public funds. Including the $750 given by the Rosenwald Fund, the cost of the Hiram Colored school building totaled $3,010—twice the value of any of the other five African American schools in Paulding County.[43]

The trustees kept their promise and finished construction of the school, as reported by W.J. Arnold, the secretary-treasurer of the Hiram local school district, at the July 1, 1930 Paulding County Board of Education.[44] The Hiram Colored School is an excellent example of the Rosenwald Fund's Two Teacher Community School, exhibiting all the requirements the Fund established for such a structure. The school is located on the west side of Georgia State Route 92, just north of the town of Hiram. The school site is on a slight rise in the land and originally consisted of three and one-half acres, exceeding the Rosenwald Fund's requirement of two acres in order to accommodate the mandatory garden and playground. Today, however, the school

[41] Jacinta Williams, "Saving Georgia's Rosenwald Schools," *Reflections* 1, no.4 (August 2001): 5.
[42] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *National Register of Historic Places Registration Form for The Hiram Colored School*, Atlanta, 2001, 8.
[43] *Ibid*, 9.
[44] *Ibid.*

property consists of only 1.7 acres, having lost land to road improvements and property transfers made by the former owners, the Sweet Home Baptist Church.[45]

The Hiram Colored School is a typical example of a two-teacher school—as designed by the Rosenwald Fund—with two classrooms divided by a retractable partition, an industrial training room, and cloakrooms. The schoolhouse is a frame structure sheathed in wooden weatherboard that is painted white. Situated on a north-south orientation, the Hiram Colored School sits on a continuous brick foundation and is topped by a raised-seam metal hipped roof. Gable-roof extensions stretch from the northern and southern ends of the school. Two brick chimneys pierce the roof's surface, one on the east elevation and the second on the west elevation. Two banks of six windows adorn the west elevation to allow ample light into the classrooms and a smaller bank of four windows are located on the east elevation to light the industrial training room. The original windows have been replaced, but the original window openings remain unaltered. The school has an integrated front porch, located in the southeastern corner of the south elevation that features a brick column upon a brick pier supporting the corner of the roof.

Two entrances are within the porch, one leading into the industrial training room and the other leads into the classroom. The interior of the schoolhouse consists of two equal-sized classrooms divided by a movable partition, which is no longer present. The classroom on the northern end of the building has a stage that stretches across the northern exterior wall. The stage was a later addition to the schoolhouse, constructed circa 1945.[46] The classroom on the southern end of the schoolhouse features both the built-in library and two cloakrooms. The school library would be considered modest at best by today's standards, as it is comprised of two built-in bookshelves

[45] *Ibid*, 10.
[46] Vivian Anderson and Joan Battle, interview by author, 17 March 2007.

that stored approximately 130 books while the school was in operation.[47] The cloakrooms have been renovated to function as restrooms, although the original configuration of the rooms remains intact. The industrial room on the east side of the school was turned into a kitchen while the school was still open in order to serve hot lunches to the students.[48]

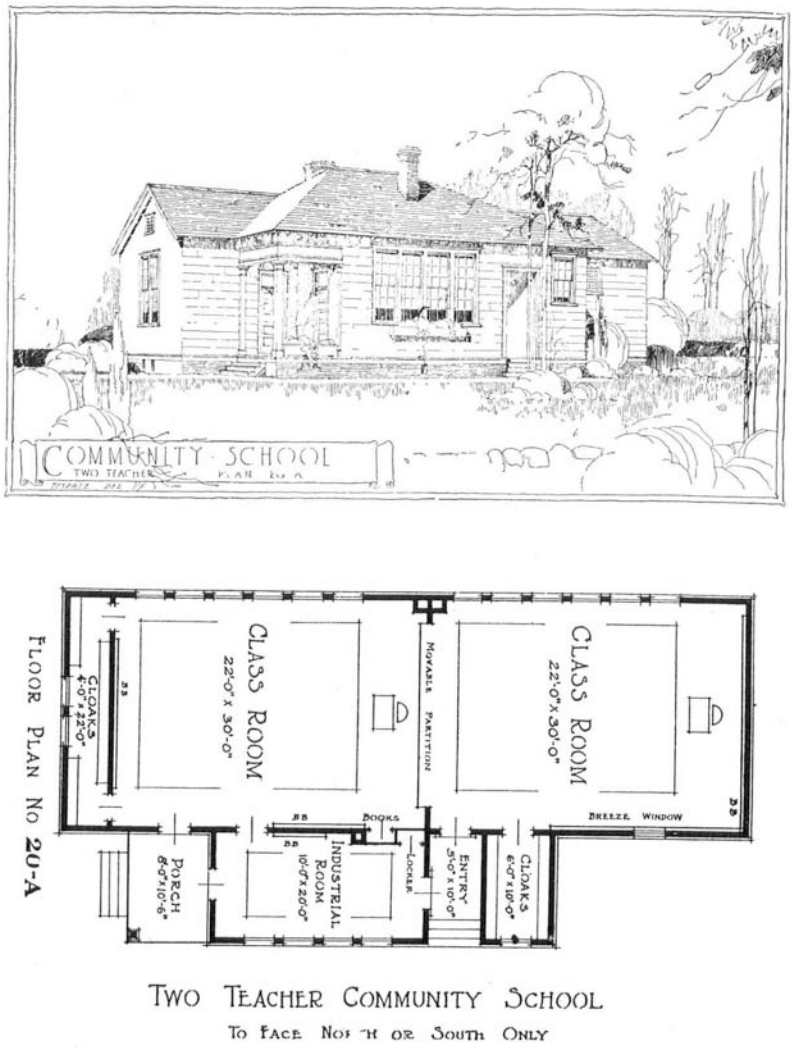

Figure 11. Two-Teacher Community School Plan used for the Hiram Colored School Reprinted from Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 100.

[47] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *The Hiram Colored School*, 5.
[48] Vivian Anderson and Joan Battle, interview by author, 17 March 2007.

Hiram Colored School, front elevation

The Hiram Colored School Library

Two teachers taught first through ninth grade at the Hiram Colored School, one of only two African American schools in Paulding County that offered high school-level classes.[49] In its first ten years, the Hiram Colored School had the highest valuation in the county at $3,000 and an average daily attendance of approximately sixty-seven students, second only to the Matthews School.[50] As school consolidation increased during the 1940s, the average attendance at the Hiram Colored School dropped to around forty-nine students. By 1952, the Paulding County Board of Education had established the construction of a new Matthews Consolidated School for blacks as one of the top priorities for the county school system and had even obtained a site for the new school.[51] Two years later, on February 2, 1954, the Board of Education approved a resolution to reorganize the Paulding County schools into eight schools for whites and one school, Matthews Consolidated, for blacks.[52] The Hiram Colored School closed upon completion of the 1954-1955 school term. In the same year, the Paulding County Board of Education sold the school to the Sweet Home Baptist Church for church and community use. Since that time, the Sweet Home Baptist Church has used the former school for a variety of functions; however, there was never a well-defined, long-term use for the building. In the 1960s, it was used by the community to sponsor dances for the neighborhood teenagers, show movies on Saturday nights, and as a venue for various adult social events.[53] Sweet Home Baptist Church held its services in the school in the late 1980s during the remodeling of the church building.[54]

Although the old school was under continuous ownership, it was still threatened by development. Proposals to widen State Route 92 initially impeded the school's preservation since it is situated very close to the road's right-of-way. Upon learning of such a hazard to the

[49] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *The Hiram Colored School*, 9.
[50] *Ibid.*
[51] *Ibid.*
[52] Williams, "Saving Georgia's Rosenwald Schools", 5.
[53] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Hiram Colored School,* 11.
[54] Vivian Anderson and Joan Battle, interview by author, 17 March 2007.

school, a group of concerned citizens decided to band together to try to save the old schoolhouse. Headed by two sisters who are former students of the Hiram Colored School, the group met with the church, local officials, and officers from the Georgia SHPO to figure out what could be done to save the school from the impending road development.[55] The solution: apply for listing on the National Register of Historic Places. The Hiram Colored School was added to the National Register on May 10, 2001. While the listing insured that reviews were in placed to protect the school from negative impacts—or even demolition—if the road was widened, it could not stop the church from selling the property. The National Register listing could not help secure financial aid in the form of tax incentives or grants on the national or state level because the school was considered a religious as it was under the ownership of the church.

As Paulding County grew rapidly, the Sweet Home Baptist Church received offers from parties interested in developing the land for residential or commercial use.[56] Cognizant of yet another threat to the preservation of the Hiram Colored School, the group met with the church to plead their case in the hopes of keeping the old schoolhouse. The two parties arrived at an amicable resolution. The group, now formally organized as the Rosenwald Museum Board of Directors, received a quitclaim deed for the schoolhouse and remaining one and one-half acres of land from the Sweet Home Baptist Church under the conditions that the land cannot be sold and as soon as the school is no longer used as a community center or museum, the property reverts back to the church.[57] Not only does the Board of Directors have full direction over the school and its property, they will also be able to take advantage of a wider range of grants and financial incentives since the property is no longer owned by a religious institution.

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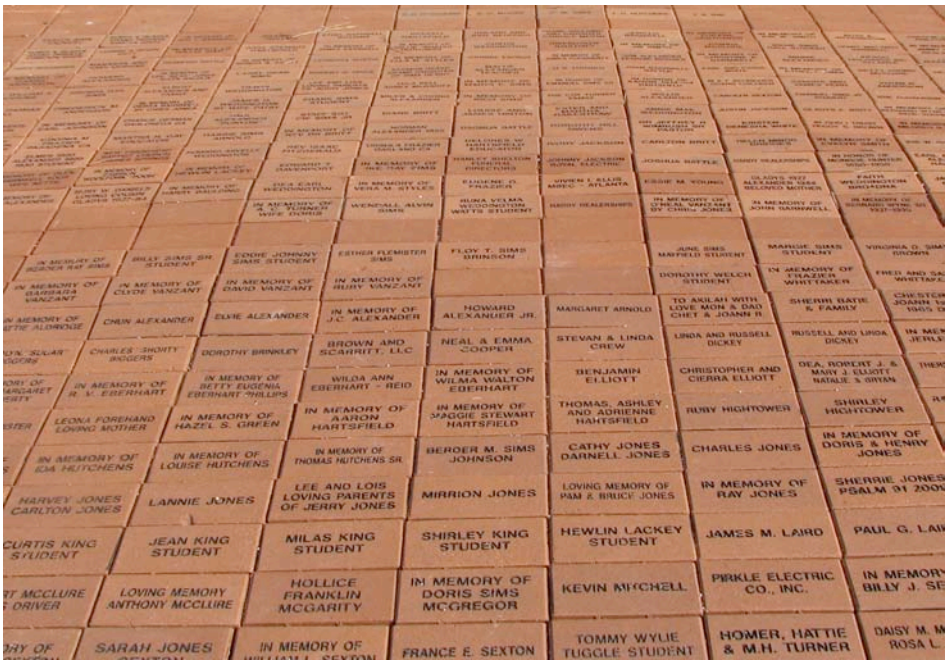
[55] *Ibid.*
[56] *Ibid.*
[57] Vivian Anderson and Joan Battle, interview by author, 17 March 2007.



Patio of the engraved, fund-raising bricks outside of the Hiram Colored School

Fortunately, the Rosenwald Museum Board of Directors did not have to do much work to bring the school back to its original form. The Sweet Home Baptist Church had maintained the school; therefore, all that was needed were cosmetic fixes such as a fresh coat of paint and replacing the windows with ones that more closely resembled the original ones. Monies from the city and county helped to pay for such maintenance as did various fundraising efforts. The most successful of these efforts is the ongoing sale of bricks engraved with personalized messages that will form a brick patio in front of the stairs leading up to the school's front porch. The Hiram Colored School is currently being used as a community center and rental facility. Community organizational meetings, fish fry fundraisers, church auxiliary meetings, and arts and crafts shows have been held recently at the school. The school also has been rented for family reunions and wedding receptions. The Rosenwald Museum Board of Directors has plans to continue to use the school grounds for community events and utilize the interior space as a museum with

displays depicting the history of the school and the African American community of Hiram from 1930-1955, the school's period of significance.[58]

The T. J. Elder Community Center

The site of the T. J. Elder Community Center has borne witness to over a hundred years of education. Beginning in 1889 with the tireless efforts of Thomas Jefferson Elder, the site developed into the largest county training school for African Americans in rural central Georgia.[59] The facility is one of three constructed in Washington County with Rosenwald Fund grants; the other two have yet to be identified. The threat of demolition in 1980 due to the expansion of the current elementary school brought the Elder alumni together to preserve the building and the long history of the site.

The story of the T. J. Elder Community Center begins with T. J. Elder. Born in Watkinsville, Georgia in 1869, Thomas Jefferson Elder obtained his education at Atlanta University in 1887. He and his wife, Lillian Phinizy Elder a fellow teacher, moved to Sandersville in the same year in order to teach the local African American children in the Springfield Baptist Church.[60] Determined to procure a more academic environment for his students, Elder formed a trustee group in 1889 to purchase land and construct a school. Within a decade, the Sandersville High and Industrial School was not only the largest school in rural central Georgia, with an average enrollment of approximately 330 students per term, it was also the first in the region to establish manual training in its curriculum.[61] The students also were required to take Latin, math, social studies, and an array of other academic classes.[62] The

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[58] *Ibid.*
[59] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form for the Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School*, Atlanta, 1980, 3.
[60] The Associated Press, "Alumni try to preserve 'root of all education,'" *The Marietta Daily Journal*, 4 August 1997.
[61] Savage, *African American Historic Places*, 198.
[62] Williams, "Saving Georgia's Rosenwald Schools," 4.

industrial training programs, which included woodworking and sewing, were an important factor in the school's growth.

Elder combined state school funds, local funds, student fees, and foundation grants to build a school of exceptional quality with high standards and long school terms.[63] For example, in 1898, R. Fulton Cutting of New York donated $1,000 for industrial education in Washington County, with half of the money going to Elder's school to purchase land and build and equip a workshop.[64] Other fundraising methods included selling the food prepared in cooking classes in order to purchase fabric for sewing classes.

By 1913, the school was designated a County Training School, only one of two in the state of Georgia. Such a designation was reserved for the better schools, as the schools had to be equipped to provide excellent secondary education and train teachers for rural African American schools.[65] At this point, multiple buildings comprised the campus of the Sandersville High and Industrial School, including workshops, a home economic building, a schoolhouse, and a two-story dormitory for teachers and out-of-town students.

In 1917, the school received its first of two Rosenwald Fund grants to build a domestic-science building. In 1927, a second Rosenwald grant was received in order to build a six-teacher school with an auditorium. The school cost about $11,500, with $8,000 provided from public subscription, $2,500 from the city of Sandersville, and $1,400 from the Rosenwald Fund.[66] This school, the only building of the original campus that remains today, was completed in 1928. The schoolhouse is an H-shape building facing north-south of brick construction with intersecting gable roofs. The auditorium and offices comprise the crosswise portion of the school, while the six classrooms, three on each side, run perpendicular to the central section of the building. A

[63] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School*, 4.
[64] *Ibid*, 4-5.
[65] *Ibid.*
[66] *Ibid.*

front porch stretches across the crosswise section, between the perpendicular portions. Central double doors within the front porch lead into the crosswise section while single doors, also within the front porch, lead into either classroom at the front of the school. Banks of nine-over-nine double-hung sash windows run down the east and west elevations. Other architectural details include overhanging eaves, exposed rafter ends, and multiple chimneys covered in stucco.

In 1933, the Board of Education recognized Elder's accomplishments and service by changing the name of the school to the Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School. Upon his death in 1946, Elder received a tribute for his work and dedication from the whole of Washington County. At his funeral, which was held in the school auditorium, Elder was remembered through eulogies and stories by members of both the African American and white communities, ministers, educators, and other.[67] Professor and Mrs. Elder are buried side-by-side at the front of the schoolyard.

In 1960, the T.J. Elder High and Industrial School was converted into an elementary school when a new high school was built.[68] The school was in use until 1980 when plans to expand the elementary school—which was constructed around the Rosenwald school—called for the demolition of the vacant schoolhouse. Upon hearing of the impending demolition of the old school, members of the alumni association, the Elderites, acted quickly in order to preserve their beloved school. Appealing to the Board of Education to preserve the building, the Elderites were able to acquire a long-term lease for the building.[69] The alumni group then, with the assistance of the Washington County Historical Society, successfully listed the T. J. Elder High and Industrial School on the National Register of Historic Places on May 12, 1981—the first

[67] *Ibid*, 5.
[68] Williams, "Saving Georgia's Rosenwald Schools," 4.
[69] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Georgia Heritage Program Application: Development Projects*, Atlanta, 1985, 2.

Front oblique of the T.J. Elder Community Center

Side elevation of the T.J. Elder Community Center

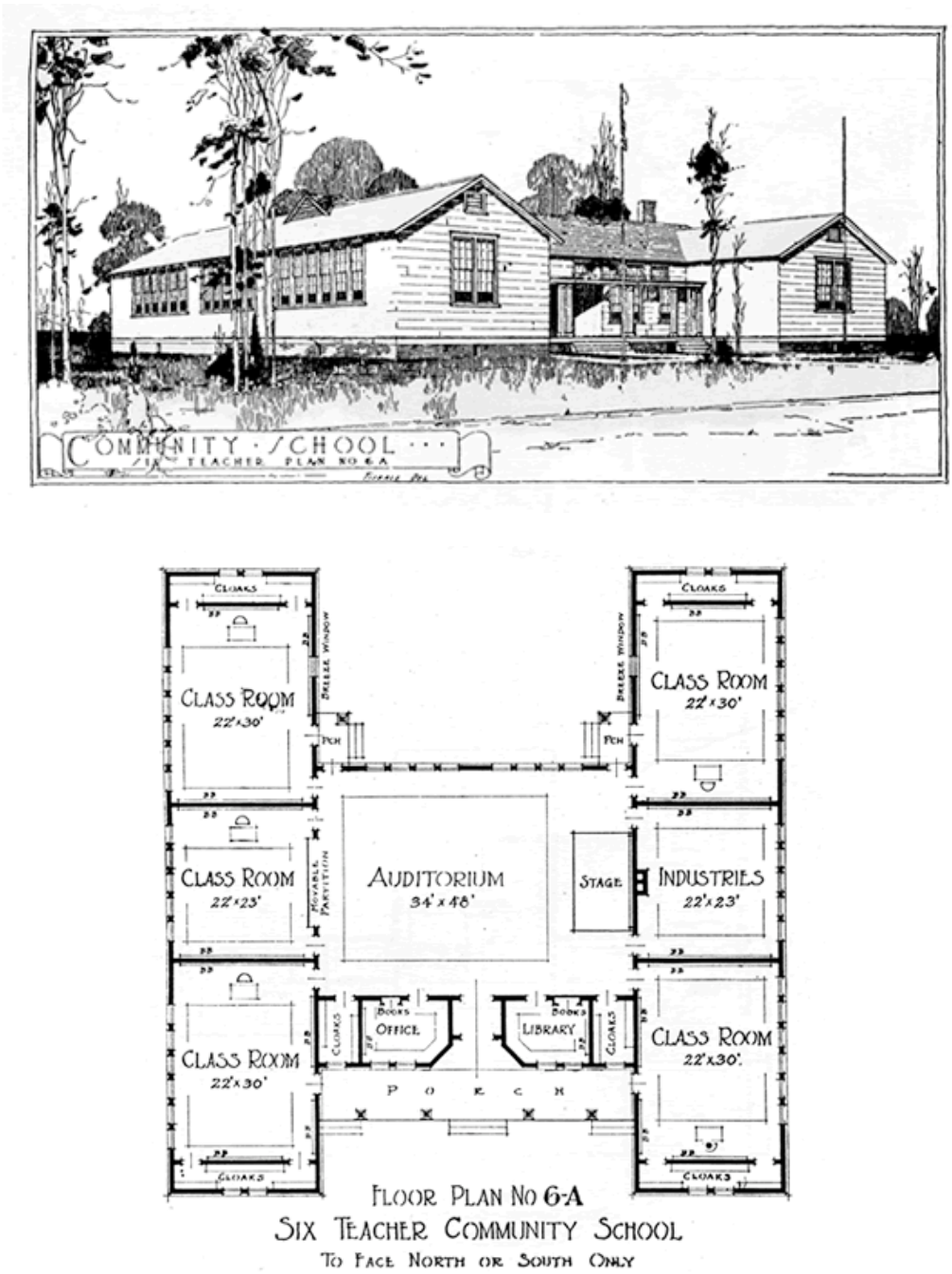

Figure 12. Six-Teacher Community School Plan used for the T.J. Elder High and Industrial School. Reprinted from The Julius Rosenwald Fun, "Community School Plans." Available from http://www.rosenwaldschoolplans.org.

Rosenwald school in Georgia to be listed on the National Register. The group also received a $300,000 community development block grant and additional funding in order to preserve and maintain the building.[70]

In 1991, the Board of Education, which by this time had stopped using the building, gave it to the Washington County Elderite Alumni Association.[71] The old school, now called the T.J. Elder Community Center, is currently used for educational and cultural programs, Elderite reunions, family and social gatherings, and community meetings.

As in the case of the Hiram Colored School, the continued use of the building meant its continued maintenance, and the Elderites inherited a building in sound condition. Few changes have occurred since its discontinued use as a school. The removal of the 1938 addition (which added six classrooms and restrooms to the rear wings of the school in order to accommodate the expansion of the modern T.J. Elder Primary School) was the most considerable alteration to the Elder Community Center. Additional alterations to the former school included the construction of new concrete steps and an ADA ramp on the front of the school within the front porch, which has been extended outward by installing a corrugated metal roof. The extended porch roof accommodates the steps and ramp and, therefore, both appear less obtrusive. The Elderites received a 2006 Georgia Heritage Grant in order to repair the school's deteriorated original materials. The group intends to restore the brick wall on one classroom, replace the roof due to multiple leaks, reglaze windows, and repaint exterior woodwork.[72] The completion of the repairs

[70] Williams, "Saving Georgia's Rosenwald Schools," 4.
[71] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, Georgia Heritage Program Application, 2.
[72] *Ibid*, 3.

will preserve the structure and continue its use as a community center as well as ready it for the Elderites' future plans for the old school as a research center and repository for information and historic documents on all the extant Rosenwald schools in Georgia.[73]

[73] Carole Moore, "Two African American Properties Receive Georgia Heritage Grants in SFY 2006," *Reflections* 6, no.1 (April 2006): 4.

CHAPTER 6

CONSERVING ROSENWALD SCHOOLS

As is evident in the examples of the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center, the Hiram Colored School, and the T.J. Elder Community Center, Rosenwald schools are currently threatened by encroaching development and neglect—hence their placement on the National Trust's for Historic Preservation (NTHP) 11 Most Endangered Historic Places list. The schools have garnered much attention since their 2002 appearance on this list, creating an awareness of the schools across the southeastern United States and acting as an impetus for communities to save, or at least to find, their Rosenwald schools. The listing also sparked action from the Southern Regional Office of the NTHP, which has since established the Rosenwald Fund Initiative, funded in part by a $100,000 grant from the Rosenwald family foundation and matching monies from private donors.[1] The initiative is designed to set up a network to share information and serve as a resource for communities researching their Rosenwald schools.[2] Additionally, it is hoped that the initiative can help generate public interest among state and local organizations that wish to preserve Rosenwald schools as well as encourage individuals to identify schools in their areas.[3] Georgia's involvement in the Rosenwald Fund Initiative is through African American programs coordinator Jeanne Cyriaque, who represents Georgia on the task force. Cyriaque identifies these historic resources and works closely with preservation

[1] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 52.
[2] The Georgia Trust, "Searching for Endangered Schools," *Rambler*, 6.
[3] Conrad and Lawe, "Preserving Rosenwald Schools in East Texas," 52.

initiatives on behalf of the Georgia African American Historic Preservation Network (GAAHPN), a program of the Georgia State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) and one of only two in the United States.

The importance of community involvement is also evinced in the three examples of successful Rosenwald school restoration and reuse in Georgia. It is unlikely that any of the three schools would still be standing, let alone serving their communities, if it was not for the efforts of former students and conscientious citizens. While public participation is vital to the successful preservation of any historic structure, it is even more important in the case of Rosenwald schools. Considering the community sacrifice and co-operation needed to procure Rosenwald school funding in the first place, it is no surprise that similar community participation is essential in order to successfully locate, properly recognize, and effectively reuse these historic schools.

Locating and Identifying Rosenwald Schools

Unfortunately, the task of locating and identifying Rosenwald schools is often more challenging than it would seem. The schools examined in Chapter Four benefited from aware and active students who, already familiar with the schools, knew the locations and particulars of their respective school. Many of the schools and the individuals seeking them out are not so lucky. Since the majority of the schools were constructed in rural communities, the schools are usually located 'off the beaten path'—particularly in areas that are still predominately rural. Place and road names may have changed over the last seventy or eighty years, increasing the difficulty of the task. Historians in North Carolina have discovered, in their quest to locate the state's Rosenwald schools, that frequently the name of a community is listed incorrectly, the

name is not used any more, or the place simply no longer exists.[4] Alterations in the routes of roads can exacerbate the problem of locating the Rosenwald schools, potentially making the more remote. Vast agricultural fields, overgrown pastures, or stands of trees can keep Rosenwald schools hidden from the public right-of-way and from the historians seeking them out.

Rosenwald schools do share similar characteristics that can help identify them today. Although the architectural plans for the Rosenwald schools ranged from small one- or two-teacher wooden structures to larger brick structures, in general the schools were built facing east-west to allow maximum light through their large blocks of windows and they adhered to the program's acreage requirements, depending on the size of the school.[5] While these aspects can aid in determining whether a rural school is a Rosenwald school, not all schools with these characteristics are Rosenwald schools nor should schools lacking these characteristics necessarily be ruled out as Rosenwald schools. The architectural plans and styling of the schools vary depending on whether the school was constructed using the Tuskegee plans or the plans provided by the Rosenwald Fund. Furthermore, communities could use their own architectural plans as long as the Rosenwald Fund approved them. The plans issued by the Rosenwald Fund were also made available to school districts for use in constructing other contemporary schools, white or black, and were often reused by communities to construct other schools; therefore, schools that look like Rosenwald-funded schools might not be in actuality.[6]

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[4] Joetta L. Sack, "Crumbling Legacy: A Vision for Educating Blacks and Bridging Racial Divides is Fading from the Landscape," [database on-line] (*Education Week* 23 no. 33 April 2004, accessed 16 September 2005); available from Academic Search Premier (EBSCOhost), Ipswich, MA, accession no. 13073610, p. 2 of 5.

[5] The Georgia Trust, "Searching for Endangered Schools," *Rambler*, 6.

[6] Sack, "Crumbling Legacy," p. 3 of 5.

Research Methodologies

The many variables involved in locating and identifying Rosenwald schools makes research an important tool in this process. There are four basic resources a researcher should explore when investigating a Rosenwald school: the state SHPO, departments of education, archives, and local informants. First, beginning one's research at the SHPO can reveal previously identified Rosenwald schools or other historic schools in the area. The SHPO can also educate the researcher on how best to determine if a school is a Rosenwald school as well as the proper method of documenting the structure. Next, continuing one's research at county and/or state departments of education can also provide information about historic schools. Departments of education often retain records of the construction of schools and, sometimes, the architectural plans. These documents will be archived at either the respective department of education or at state archives. In addition, during the time when the Rosenwald schools were built, several states published annual reports of the department of education or state board of education. These reports outline and describe the activities of the previous year as well as the plans for the upcoming year. For example, in the state of Georgia, both the Georgia Department of Education Records and the annual reports of the Department of Education are located at the Georgia Department of Archives and History in Atlanta. The state archives and universities also house map collections. Performing a historic map search can provide a more definitive location for school as well as an idea of the years of the school's operation. Maps such as plat maps and Sanborn maps will specify the exact location of a school while historic county highway maps will indicate the general location of a school. Ultimately, a researcher can go straight to the source and access the Julius Rosenwald Fund Archives at Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee or the Julius Rosenwald Papers at the University of Chicago.[7]

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[7] Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South*, 367-68.

Finally, one of the best resources for locating and identifying Rosenwald schools is local informants. Contacting a local historical society can prove to be a relatively simple way to connect with individuals willing to discuss the community's history and Rosenwald schools, as well as help a researcher locate a school, identify a school hidden within multiple additions, or gain access to private property on which the school sits. A local historical society also may have collections pertaining to a community's Rosenwald school such as newspaper articles, old photographs, or fliers from an event or meeting at the school. In the absence of a local historical society, the SHPO may have a contact in the area or, as exists in Georgia, the preservation planner of the Regional Development Center (RDC) may be of assistance. Local chambers of commerce or governments also can aid in connecting a researcher with long-term residents of a community, or, perhaps, other local researchers or historians. With the recent media attention due to the placement on the NTHP's Most Endangered Historic Places list, community members may be attempting to contact someone about their Rosenwald school. Several Rosenwald schools have been brought to the attention of the Georgia SHPO by alumni or interested citizens. For example, two Rosenwald schools in Georgia were identified within months of the listing on the Most Endangered Historic Places list, one in Summit that was being used for the storage of farm equipment and another abandoned in Louisville—both brought to the attention of the Georgia SHPO by community members.[8] Likewise, alumni helped to locate the Cross Roads School in Brooks County, Georgia and the Tallahassee Hazlehurst Rosenwald School in Jeff Davis County, Georgia and historical societies aided in the identification of the Marian Anderson Library Rosenwald School in Pierce County, Georgia and the Dock Kemp School in Johnson County, Georgia.[9]

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[8] The Georgia Trust, "Searching for Endangered Schools," *Rambler*, 6.
[9] Jennifer Eaton, "Three Surviving Rosenwald Schools: the Georgia Inventory," *Reflections* IV, no.4 (November 2004): 4-5.

Recognition and Protection of Rosenwald Schools

To ensure that a historic resource receives the proper recognition—be it at local, state, or national level—it needs a supplemental form of protection. The SHPO maintains records on documented structures in the state and the records for any additional recognition the structure has received and to what degree. Listing a historic resource on the National Register of Historic Places provides the highest level of recognition and, potentially, protection for the resource. The National Register is the official list of properties recognized by the federal government as worthy of preservation for their local, state, or national significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, or culture. Although the National Register is under the stewardship of the National Park Service, resources are nominated for listing by the states. Resources can be added to the National Register as an individual listing, as a part of a larger historic district, or under a multiple property submission. Resources must be at least fifty years old, retain basic historic integrity, and meet one of the four established National Register criteria. The criteria are: the property must have significance for its association with broad patterns of history; have association with the lives of persons significant in our past; have architectural merit; or have the potential to yield information important in history or prehistory (see Appendix B).[10] Resources listed on the National Register, either individually or as part of a historic district, are eligible for various grants and funding through non-profit organizations like the NTHP for restoration work as well as federal grants-in-aid and tax incentives for certified rehabilitation of income-producing properties.[11] The National Register also provides protection to historic resources by enabling federal, state, and local agencies to consider historic properties during the early stages of project planning, provide for review of federally funded or sponsored projects that may affect historic

[10] National Park Service, *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1997), 2.
[11] Norman Tyler, *Historic Preservation: An Introduction to its History, Principles, and Practice* (New York, New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc., 2000), 47.

resources (Section 106 Review), and discourage the demolition or destruction of income-producing historic resources through federal income tax penalties.[12]

For these reasons, all three of the groups who took action to protect their Rosenwald schools sought and gained an individual listing on the National Register. The step was taken to list the schools in order to acquire official recognition, to help protect the school, and to qualify for grants and loans. Despite a system of checks against the demolition or destruction of historic resources, a National Register listing cannot prevent the owner of a historic property from demolishing or drastically altering the property. Unfortunately, the repercussions for such an action are minor at best. However, the shortcomings of a National Register listing do not out-weigh the positive impact it can have on a property.

One tool available through the National Register is a Multiple Property Submission, which recognizes groups of related significant properties. In a Multiple Property Submission, themes, trends, and patterns of history shared by properties are organized into historic contexts, and property types that represent those historic contexts are defined.[13] The properties can be located within a town, state, region, or even be dispersed across the United States. Examples of Multiple Property Submissions include "Architecture of Athens-Clarke County, Georgia: Shotgun Houses"; "Georgia County Courthouses"; and "Civil War Era National Cemeteries."[14] The Multiple Property Submission is presented as a Multiple Property Documentation Form consisting of four parts: the Multiple Property listing name, associated historic contexts, associated property types, and the National Register nomination forms for each property to be included in the listing. While the Multiple Property Documentation Form is a cover document

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[12] *Ibid.*

[13] National Park Service, *Guidelines for Completing National Register of Historic Places Forms Part B: How to Complete the National Register Multiple Property Documentation Form* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1999), 2.

[14] National Park Service, "National Register Information Systems: Text of Multiple Covers"; available from http://www.nr.nps.gov/iwisapi/explorer.dll?IWS_SCHEMA=Cover&IWS_LOGIN=1&IWS_REPORT=100000007; Internet; accessed 19 January 2007.

and not a nomination in its own right, it does serve as a framework for evaluating the National Register eligibility of a thematic group of historic properties.[15] The Multiple Property Submission also acts as a good management tool since the thematic approach can furnish information for preservation planning as it evaluates properties on a comparative basis within a given geographical area and establishes preservation priorities based on historical significance.[16] Since it is a flexible document, additional information can be included in the historic context and properties can be added to or removed from a Multiple Property Submission as appropriate.

A Multiple Property Submission is a practical option for resources like Rosenwald Schools since there are several within a defined geographic area (i.e. the state of Georgia). The schools all share a similar time period and history (their association with African American education and the Rosenwald Fund from 1915-1937), and the property types all consist of rural schoolhouses. Alabama and Texas have successfully submitted a Multiple Property Submission for Rosenwald schools in their states, one in 1997 and one in 1998 respectively. Alabama's submission is entitled "The Rosenwald School Building Fund and Associated Buildings (1913-1937);" it examines the history of African American education and the Rosenwald school-building program on the national level and, more specifically, the history of both in the state of Alabama as well as addressing the three areas of significance Rosenwald schools in Alabama fall under—education, African American heritage, and social and cultural history.[17] It also describes and examines the three different phases of Rosenwald schools found in Alabama: schools constructed under the supervision of Tuskegee Institute but without standardized plans, schools constructed according to the plans prepared and distributed by Tuskegee Institute between 1915

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[15] National Park Service, *Guidelines for Completing National Register of Historic Places Forms Part B*, 2.
[16] *Ibid.*
[17] Jeff Mansell and Trina Binkley, "The Rosenwald School Building Fund and Associated Buildings (1913-1937)," National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form; available from http://www.nr.nps.gov/; Internet; accessed 19 January 2007.

and 1920, and the schools constructed according to the plans prepared and distributed by Samuel L. Smith and the Rosenwald Southern Office post-1920.

Currently, the African American programs division of the Georgia SHPO is writing a historic context for a Multiple Property Submission for the state. When completed, the extant Rosenwald schools in Georgia that retain integrity will be submitted for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The Multiple Property Submission will establish a historic context for the significance of the history and architecture of these schools as well as their social relevance, under which several schools and their associated structures could be nominated. Once a historic context is established for Rosenwald schools in Georgia, additional National Register nomination forms can be submitted—as schools are located and identified—as amendments to the Multiple Property Submission, creating a streamlined process for obtaining a listing.

At the state level, a historic place can receive recognition if it is placed on the Georgia Register of Historic Places. The Georgia Register is the state of Georgia's official list of historic buildings, structures, sites, objects, and districts worthy of preservation.[18] Similar to the National Register of Historic Places, listing in the Georgia Register helps preserve historic properties and provides recognition of a property's architectural, historical, or archaeological significance. The Georgia Register uses the same criteria and documentation procedures as the National Register and any property in Georgia listed on the National Register is automatically listed on the Georgia Register; conversely, not all the properties listed on the Georgia Register are listed on the National Register.[19] The Georgia Register also identifies properties for planning purposes and

[18] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, "Georgia Register of Historic Places: Recognizing and Preserving Our Historic Properties"; available from http://hpd.dnr.state.ga.us/content/displaycontent.asp?txtDocument=230&textPage=1; Internet; accessed 16 January 2007.
[19] *Ibid.*

ensures that these properties will be taken into account in the planning of state-funded projects.[20] Owners of historic properties listed in the Georgia Register may also be eligible for a state property tax abatement for rehabilitation work that meets preservation standards, while eligible properties owned by public agencies or nonprofit organizations may qualify for state grant assistance.[21] While listing a property on the Georgia Register will provide it protection, the listing will not automatically include the property in a local historic district or invoke local landmark status and the protection those designations include under local preservation ordinances.[22] Furthermore, the designation as a local landmark or listing on the Georgia Register will not prevent the destruction of a structure, but will only insure that any proposed alterations or proposed state-funded projects that could affect the structure will be reviewed, assessed, and discussed in order to have the least negative impact upon the structure. Therefore, designating a Rosenwald school as a local landmark and listing the school on the Georgia Register provides the utmost protection at the state level as well as qualifying for funding through state tax abatements and state grants.

On the local level, recognition is available if the school lies within a local historic district or is listed as a local historic landmark. A local historic district is an area that has:

1) has special character or historic, cultural or aesthetic value or interest;
2) represents one or more periods, styles, or types of historic architecture; and
3) visually stands apart as a unique section of the municipality.[23]

The local historic district is designated by a local ordinance, which falls under the jurisdiction of a preservation commission, an appointed citizen board.[24]

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[20] *Ibid.*
[21] The Georgia Trust, "Frequently Asked Questions".
[22] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, "Georgia Register of Historic Places: Recognizing and Preserving Our Historic Properties"
[23] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, "Frequently Asked Questions About Local Historic Districts"; available from http://hpd.dnr.state.ga.us/; Internet; accessed 16 January 2007.

Recognition can also be achieved by listing the school as a local historical landmark. Local historic landmark designation is reserved for an individual structure or site that is historically, architecturally, or culturally significant and retains most of its original character.[25] A local landmark also is designated under a city or county ordinance. Protection under a local historic district or a local landmark designation will offer a greater amount of protection since the structure could not be demolished or moved, and exterior features of the structure cannot be altered without permission from the local preservation commission.[26]

Officially recognizing historic resources such as Rosenwald schools through local, state, and national listings will not only aid in preservation planning and creating public awareness of the resource, but it is also a necessary step in order to receive financial assistance for the preservation—and hopefully reuse—of the resource.

Preserving and Reusing Rosenwald Schools

The best way to preserve a historic resource is by reusing it—be it as a residence, a non-profit adaptation such as a museum, or for a commercial function. And the best way to ensure the successful and efficient preservation of a historic resource is through careful planning.

Planning

Planning a course of action before starting any restoration or rehabilitation work on the historic structure will save time and money. First, the condition of the structure needs to be determined by thoroughly inspecting it. An assessment of the structure will insure its structural integrity and identify needed repairs, if necessary. While it is always recommended to have a

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[24] *Ibid.*
[25] The Georgia Trust, "Frequently Asked Questions"; available from http://www.georgiatrust.org; Internet; accessed 17 January 2007.
[26] *Ibid.*

professional perform a physical assessment of a building, it is ideal to complete a historic structure report for historic resources. A historic structure report is the optimal first phase of historic preservation efforts for a building, preceding the design and implementation of the structure's preservation. By definition, a historic structure report "provides documentary, graphic, and physical information about a property's history and existing condition."[27] Additionally, a historic structure report creates a complete preservation plan for a resource since it outlines a scope of suggested work and provides recommendations for selecting the most appropriate approach to treatment as well as addressing goals for the use or re-use of the property, guiding all changes made to the resource during a project, provides information for maintenance procedures, and records the findings of research and investigation and the processes of physical work for future researchers.[28] If work proceeds without a historic structure report as a guide, physical evidence important to understanding the history and construction of the building may be destroyed. The report also ensures that the history, significance, and condition of the structure are understood and considered before selecting the treatment and developing work recommendations. Although a historic structure report may introduce an unexpected cost to the overall project, it is a worthwhile process and may—in the long term—save time and money. By obtaining a historic structures report, the foundation for an appropriate restoration and/or treatment of the structure is in place, prerequisites for procuring various types of aid or funding. Additionally, the historical background and context and the chronology of use of the schoolhouse can be applied to the preparation of a nomination for listing on a state or national register or can help for historical interpretation programs. The historic structure report will also identify if the resource is a designated historic property on the national, state, or local level or if

[27] Deborah Slaton, "Preservation Brief 43: The Preparation and Use of Historic Structure Reports"; available from http://www.cr.nps.gov/hps/tps/briefs/brief43.htm; Internet; accessed 20 January 2007.
[28] *Ibid*.

it is located within the boundaries of a national or local historic district. The cost of the preparation of the historic structure report varies, depending upon the size, current condition, level of significance, and intended use.[29] The SHPO can provide assistance in determining the proper course of action for the restoration or rehabilitation, connect groups with qualified professionals to perform an assessment or historic structure report, or send an officer to the site to perform an assessment. Local universities or historical societies can also assist in such projects. University professors of historic preservation often seek out projects for their students and students usually need a subject for class projects or thesis work. A local preservation organization can provide assistance similar to the SHPO by introducing organizations to qualified professionals, some whom might even hold membership in the historical society, or who might volunteer their services and provide a source for volunteer labor. The trustees of the Noble Hill School utilized the resources available to them through the Georgia SHPO to obtain a physical assessment of the school. An architectural historian from the Georgia SHPO examined the deteriorated school and identified the issues that needed immediate attention in order to halt further deterioration.[30] The Georgia SHPO also provided information for hiring a professional consultant or architect.

Once the structure has been physically assessed and the background information gathered (history and deed information for the structure, any designations as a historic property, etc.) or a historic structure report completed, the use of the structure should be determined in order to guide the ensuing course of action. For example, if the structure is going to be used as a residence, in addition to sensitive treatment of architectural elements, the owner will need to make sure it meets all building codes for residential structures and perhaps update electrical and plumbing fixtures. If the structure is intended for a commercial use, aspects such as Americans

[29] *Ibid*.
[30] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, *Noble Hill School Suggestions for Stabilization/Rehabilitation*, 1.

with Disabilities Act accessibility, sprinkler systems, and heating and air conditioning systems might need to be taken into consideration. A thorough preservation plan will not only save time, it will ensure that the intended purpose for the structure is realized and will assist in creating an accurate budget for the project.

Finance

Fortunately, there is a myriad of types of financial assistance for the preservation of historic structures. The intended use of the resource and its status as a certified historic structure will determine the kinds of financial assistance available. Financial assistance is typically in the form of tax incentives, loans, and grants and is available at the national, state, and local levels. At the national level, the most successful financial incentive available is the Federal Rehabilitation Investment Tax Credit (RITC). Federal law provides a federal income tax credit equal to twenty percent of the cost of rehabilitating a historic building for commercial use.[31] In order to qualify for the credit, the property must be a certified historic structure (listed on the National Register of Historic Places) or a contributing property to a registered historic district, and the work must meet the Secretary of Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation. Non-historic buildings built before 1936 qualify for a ten percent tax credit.[32] Another type of tax incentive is a conservation or preservation easement, a legal agreement between the property owner and a qualifying organization that is designed to protect a significant historic, archaeological, or cultural resource.[33] In the case of a facade easement, the owner retains use of the property but agrees to relinquish the right to alter the facade—in perpetuity—and in return, receives a one-time tax deduction. Easements can be applied to residential, commercial, or non-profit

[31] National Trust for Historic Preservation, "Funding, Historic Commercial Buildings"; available from http//:www.nationaltrust.org/funding; accessed 12 February 2007.
[32] Tyler, *Historic Preservation*, 195.
[33] Tyler, *Historic Preservation*,187.

properties and the property must be individually listed in the National Register or is a contributing property within a historic district.

As for loan opportunities at the national level, the Department of Housing and Urban Development's Federal Housing Administration (FHA) offers flexible loan programs for developers, investors, and families to buy and restore historic properties in urban and rural historic districts.[34] The U.S. Department of Agriculture's Rural Housing Service also offers funds for the acquisition, construction, repair or rehabilitation of residential properties in rural areas.[35] The National Trust offers several loans and investment options for those individuals wanting to restore a historic building for a commercial use. These loans do not have any requirements for the property to be a certified historic structure or within a historic district.

In additional to federal tax incentives and loans, a wide range of funding and grant opportunities are also available on the national level and are mostly aimed to assist nonprofits and public agencies using historic structures. Another successful, wide-reaching federally funded grant is the Transportation Equity Act for the 21st Century (TEA-21). Sponsored by the Federal Highway Administration and administered, in the state of Georgia, by the Georgia Department of Transportation, TEA-21 provides funds for transportation-related project enhancements such as: acquisition of scenic easements and historic sites; scenic or historic highway programs, including the provision of tourist and welcome center facilities; historic preservation; rehabilitation and operation of historic transportation buildings, structures, and facilities; and landscaping or other scenic beautification.[36] State and local agencies are eligible to apply for this matching grant, with eighty percent of the funding provided by the federal government and the remaining twenty percent from local funding with a $1,000,000 maximum.

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[34] National Trust for Historic Preservation, "National Preservation Endowment: Financial Assistance Programs": available from http://www.nationaltrust.org/funding; Internet; accessed 12 February 2007.
[35] *Ibid*.
[36] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, "Funding Sources".

Another matching grant program is the National Preservation Endowment, the financial assistance program of the NTHP, which provides matching grants for preservation planning and educational efforts as well as intervention funds for preservation emergencies.[37] The National Preservation Endowment matching grants may be used to obtain professional expertise in the areas of architecture, archaeology, engineering, preservation planning, land-use planning, fundraising, organizational development, and to provide preservation education activities. Another grant available through the NTHP that could be applicable to Rosenwald schools is Save America's Treasures Grants. These grants are available for preservation work on nationally significant historic structures and sites, are awarded through a competitive process, and require a dollar-for-dollar non-Federal match.[38] The National Park Service also offers funding for a variety of grant programs aimed at protecting significant historic and cultural sites and the country's diverse cultural heritage.

At the state level, Georgia offers tax incentive programs and grant programs for historic properties. The two state tax incentive programs are the Georgia State Income Tax Credit Program for Rehabilitated Historic Property and the State Preferential Property Tax Assessment Program for Rehabilitated Historic Property. While the former provides a tax credit for owners of historic homes, the later is applicable to Rosenwald schools as it is designed to encourage the rehabilitation of residential and commercial properties by freezing the property tax assessments for eight and one-half years at pre-rehabilitation assessment values. Properties must be listed or eligible for listing in the Georgia Register of Historic Places and the rehabilitation work must be in accordance with the Georgia SHPO's standards for rehabilitation.[39]

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[37] National Trust for Historic Preservation, "National Preservation Endowment: Financial Assistance Programs".
[38] *Ibid*.
[39] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, "Funding Sources"; available from http://www.gashpo.org; Internet; accessed 5 February 2007.

The Georgia Heritage Grant Program offers matching funds on a statewide competitive basis to local governments and nonprofit organizations for the preservation of properties listed on the Georgia Register and eligible or listed on the National Register.[40] Each year, approximately twenty projects are selected for funding based on need, degree of threat to the resources, project planning, and community benefit from the resource.[41] In order to be eligible for a Georgia Heritage Grant, applicants must meet the following criteria:

1. be a local government or private secular nonprofit organization;
2. have documentation of matching funds (equal to at least forty percent of the project);
3. ensure that all grant assisted work meets the applicable Secretary of the Interior's Standards;
4. have the property/properties listed in, or eligible for listing in, the National and Georgia Registers of Historic Places prior to the reimbursement of funds and;
5. agree to execute a Covenant Agreement on the property to assure public access, maintenance, and compliance with preservation standards for five years.[42]

As mentioned previously, the Elderites recently received a Georgia Heritage Grant to perform maintenance and repairs on the roof, windows, and woodwork of the T. J. Elder Community Center.

Private foundations also are an excellent source of funding, particularly for nonprofit agencies. Private foundations usually limit giving to a specific geographic region and/or a specific purpose, such as for educational programs or African American heritage sites. The extra

[40] Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, "Georgia Heritage Grant Program"; available from http://www.gashpo.org; Internet; accessed 5 February 2007.
[41] *Ibid.*
[42] *Ibid*.

time and effort spent identifying the appropriate foundations from which to request funding and creating an organized and thorough proposal could prove extremely worthwhile.

Clearly, numerous resources exist to aid individuals and groups who want to save a historic building, yet are unsure of where or how to start or how to finance such an undertaking. By contacting the local State Historic Preservation Office, access can be gained to a group of professionals whose job it is to guide those wanting to undertake the rehabilitation of a historic property, are seeking funding, or just need advice. As shown with the three Rosenwald school case studies, the groups restoring and saving the schools utilized the services of the Georgia SHPO to get a structural evaluation, secure funding, and obtain listing on the National Register. By taking advantage of the services of the Georgia SHPO, and later GAAPHN, these three schools have found new ways to serve their communities as museums and community centers.

Summary

The story of the Rosenwald schools is one based within the African American communities of the southern United States. Due to their determination to provide a better education and life for their children, these community members sacrificed, saved, and sweated in order to procure a Rosenwald school. Seventy years later, the story of these schools remains within these communities as alumni and others work to preserve their Rosenwald schools. Groups like the Elderites and the Noble Hill School trustees, led by Dr. Wheeler, pioneered the movement to save their schools. Their efforts, trials and tribulations, and successes set examples for future preservationists—such as Vivian Anderson and Joan Battle of the Hiram Colored School—of how to preserve a Rosenwald school. The job has been made somewhat easier due to national attention and more concentrated efforts to find and preserve Rosenwald schools at the regional, through the Rosenwald Initiative Task Force and at the state level through the Georgia

SHPO African American programs division and GAAPHN. Such efforts need to be continued and strengthened at the local level through the creation of a state-level Rosenwald school task force to raise awareness, provide support, and increase participation in the preservation of Rosenwald schools in Georgia and the investigation of preservation ordinances and rural preservation programs as forms of protection for Rosenwald schools. However, through current efforts and avenues, several Rosenwald schools in Georgia have been successfully rehabilitated and reintegrated into their communities as residences, town halls, and daycare centers. Although these schoolhouses have new roles, they still represent the legacies of Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald and their dedication to African American education. More importantly, perhaps, the schools will always signify the efforts of the African American communities that sought to provide a better education and future for their children.

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Appendix A

Table 1A: Rosenwald Schools Constructed in Georgia

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
Appling	Selma	2	$1702	1915
Atkinson	Kirkland	1	$1300	1922
Baldwin	County Training School/Milledgeville	7	$15,000	1925-26
Banks	Homer	2	$850	1916
Bartow	Cassville/Wheeler-Noble Hill	2	$2125	1923
	County Training School	6	$10,450	
Ben Hill	County Training School/Fitzgerald	7	$20,640	1925-26
Berrien	Nashville	3	$5,000	
Bibb	Swift Creek	2	$2,500	
	Mount Hope/Walden	2	$2,500	
Bleckley	Cochran	3	$4,925	1930
Brooks	Crossroads	2	$2,680	1927
	Simmon Hill/Brooks County Training School	3	$5,575	
	Quitman	6	$14,750	1928
	Morven	2	$3,000	1930
	Grooverville	2	$2,150	
Bryan	Daniel Siding	3	$4,650	1930-31
Bulloch	County Training School	4	$3,850	1922
	Willow Hill	2	$1,507	
	County Training School #2	8	$13,000	1925-26
	Pope	1	$1,025	
	Riggs	1	$775	
	Statesboro	5	$6,300	1931-32

Source: Jeanne Cyriaque, Georgia State Historic Preservation Office, Atlanta, 2007.

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
Burke	Keysville School & Teacher Home	3	$3,000	
Burke	Midville	2	$3,000	
	Rays Bridge	4	$800	1917-18
	Walkers Grove	2	$2,675	
Camden	Waverly	2	$2,756	1930-31
	Kinlaw	3	$2,859	
	County Training School/St. Mary's	4	$9,610	
Campbell[1]	Fairburn	4	$3,550	
	Palmetto	3	$2,710	1928
	Poplar Spring	1	---	
	Rivertown	1	$1,350	1925-26
Carroll	County Training School	---	---	1932
	Springer	2	$1,971	
Charlton	Folkston	2	$2,500	1927
Chatham	Pin Point	2	$5,000	1925-26
	Practical Georgia A&M/Thunderbolt/Powell Laboratory	3	$5,300	1925-26
Chattahoochee	Cusseta	2	$2,975	1930
	Friendship	2	$2,804	1930
Chattooga	County Training School/Holland	4	$7,550	1927
Clarke	Clarke Training School	4	$4,200	
	Clarke Training School #2	5	$7,628	1925-26
Clay	Fort Gaines	5	$7,650	1929
Clinch	Dupont	2	$2,900	
Cobb	Acworth	2	$3,250	
	Marietta High and Industrial School	5	$10,450	1930
	Jonesville	1	$1,615	1921
Coffee	County Training School	5	$8,500	1923
Coffee	Paulk	2	$1,950	
Colquitt	Union Grove	1	$1,500	1921

[1] Campbell County was ceded to Fulton County in 1931.

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
	Funston	4	$4,700	1927
Colquitt	Union Grove #2	1	$1,382	
	County Training School & Industrial Shop/Moultrie	8	$18,600	1925-26
Cook	County Training School & Teacher Home/Adel	11	$12,750	1922
	Sparks	3	$2,875	
Coweta	Turin/Walter B. Hill Industrial School	3	$3,100	1925-26
	Senoia	3	$3,600	1927
	Mount Zion	2	$1,250	
	Moreland/Brown Industrial School	3	$3,428	
	McCollum	2	$2,600	1928
Crisp	County Training School/Cordele	6	$8,400	1929
Decatur	Climax	2	$1,900	
	Bainbridge	6	$20,000	
DeKalb	Stone Mountain	4	$6,010	1927
	Scottdale	5	$6,300	
	Moriah	2	$6,000	1929
Dodge	Chauncey	1	$1,799	
	Coffee/Rhine	2	$2,350	
	Chester College	4	$3,300	
Dooly	County Training School/Vienna	7	$17,737	1925-26
Dougherty	Practical Georgia N & A	8	$39,000	1930-31
Early	Spring Creek	3	$1,625	1917-18
	County Training School & Teacher Home/Spring Creek #2	4	$7,050	1925-26
	St. Maryland	2	$2,020	1929
	Pleasant Hill	1	$1,625	
Elbert	Centerville/Maple Springs	2	$3,200	
	Centerville #2/Maple Springs	2	$3.103	
Emanuel	Summertown	3	$5,272	
	Delwood	2	$3,750	1930-31
	Swainsboro	4	$3,200	
	Summitt	3	$5,750	1930-31
Floyd	County Training School/Rome High & Industrial School	3	$2,020	

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
	Cave Spring	3	$4,100	
	West Rome	3	$4,100	
Floyd	Summerhill	2	$1,950	1921
Franklin	Royston	3	$2,700	1922
Fulton	Springfield	4	$5,000	
	Battle Hill	4	$5,500	
	Hapeville	4	$6,715	
	Thomasville	4	$6,000	
	East Point	9	$19,300	1927
Glynn	County Training School/Risley High School	10	$39,000	1922
Gordon	Calhoun	3	$6,364	1929
Gwinnett	Norcross	2	$1,900	
Hall	State Industrial School & Teacher Home	3	$6,445	1921
Hancock	Springfield Industrial School & Shop	3	$3,700	1922
	Sparta/Agricultural & Industrial School	5	$3,950	
	East End/Sparta	4	$4,775	1930
Harris	Whitesville	4	$5,321	1927
Hart	Hartwell	5	$7,000	
	County Training School – Teacher Home	---	$2,400	1930
	Flat Rock	3	$3,400	1922
	Camp Ground	2	$2,500	1929
Heard	State Line	2	$1,700	
Henry	Mount Carmel	1	$1,400	
	County Training School & Teacher Home	6	$14,500	
	Red Oak	2	$1,900	
Henry	Stockbridge	2	$2,700	1930-31
	Unity Grove	2	$2,537	1930-31
Houston	McKensie	1	$1,200	
	Mount Nebo	2	$1,775	1922
	Mount Olive	1	$1,100	1925-26
	County Training School/Perry	5	$6,900	1925-26
	King's Chapel	2	$2,135	1921

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
	Jerusalem	2	$1,900	1922
	Henderson	1	$1,200	
	Green Grove	1	$1,150	
Jackson	Commerce	2	$3,000	1930
	Neal	2	$2,850	1928
Jasper	County Training School	6	$8,000	
	County Training School – Teacher Home/Monticello	---	$3,400	1921
	Midway	3	$1,250	
Jeff Davis	Hazlehurst	2	$3,600	1925-26
	Column Union	2	$1,495	
Jefferson	Wrens	4	$5,675	1929
	County Training School/Louisville	4	$4,625	1928
Jenkins	County Training School/Millen	5	$6,300	1925-26
Johnson	Dock Kemp	4	$4,100	
Lamar	Sugar Hill	2	$2,000	1925-26
	Flint Chapel	1	$1,200	1925-26
	Barnesville	4	$5,600	
Laurens	Millville	3	$2,475	
Lee	Century	2	$2,200	
	Leesburg	4	$5,900	1928
	Smithville	4	$8,000	1929
Liberty	County Training School & Shop/Crossroads	4	$5,370	1928, 1931
	Hinesville Shaw	2	$2,300	1930-31
	Trinity	1	$2,420	1922
Lowndes	Onsley	1	$745	1915
	Valdosta High School/Dasher	8	$25,355	1929
	Mount Zion	7	$11,500	
	Mount Olive	1	$1,025	1916
Macon	County Training School & Shop/Montezuma	6	$19,625	1925-26
	Oglethorpe	2	$2,400	1922
McIntosh	Harris Neck	3	$3,000	
	Sapelo	2	$3,725	1927

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
	Todd-Grant Industrial School	4	$4,900	1930-31
	Carnagan	2	$1,900	
Meriwether	Woodbury	4	$6,300	1927
	Wilson Chapel/Greenville	3	$3,540	
Meriwether	Luthersville	3	$4,233	1925-26
	Eleanor Roosevelt/Warm Springs	6	$16,500	1936
	County Training School/Manchester	5	$13,600	1928
	Durand	3	$5,300	1929
Miller	Colquitt	3	$5,000	
Mitchell	Camilla/Old Rockdale	6	$9,700	1930-31
	County Training School/Pelham	7	$11,300	1923
	Sale City	3	$4,550	1930-31
Monroe	A & M Practice School & Teacher Home	11	$26,700	1928, 1930-31
	A & M School & Teacher Home/Forsyth Normal & Industrial School	Teacher Home	$2,100	1928
	Job's Chapel	2	$2,500	1930-31
Montgomery	Ailey	3	$3,650	1927
	Homes Chapel	2	$1,900	
Muscogee	Spencer High	---	---	
	Wynton Hill	3	$6,708	1929
	Tabernacle	2	$3,820	1928
Newton	Livingston	3	$3,000	1922
	Bentley	1	$2,950	
	Nixon's Chapel	1	$1,325	1925-26
	Oxford	3	$3,300	1922
Oconee	Watkinsville	4	$5,810	1928
Paulding	Hiram	2	$3,010	1930
Peach	Powersville	3	$2,600	
	Allen Chapel	3	$3,218	
	Byron	3	$2,150	
	County Training School/Fort Valley	10	$32,600	1927
	Live Oak	1	$1,500	

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
	Myrtle	2	$1,550	
Pierce	Blackshear	4	$6,880	1925-26
	Patterson	2	$3,050	1929
Pike	Central	1	$996	1915
	Concord	2	$2,650	1930
Pike	Zebulon	2	$3,000	
Polk	Seney	3	$3,200	1921
	Cherokee	2	$2,715	1925-26
	Rockmart	4	$3,700	1921
Pulaski	Hawkinsville	6	$7,500	
Randolph	County Training School/Howard Normal & Industrial School	6	$11,500	
	Pumpkin Town	2	$2,000	1921
	Coleman	2	$2,325	1925-26
	Shellman	3	$1,585	
Richmond	Steed	6	$26,850	1928
Screven	County Training School/Sylvania High & Industrial School	8	$14,000	
	Bascom	2	$2,000	
	County Training School/Sylvania	4	$3,300	1930-31
Seminole	Donalsonville	3 or 6	$11,950	1930-31
Spalding	Griffin Vocational School	6	$16,500	1929
Stewart	County Training School & Teacher Home/Richland	5	$7,250	1922
	Lumpkin	4	$5,500	
	Kimbrough	4	$4,525	1928
	Omaha	4	$5,000	1925-26
Sumter	New Shady Grove School, Teacher Home, & Shop/Nunn Industrial School	3	$4,500	1922, 1925-26, 1929
	Plains	5	$4,000	
	Shady Grove	4	$4,700	1930-31
	Mount Zion	2	$1,900	1922
	Gatewood	2	$2,690	
	Shipp Industrial School & Teacher Home/County Training School	5	$8,600	

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
Taliaferro	Oak Grove	2	$1,700	1922
Tattnall	Manassas	2	$1,767	1915
	Ebenezer	2	$2,010	1922
Taylor	Reynolds	4	$3,400	1921
	Butler	3	$3,900	
	Pottersville	2	$2,750	1925-26
Telfair	Cedar Park	1	$1,450	
Thomas	County Training School/Douglass High School	5	$15,000	1925-26
	Oscilla Consolidated School & Shop	3	$6,329	1930
Tift	Tifton	6	$3,800	1930-31
	County Industrial High School/County Training Building	8	$18,000	1916
Toombs	Vidalia	3	$2,250	
Treutlen	Treutlen	2	$1,600	
Troup	West Point	9	$24,730	1930-31
Walker	Dewberry	1	$1,428	
Walton	Logansville	2	$2,650	1930-31
	Peters	3	$3,550	1930-31
	Thompson	2	$2,650	1930-31
Ware	Glenmore	2	$4,245	1921
Washington	County Training School/T.J. Elder High & Industrial School	6	$18,600	1927-28
	Royal	3	$3,400	1927
	Tennille	4	$3,500	1922
Wayne	Screven	1	$775	1917-18
	Screven (Rebuilt)	3	$3,300	1925-26
	County Training School	5	$13,100	
	Middle Grove	1	$1,450	
Webster	Shiloh-Weston	3	$2,975	1925-26
Wilcox	Turner	4	$3,100	
	Rochelle	3	$3,998	1930-31
Wilkes	Tignall	2	$3,100	1921
Wilkinson	Toomsboro	4	$2,665	1921
	Gordon	4	$4,100	1922

County	School Name	Teacher Type	Total Cost	Year of Construction
	Calvary Hill	1	$1,650	

APPENDIX B

Criteria of Eligibility for the National Register of Historic Places

The National Register of Historic Places is the official register of properties that are historically and/or architecturally significant. Resources are evaluated under four criteria, A, B, C, and D, as outlined in 36 CFR Part 60, National Register of Historic Places, Nominations by State and Federal Agencies and 36 CFR Part 800, Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, Protection of Historic and Cultural Properties.[1] The four criteria are:

A. Properties that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to broad patterns of our history;

B. Properties that are associated with lives of persons significant in our past;

C. Properties that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components ma lack individual distinction; and

D. Properties that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, important information about prehistory or history.

[1] National Park Service, *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, 2.