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“Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971” is not an NPS-approved Multiple Property Documentation Form. It is a well-researched document with contextual history pertaining to schools in Georgia. It is to be used in addition to other research for National Register of Historic Places nominations. The document cannot serve as the only evidence in support of significance for a school.

When referring to the document in text please refer to it as:
Statewide historic context, “Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971”

Citation Guidance:

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In text body

(Ellis et. al. 2004, p.#)

Bibliography

Ellis, Marion, Bamby Ray, Lynn Speno. 2004. “Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971” Draft statewide historic context document. Ray and Associates. On file at Historic Preservation Division, Department of Community Affairs, Atlanta, Georgia. Available at: <https://dca.georgia.gov/community-assistance/historic-preservation/research-and-documentation-tools/historic-contexts>

**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form**

This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

A. NAME OF MULTIPLE PROPERTY LISTING

Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971

B. ASSOCIATED HISTORIC CONTEXTS

N/A

C. FORM PREPARED BY

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D. CERTIFICATION

Signature and title of certifying official

Date

State or Federal agency and bureau

Signature of the Keeper

Date of Action

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E. STATEMENT OF HISTORIC CONTEXTS

The development of free public education in Georgia beginning in the second half of the 19th century was one of the most significant events in the social, political and educational history of the state. This context study focuses on public elementary and secondary school buildings, which were funded in full, or in part, by city, county, state, and federal funds arising from legislation between 1868 and 1971. Private colleges, academies, and universities and deaf, blind, normal, and industrial schools funded by local, state or federal government are not included. The types of properties associated with this context are the rural public school, urban public school, the consolidated public school, and the early modern public school. Included within the consolidated public school and the early modern public school are various unattached auxiliary structures such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, libraries, cafeterias, and vocational educational buildings, which in some schools resulted in campus-like developments.

Early Public Education in Georgia, 1734-1900: An Overview

In the early years of colonial North America, religion provided the foundation of most academic teachings. Children were taught from the classics or the Bible and three distinct patterns emerged in the colonies. The residents of New England, in general, wanted their children to learn to read the Bible in an effort to spread their faith. In Massachusetts, education was legislated by the state, which was tied to the church. In the Southern colonies, education was based upon the English precedent, and the Anglican faith provided a strong basis for their educational ideals. The Southern aristocracy had access to private tutors or academies. Southerners employed by the aristocracy, if they received an education, were likely taught by the church or members of the community.

Georgia's earliest schoolmaster dates to 1734, one year after the colony was founded. Christopher Ortman settled north of Savannah, at Ebenezer, upon his arrival in the colony with the Salzburgers, a group of German settlers. The following year a group of Moravians founded a school nearby in an effort to educate the Creek Indians. In Savannah, an attempt at free schooling for the poor began in 1741, but did not last long because people were reluctant to seek help in educating their children. Private schools did develop, sometimes founded by tutors as a means of consolidating the education of children living in neighboring areas. However, the widely scattered population, and the diversity of nationalities, religions, and languages were hindrances to the establishment of schools. Georgia's wealthy families sent their boys to the North or to Europe for advanced schooling. Girls were taught reading, writing, and household skills at home. In the South it was prohibited to teach slaves to read or write.

Georgia in the 18th and early 19th centuries remained a rural state whose population mostly lived outside of the few urban areas. By the 1830s, settlement reached the most northern counties as Indian lands were ceded to whites in land lotteries. The state Constitution of 1777 provided for schools to be established in every county and paid for by state funds, but few schools were built. Most children who received an education went to private academies. Early private schools were constructed in Piedmont cities of Augusta, Lexington, Macon, Madison, Milledgeville, Monticello, Sparta, and Washington.

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More common were rural "field schools" housed in crudely built log structures or abandoned farm buildings that were converted to use as schools. These schools, which were sometimes located in the corners of unused fields, were supported by the community. The academic year, which lasted three or four months, revolved around the agricultural calendar so the children could help with the family farm, especially during planting and harvesting seasons.

In an attempt to provide education for the general population, the state legislature in 1817 passed an Act of December 18, 1817 to fund "the future establishment of Free Schools." The act provided \$250,000 and was followed the next year by a provision to educate the state's poor children with funds from the land lottery. In 1821, the General Assembly passed legislation to permanently endow the private academies and increase funds for the poor school fund, which provided tuition for poor students. Free schools for the poor were established in Savannah and Augusta and in Baldwin, Glynn, McIntosh, and Richmond counties. State efforts were bolstered by the federal government, which in 1835 provided each state with funds for public schools. The Georgia legislature set aside one-third of the federal money for a "permanent Free School and Education Fund."

In the years before the Civil War, the state's economy was tied to the price of cotton, which increased steadily and resulted in greater prosperity among large planters and small farmers. However, numerous measures to establish public schools were introduced in the legislature but none passed. Elected in 1857, Governor Joseph Emerson Brown fought for free schools for the state's majority of small farmers and led an effort to amend the poor school fund, which excluded many children and often left teachers unpaid. The resulting 1858 legislation permitted funds to be distributed on the basis of all white children, not all poor children. Counties could supplement state funds by levying a tax similar to incorporated cities and towns, which had already been providing education through a local tax. Additionally, income from the Western and Atlantic Railroad was added to the state educational fund. In the first year of its existence, all Georgia counties participated in the fund. Despite Brown's promising initiatives, development of the state's system for public education ended in 1861 with the beginning of the Civil War.

Georgia's economy, like that of all other Southern states, was in ruins following the Civil War. Legislation enacted on December 12, 1866 provided for a system of common schools for white children, a state superintendent, county commissioners, and three trustees in each county district. The law, "An Act to Provide for Education, and to Establish a General System of Georgia Schools" was funded by a county tax and money from a state educational fund. In recognition of the state's need to avoid overburdening its perilous post-war economy, the legislature did not put the law into effect until January 1, 1868.

Northern philanthropic groups provided support for schools in the aftermath of the war. George Peabody, a Massachusetts native, donated over \$1 million for education in the South in 1867 and 1869. The Peabody Fund was allocated to any school in need, white or black. To alleviate the scarcity of teachers throughout the region, the fund provided scholarships for teacher training and money to establish teachers' institutes. Other groups focused on the needs of former slaves, such as freedmen's societies and the American Missionary Association.

Georgia's Second Constitutional Convention was held from December 1867 to March 1868. The new Constitution provided for the establishment of a statewide school system to include both races. The

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Committee on Education recommended provisions for a state university, separate educational facilities for African-American children, a board of education, and a superintendent of public education. School funds were to come from corporate stock dividends owned by the state, net income from the Western and Atlantic Railroad, the poll tax, and any surplus in the state treasury at fiscal year-end.

A state law passed on October 13, 1870, entitled "An Act to Establish a System of Public Instruction," provided for state and county boards of education, a state school commissioner, county commissioners, sub-districts in each county with school trustees, a state teacher licensing board, migratory schools, and separate schools for white and black children. Rather than build new schools, the state required communities to donate or rent school buildings for the first year of operation. As the state grappled to comply with the law, the difficulties soon became apparent. The state's poverty following the war coupled with the need to build schools for whites and the children of newly freed slaves proved to be financial and organization obstacles. Misappropriations and poor planning resulted in school closures the following year.

The 1870 act was amended in 1872 to allow provisions for teaching spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic to children of both races, which were to be taught in separate facilities for three months of the year. A state board of education, a court of appeals, a state school commissioner, and county boards of education were established in the law. Funds for schools came from the poll tax, a special tax on shows and exhibitions, liquors, endowments and gifts, all educational funds not belonging to the state university and one-half of the rental proceeds from the Western and Atlantic Railroad. There was no provision for a local tax. Any city or county with a population of more than 2,000 could operate a public school and draw its share from the state fund. It was not until 1889 that the state began direct taxation for schools with a tax levied on personal property. This provided that all taxes from taxable property in excess of \$360 million were directed to the public school fund, resulting in a yield of \$50,575 in 1889 and \$140,606 in 1890, the first full year funds were received. The school fund was not separated between the races, rather it was apportioned based on the school population. In 1891, the school term was increased to five months. By 1894 private schools had lost favor to public schools as the most widely established form of education.

By the end of the 19th century, Georgia made tremendous achievements in public education. However, the state's efforts, in the face of advances in northern states, were limited because of the devastation of the Civil War and its aftermath, segregationist education policies, and the inability to raise taxes to support public education. In the majority of the northern and western states, schools systems were established with taxes and supported by local taxes and additional state funds. Southern school systems were formed entirely with state funds. Most states, excepting some of the Southern states, provided free nine-month school terms for its students and most states spent ten-times per child what Georgia spent on public education.

Public Education for African Americans in Georgia

Although learning to read and write was forbidden by law and custom to slaves, there were some who were educated. Owners sometimes taught their slaves who served as foremen and household servants basic skills to aid in their jobs and some Southern cities tolerated church-run schools for slaves. Some

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slaves learned to read at secret schools, such as the one operated by a Miss Deaveaux in Savannah. After Nat Turner's revolt in Virginia in 1831, the penalties for teaching free blacks and slaves were strengthened.

Following the Civil War, newly freed slaves received offers of free education for their children. Freedmen's societies and the American Missionary Association led groups and organizations aiding the former slaves. The Freedmen's Bureau gave \$6 million for a five-year program in an effort to fund education for African Americans in the South. The Dorchester Academy in Liberty County, Risley School in Brunswick, and Evergreen Church and School in rural Grady County were established under the auspices of the American Missionary Association. Almost every major religious denomination provided teachers and donations of food, clothing, money, and books. Schools were formed on plantations under federal control, or in contraband camps. Some schools evolved from church classes, while ex-slaves financed others as a way to educate their families who remained on plantations. As fast as teachers could be found, schools opened for day and night classes.

African-American provided leadership in the development of their schools. In 1865, black leaders formed the Georgia Educational Association in an effort to supervise schools, establish school policies, and to raise funds for education. This organization sustained two-thirds of the African-American schools in Georgia. The Savannah Educational Association, an African-American organization, formed to support the city's schools and educational policies. By 1867, there were almost 100 African-American schools in Georgia. One year later, there were 152 African-American schools representing two-thirds of all Georgia schools.

Education for African Americans was source of friction among whites, who feared that educated blacks would refuse to do fieldwork or domestic service. Whites destroyed schools and textbooks and some whites refused to let rooms to northern teachers who arrived to educate former slaves. Most of the African-American schools operated by the Freedman's Bureau or the American Missionary Association, had facilities on par with white schools. Most black schools, however, were held in churches, lodge halls, or abandoned huts with little furniture or equipment. In the years after the Civil war, there were not enough schools to accommodate most rural African-American children.

During Reconstruction, Congress enacted laws to protect newly freed blacks, such as the Civil Rights Act of 1866, designed to overturn prior discriminatory laws. The Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution denied states the right to deprive anyone of "life, liberty or property without due process of law." These laws, which provided all citizens with equal rights, relied on the federal government for enforcement.

Southern states responded with more than 400 state laws, constitutional amendments, and city ordinances that legalized segregation and discrimination in the United States between 1865 and 1967. These "Jim Crow" laws, as they came to be known, governed nearly every aspect of daily life, from education to public transportation, from health care and housing to the use of public facilities. African-American children got their first taste of racial discrimination when they found themselves barred from attending school with white children, and being sent, instead, to inferior facilities. Strict racial segregation proved problematic in securing funds for African-American public schools because many whites resented funding schools for African Americans, whom they believed paid fewer taxes.

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By 1890, less than one percent of black children attended high school and two-thirds of those attended a private school. In 1896, the Supreme Court in *Plessy v. Ferguson* provided the legal underpinning for racial segregation under the “separate, but equal” doctrine. Since the Civil War, Southern schools were separate, but unequal. Georgia Governor Allen Chandler publicly stated his disapproval of the black race, believing that their education was not appropriate. Few public high schools existed for blacks in the South. Church basements or vacant stores served as schoolhouses for younger African-American children. Salaries for teachers and the length of the school term for African-American children lagged behind that of whites

By 1890, Booker T. Washington was among the most prominent African-Americans in the country. Washington believed in educating his fellow African-Americans within the framework of racial separation that existed in the South. Southern politicians and the northern philanthropists supported Washington’s views, advocating industrial education over academic and technical fields. Philanthropists, including John D. Rockefeller, established funds for education including the General Education Board, the Anna T. Jeanes Fund, the Phelps-Stokes Fund, and the Rosenwald rural school program. These funds provided money and an organizational structure that shaped post-bellum education for blacks in Georgia and the rural South.

The Jeanes Fund and later the Rural School Fund significantly determined the forms of education available to Southern blacks during the first half of the 20th century. The Slater Fund, a fund designed to encourage public support of African-American secondary schools, was a source of encouragement and generated funds from other sources. The Slater Fund also established county training schools to provide teachers. The Phelps-Stokes Fund provided money for teachers’ pay. The Rosenwald Fund provided money for African-American schools, which were then required to become part of the public school system. The fund relied on financial support and labor from its recipients. The popular program lasted from 1913 to 1932 and built 5,327 public schools in the 15 Southern states. Georgia received aid for 242 schools in 103 counties. The fund influenced the design of the schools by providing recommended standardized plans for bright and sanitary school buildings.

Between 1915 and 1929, a steady migration of rural blacks to cities in both the North and South resulted in a major demographic shift in the population. The Great Migration was fueled by the devastating affect of the boll weevil on cotton farming and the availability of industrial jobs in urbanized areas. This population shift had a direct impact upon education. In Georgia by 1916, 122 public high schools served only the state’s white students. It was not until 1924 that Atlanta’s first African-American high school opened, Booker T. Washington High School. Ware High School in Augusta was among the first high schools for African-Americans in the South. It opened in 1880, offering a classical curriculum. Its enrollment doubled by 1897, but was ordered closed by the Richmond County School Board so that its operating funds could be used to support the county’s financially strapped African-American primary schools. Black leaders protested and filed suit. The case ultimately went before the United States Supreme Court, which ruled that public education was a matter belonging to the states, thereby giving Southern states the prerogative to intensify discrimination in publicly funded activities. With the widening racial gap in the early 20th century, less than 10 percent of the total allocation for public schools was spent on black schools. As late as 1910 in Georgia, most black schools met in homes or churches and most black children did not attend school because of the lack of teachers and nearby schools, overcrowding, and because their labor was needed on the farm. By the mid-1930s, only 20 percent of black children attended public high school.

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Public Schools in Rural Georgia

Rural schools were smaller, more poorly equipped, and operated on a shorter school term than schools in the urban areas. In the 1880s, there were no schoolhouses owned by any county board of education in the state. The boards had no means to purchase or build schools. School lessons were often taught in existing buildings that were donated with no modifications to accommodate their new function as schools. In 1883, throughout rural areas of Georgia 4,517 white and 2,020 black schools operated on a three-month term. Beginning in 1894, almost 3,000 rural schoolhouses were constructed with locally raised money.

The curriculum for rural grammar schools in the early years consisted of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and spelling. An account from Appling County, Georgia describes life in an ungraded rural school in the early 20th century:

The school buildings . . . were better built than the earlier log cabin structures. . . . They were one or two room frame buildings with glass windows, usually two cloak rooms and a porch on the front. . . . Schedules designating certain children each day to bring in wood . . . sweep the room . . . wash the blackboards and dust the erasers . . . were set up by the teacher and posted in the room each week. The three or four holed privies . . . were located at the rear of the building. . . . Most of the buildings were painted and the schoolyard fenced. School lunches often consisted of a biscuit and syrup. . . . The water supply was a well or a spring . . . A water bucket was standard school equipment and all the pupils drank from the same dipper. . . . If a child misbehaved, he was given a crack on the head with a pencil, or a whipping. . . . At recess, the children played town ball or baseball, hopscotch, drop the handkerchief and other similar games. . . . The teacher had the primer, first, second, third and fourth grade scholars in the same room at the same time. The older students would hear the younger ones recite. . . . A child carried his tools of learning with him to school. They were books, a slate and a slate pencil. . . . A scholar's first job was to learn his ABCs, and as he learned his letters, he was learning to make them into words. . . . Then came number work . . . with multiplication matches which reinforced learning. . . . Spelling had a high priority and the progress of the child was tested by a spelling match where the scholars were lined up in two groups and the teacher fired words at them. If a child missed a word, he sat down, and the last one standing was pronounced the winner.

The recollections of a former student in Fulton County from the mid-20th century indicate that little had changed in rural Georgia in 20 years.

Morgan Falls Grammar School was located about 1½ miles away from where we lived. . . . It was a small wooden building with two rooms and a hall in a strictly rural setting. Grades 1 through 3 were in one room and grades 4 through 7 in the other room. There was an entrance with two or three steps to the hallway at each end of the building and doorways from the hallway into each room. The hallway served as a cloakroom. Each room had a pot-bellied stove. Outhouses served as restrooms. . . . A spring located in the deep woods of a holler 400 yards distant served our water needs. A bucket of drinking water was maintained in the hall with a dipper. Each student provided his or her own drinking cup. . . . There was a play yard in the front of the school. The students performed the duties of janitor, cutting wood, making

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fires, bringing up water from the spring and other duties as assigned. There were 35 to 40 students at most.

As the state's rural population declined, it became harder for small communities to maintain their public schools. A state law enacted in 1889 allowed county boards of education to alter school district boundaries, which resulted in smaller, more numerous school districts. Districts with large student populations expanded as smaller districts faced budget shortfalls. Teachers increasingly sought opportunities provided by urban school districts. Rural schools, which were often poorly heated in winter, did not provide a positive learning environment. Schools in rural Georgia, which were usually held in the warmer months, were subject to the seasonal planting and harvest cycles when children were called upon to help their parents in the fields.

Rural public schools were constructed by builders sometimes relied on published plans for school buildings. Among the most popular was Henry Barnard's *Practical Illustrations on School Architecture*, published in 1845. Barnard, a renowned New England educator and reformer, combined his knowledge of education and architecture in this pattern book for school designers. In addition to building plans, *School Architecture* includes school furnishings.

In 1911, in an effort to improve the quality of Georgia school buildings, the Georgia Department of Education published a brochure that featured proposed plans for school buildings. M. L. Brittain, the state school superintendent, enlisted the aid of one of the state's most prominent architects, Hal Hentz of the Atlanta firm Hentz & Reed Architects. Hentz prepared plans in three different styles (Colonial, Spanish Colonial, and vernacular) for one-, two-, three- and four-room schools. The brochure also included designs supplied by L. A. Kolbach, an employee of the U.S. Department of Education.

Public Schools in Georgia's Urban Centers

Public school in Georgia's largest urban centers were established before the Civil War. Atlanta had only one school when the war began – an academy for girls. Urban schools could be created by amending the charter of the city or town. Those with 2,000 or more residents could establish independent school systems. State law gave cities the right to levy property taxes for school maintenance and the right to issue bonds for building and equipping schools. It was easy to secure a vote for the local tax in the towns and cities. Urban school systems were maintained by local taxes and operated on average for a nine-month term.

The cities fared better than the rural parts of the state during Reconstruction. Atlanta, Americus, Columbus, Sandersville and West Point operated public schools that opened their doors for six to ten months of the year. Likewise, Chatham (Savannah), Glynn (Brunswick) and Bibb (Macon) counties, all of which were home to important urban centers, operated public schools. They had a county unit system of schools with legal authority to finance them. Savannah became the first city to operate a public school system in 1866, when it brought together its public schools under one system at that time. Columbus followed suit later that year. In 1866 two elementary schools opened in Atlanta for the freed slaves' children and in 1869 the Atlanta City Council elected its first Board of Education. In 1871 Atlanta approved a bond issue, and three two-story white frame school buildings were

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constructed and in 1872 Atlanta formed the state's first public school district. Also that year, the first school for African-Americans in Columbus opened in a rented building, Temperance Hall. Dahlonga was one Georgia town that had a graded school system at the turn of the century, and children could transfer from the county to the city schools in order to complete their education.

By the 1890s, the state's efforts to revive its economy began to blossom as new industries such as cotton mills transformed cities. Many of the mills built schools for their white operatives' children. In 1892 the population within urban areas in Georgia increased twenty percent. The effect of new mill jobs in cities such as Atlanta, Columbus, Augusta, Rome, Athens and Macon meant a decrease in the state's rural population as the populace moved at a steady pace to the cities to take advantage of jobs, better educational opportunities for their children and a wider social network. The best teachers left the rural areas and went to teach in the cities because the pay was better and the pupils attended on a more regular basis. Cities such as Atlanta required stringent testing of their teachers, ensuring the best person for the job.

Between 1900-1930 the population in the cities rose from 15 percent to 30.8 percent of the state's population. The income generated by the state also increased as a result of population growth, greater wealth and new taxable items, creating more money for school coffers. The increase in funds meant better roads and better transportation facilities throughout the state as well as better schools.

By 1920, the population growth of Atlanta had resulted in an explosion of the student population. The number of schools had grown from three to 73, and the number of students from 2,090 to 41,337. For the first time, the school system was forced to buy ten portable frame buildings of two rooms each for use at various school sites, when additional classrooms were needed. A school bond issue of \$4,000,000 that passed in March 1920, and the appointment of Willis A. Sutton to the office of Superintendent of the Atlanta Public School System in 1921, resulted in the largest survey of the school system in its half-century of operation. The *Strayer-Engelhardt Report*, as it became known, addressed a wide variety of issues, such as site analysis, building structure reports, service systems, classroom layouts and specialty rooms. The report further dealt with the organization, administration and finances of the school system. A complex scoring system was developed, and scores were given to each school. Four groups were then identified according to the urgency of needed improvements. Each school was assigned to a group, and individual recommendations for each school were made. The *Strayer-Engelhardt Report* constituted a severe, in some areas even devastating, criticism of the existing Atlanta school system pointing out the unsanitary, unsafe, dilapidated nature of most of the school buildings. Many of the early city schools were wood-framed structures with no fire escapes.

Georgia, alone among the southern states, banned high schools from receiving banned public funding. Only one half of one percent of the school age population attended high school. More than half of the students that attended a high school lived in a city, town or county that levied local taxes. The schools were funded by local, independent systems without state support. However, only seven of these provided four years of education. The state legislature finally set about to remedy the situation. In 1910 the state constitution was amended by a bill (Persons Amendment), which repealed the words "in the elementary branches of an English education only." This bill also allowed the legislature the power to delegate to any county the right to levy a tax for education. A separate amendment (Stovall

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Amendment) in 1912 provided for the high schools to become a part of the public education system. This 1912 bill made provision for bonds to be issued to build and furnish schools

Whereas Georgia's rural schools were planned and built by builders and craftsmen, city schools were designed by architects. In the first decades of the 20th century, these architects practiced in the state's largest cities and some specialized in school design. Among them, Gottfried L. Norrman, a Swedish-born architect who worked in Atlanta between 1881 and 1909, designed schools in Atlanta, Savannah and Columbus. Edward E. Dougherty, who worked in Atlanta between 1905 and 1916, and designed four schools in that city between 1910 and 1912. G. Lloyd Preacher began his architectural career in Augusta in 1905, where he specialized in designing public buildings, including Tubman High School in 1917. He later moved to Atlanta and opened additional offices in Miami and New York.

Public Schools in Georgia in the Early 20th Century

At the turn of the 20th century, a growing realization developed in Georgia that northern industrialists and opportunists were coming south to buy mining, water power, and timber rights. It was the beginning of the South's recognition that it must educate its children if they were to retain their lands, or be a part of the new sources of prosperity and wealth that the northerners were seeking.

The Conference for Education in the South, originally called the Conference for Christian Education in the South, began in 1898 at a hotel in the Blue Ridge Mountains of Virginia. The conference proved to be a turning point and a potent force for southern education as leaders from both the North and South met and formed plans for addressing the needs of southern education. As late as 1903 there was not a complete public school system in any southern state, which resulted in a high rate of illiteracy. Public attitude towards education began to shift as a result of publicity from the conference. The population became more willing to accept taxation for schools. The result was lengthening school terms as funds grew, although African-American schools still had a shorter school term and strictly followed a manual arts, domestic science and industrial education curriculum.

As public sentiment in favor of public education began to change in the early 1900s, over half of the white population expressed support of public schools. Nearly all of the African Americans favored schooling, which they viewed as a means towards advancement. However, the political and social climate of the state remained rooted in its Confederate days. The staunch spirit of individual freedom that had pervaded the South in antebellum times remained a vital force even into the 20th century. The focus of many white leaders remained keeping control of the black race. Much political and economic debate caused the state to progress very slowly towards public education, as time and energy were spent on pursuing this perceived vital interest of racial divide. Further impeding progress was the dire poverty of the state. The school fund slowly increased as money from such programs as the hire of convict labor and fees for inspecting fertilizers were added to the fund.

In 1904, an amendment to the state's constitution was passed that helped simplify the method of establishing local school tax districts. The funds arising from this new law were necessary for paying for longer school term and new construction. In 1906, continued improvement in economic conditions resulted in a building boom of new schools. The Georgia Compulsory District Law, which required

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two teachers in every school, resulted in an increase in the number of rural schools with two teachers. New buildings were erected in rural areas, including an increase in the number of libraries. In 1907, the state legislature passed the McMichael Bill requiring the counties to be divided into school districts, each with a 16-square-mile minimum. The law also allowed the people the right to tax a maximum of five mills on all county property that was not within a city limit. The 16 square mile minimum however, ultimately left the state with too many one and two-room schools.

In the 1910s, the state legislature required that cities and counties provide secondary education. Secondary education consisted of grades 8-11, however some schools only provided two years of high school. In some cases, students transferred to another area school to finish high school. The federal government, through the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, provided funds for public schools that taught agriculture, home economics, trades, and industrial subjects. In Georgia, the funds were used to establish vocational education in the state's high schools.

By 1908, three-fourths of the total school funds came from local taxation. Numbers of counties operating a countywide local tax system went from 19 in 1908 to 28 in 1911, with 629 districts supplementing state money with local taxation. In 1911, a separate Division of Negro Education was established in the State Department of Education. By 1916, 44 counties levied local school taxes and by 1917, the total taxes raised locally equaled those from the state appropriation. The Elders-Carswell Amendment of 1919 required each county to levy local taxes for education. Finally all schools were included under the public school auspices. A compulsory attendance law passed in 1919 brought about 25,000 children into the state public school system, many of whom had not been in school before.

However, funding inequalities still existed once taxation was enacted because so many rural counties had little of value to tax. Most of the schools had insufficient lighting, were poorly planned, had wells and privies and required a lot of maintenance. Only the best-equipped schools had desks, blackboard, maps, charts, globes, dictionary, and a library. Sufficient funding for the rural schools, without corporate property to tax, required great private support. In 1926, the state passed the Equalization Act to help equalize the distribution of educational funds throughout the state. Money for the Equalization Fund came from a tax on gasoline and kerosene.

Consolidation of Public Schools in Georgia

Throughout the state, the operation of schools was on two levels-urban and rural. A study by the State Board of Education pointed out that the financing of so many decentralized schools was costly, and a better quality education could be achieved with fewer, better schools. School consolidation was the answer. Each school would receive more funding, better buildings could be built and better teachers could be hired. Consolidation was already in effect in many other states and had proven successful. One central school building, where a larger number of students could be brought together, properly graded and classified, provided a better opportunity for a student than the small, ungraded school with only one teacher. In 1911, school districts were given the authority, but not the funds, to consolidate schools and to provide transportation. Prior to this time, a few rural schools made an effort to consolidate some of their one-room schools. School districts were also combined into county-wide

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systems. However, without funding, not many schools moved to consolidate. A push for legislation after World War I resulted in many changes to the school systems.

In 1919, the state passed the Barrett-Rogers law, which provided funds from the Western and Atlantic Railroad to be set aside annually for establishment and maintenance of schools that had been consolidated. Each county was offered the right to secure state money for consolidation of schools that would have a minimum of four rooms and four teachers. The law also required that up-to-date sanitary facilities and transportation be provided. An amendment to the constitution in 1919 permitted county school boards to issue bonds for construction of these new consolidated school buildings. There were 4,867 one-room schools in the state in 1920. That year, 74 elementary schools were eligible for the \$500 allotment per school, and received state aid upon consolidation. In 1920 all counties except four, had high schools.

The state legislature offered \$1000 to counties that established a consolidated high school. Eventually, counties could apply for funds for a second consolidated school. The \$500 and \$1000 awards could be combined to benefit one school or could be applied for separately. In the first year of the program, 63 counties qualified for the high school money. A total of \$471,045 was spent on school buildings, equipment, libraries and laboratories that year. Another result of the fund was that cooperation between counties and towns increased, and county boards learned new ways to improve conditions in their school systems.

The resulting growth of the schools was dramatic after the passage of the Barrett-Rogers law. In 1920 only 169 accredited high schools existed throughout the state. In 1904, a system of accreditation had been adopted statewide and a handbook of the rules published. In Georgia, the accrediting of high schools at the time was a cooperative undertaking among the University of Georgia, the State Department of Education and the Colleges and Secondary Schools through their organization. The State High School Supervisor and the High School Inspector of the University inspected schools. Graduates of accredited schools were allowed entrance to the state's higher educational system. The school's equipment, curriculum and teaching instruction were evaluated to determine whether it met accreditation. Six years later, 349 accredited high schools existed in Georgia. With 81 still unaccredited schools, the total number of high schools was 430. Of this number, 36 were for African-American children. Stress was placed upon improvements needed for accreditation, such as improved laboratories, library administration and certification of high school teachers.

By 1928 the idea of consolidation proved so widespread in its appeal that increased state funding was needed to provide money to all the schools that qualified. Each county had an accredited high school by 1936. Of these, 431 were for white students and 40 for African-Americans. In Georgia, black teachers' salaries and spending per black child did not equal spending per white child in the state. Systems such as the one in Atlanta spent more than twice the dollar amount per white child as for each black child in the years preceding World War II.

As schools consolidated, even on a small level, transporting students became an issue. The first mode of transportation was a horse or mule hitched to a covered wagon, with benches to seat 15 or 20 children. Sometimes the driver was an older student, who was given a small salary, which enabled him to continue in his education. Legislation in 1920 allowed school districts to transport children to school and buses became the norm. Buses were locally built, sometimes by the driver. Initially drivers

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were paid per student per day. Later that changed to a fixed fee per month. They also charged the school district an annual fee for providing the bus. In the 1950s further consolidation efforts made transportation and safety a major issue. The school systems owned the buses and hired full-time mechanics to maintain them.

Consolidation and other funding at this time meant additions and new construction to existing buildings, as well as new and larger consolidated schools. Many schools evolved into campus-like areas with separate gymnasiums, auditoriums or cafeterias.

A new Georgia law, the Kea Act of 1920, required each child in a Georgia public school to take thirty minutes of physical education daily. This act was passed because many Georgians were rejected for service in World War I due to physical ailments. Meeting this need meant increased space requirements. Finding suitable locations for consolidated schools proved problematic in some areas due to the need for playgrounds and teacher's cottages. Ten acres was considered most advantageous for ample recreation areas and for teacher housing.

During this period between the two world wars, a number of different architectural firms in Georgia concentrated on designing schools. Most notable was William J.J. Chase, who was based in Atlanta, but had commissions all over the state. Chase designed more than 100 schools in Georgia, most of them during the consolidation period. He was associated with Arthur Frances Walker from 1909 until 1919, when he went into practice by himself and remained active until his death in 1967. Schools designed

by Chase often had a "T-shaped" plan, with symmetrical side wings and a center section that projected forward. His buildings were classical in design, and while he used a number of revival styles, Georgian Revival and Colonial Revival predominated. Schools designed by Chase include the 1922 Charles D. Hubert Elementary School in Atlanta, the c.1927 S.R. Young School in College Park, the 1928 Moultrie High School in Moultrie, and the Monticello High School in Jasper County.

The most important architect for Atlanta schools during this period was A. Ten Eyck Brown. When the Atlanta school system floated a \$4 million bond issue in 1921 to modernize its school system, nineteen new schools were built, including four junior high schools, girls' and boys' high schools, and a junior-senior high school for African-Americans. Another bond issue in 1926 provided funds to complete the schools. Brown was the architect in charge of developing plans for the junior high and high schools. He devised a basic plan, and the architect selected to design that particular school worked out the details and added ornamentation. The result was schools with the same rectangular footprint, but very different surface appearance. Brown also designed one of the new schools himself. The William H. Croghan Elementary School, designed by Brown, was located in an African-American neighborhood, and built in 1922.

G. Lloyd Preacher moved from Augusta to Atlanta in 1922 and designed over 30 schools, in Atlanta and throughout the state. Most notably, as a result of the 1926 bond issue, in 1927 and 1928 auditoriums were added to schools that had been built just a few years earlier. Preacher was the architect chosen to design these auditoriums, which appear to be a single design, site-adapted for each school. Odis Clay Poundstone of the Atlanta firm of Lockwood and Poundstone also designed schools around Georgia. Known examples of his work include the 1922 Cave Spring High School in Floyd County, the 1928 Homerville Consolidated High School in Clinch County and the 1930 Mountain Hill School in Harris County.

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Scroggs and Ewing, an Augusta firm, was active in nearby counties as well as Augusta in the 1920s. They designed the new Academy of Richmond County in 1926, which housed the first public Junior College in Georgia as well as the high school. In south Georgia, Lloyd Green of Valdosta was known as a school architect. This period also saw the first schools designed by a woman architect, Ellamae Ellis League of Macon. As architect for Bibb Manufacturing Company, she designed schools for them throughout the state, and also for Bibb County.

As the state became immersed in the economic depression that gripped the nation in the 1930s, some schools had to close, while others shortened their school term. Teachers' salaries were lowered. In 1935-36 remedies were incorporated to close some of the gaps in the educational system. State laws were passed in 1937 to provide for a seven-month school term (House Bill 123-Seven Months School Law), free textbooks (House Bill 141- Free Textbook Law) and a state board of education (House Bill 125) appointed by the governor. In 1937 for the first time monies were allocated to African-American schools at the state level.

Two Great Depression relief programs of the federal government were responsible for much public school construction in Georgia during the late 1930s and early 1940s. The Public Works Administration (PWA) was created by the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933, and represented the first national effort to create jobs. Over \$6 billion was spent throughout the country to improve the nation's infrastructure while, at the same time, reducing unemployment. Although the program is better known for its road building, housing and restoration projects, many schools in Georgia, as well as the rest of the country, were constructed or improved with funds provided by this program. Georgia examples include the Jones County High School (Gray High School), a 1936 consolidated public school, located in middle Georgia. This school was designed by Macon architect Ellamae Ellis League, Georgia's first female Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. In 1935 the school district of Dyal in Appling County received \$11,500 in PWA funds to aid in constructing a new six-classroom school with auditorium and a principal's office.

The Works Progress Administration (WPA) was established two years after the PWA in 1935, and charged with the responsibility for the federal government's work-relief program. That agency is better known for its Federal Writers Project and other cultural programs. However, the WPA also constructed buildings, including schools, and seems to have been particularly active in Georgia. Millen Grammar School, located in Jenkins County in east Georgia, south of Augusta was built in 1943 using WPA funds. In Murray County, the WPA provided the money to renovate 36 school buildings with bricks manufactured at a local company's plant. In the Chauncy school district (Dodge County, in middle Georgia) a \$5,000 bond issue was approved in 1939, which permitted a nine-room addition to the original high school building. The WPA contributed labor to this project, with the majority of the work performed by their labor force. J. Marvin Starr, Coweta County school superintendent for 32 years, utilized his experience as a surveyor to personally design several new schools in his north Georgia county. They were built in the 1930s as WPA projects. Sumner High School, another consolidated public school located in Worth County in south Georgia, was built in 1938-9 using WPA funds. In Brunswick, county seat of Glynn County on the Georgia coast, Risley High School, an African-American high school, was constructed in 1936, replacing an 1870 building.

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The WPA also sponsored the school lunch program, begun in 1935. It employed women, helped farmers dispose of surplus produce and fed many school children.

Public Schools in Georgia from World War II to Desegregation

Before the United States entered World War II, the federal government began funding the training of defense workers in vocational educational programs. Most of these funds went for equipment to provide rural youth with basic training in the operation and maintenance of farm equipment and tool specialization. In 1942 the High School Victory Corps was established nationwide to organize high school students for participation in wartime service on a voluntary level.

In 1945, the new state constitution, in Article 8, Section 1, made the state of Georgia the primary carrier in the role of education, by legislating that the state had an obligation to educate its citizens. In Section 5, the constitution stated that each county should establish one school district managed under a county board of education. This legislation resulted in increased funding by the state for public schools.

The impact of legislation, brought on by the changing needs of the country, was felt immediately. In Georgia, state law was amended in 1947 adding the 12th grade to public high schools, however it was 1952 before all schools met this requirement. Two years later laws requiring a nine-month school term passed the state legislature. Bond issues like those passed in the City of Atlanta provided money for additions such as auditoriums/cafeterias, kitchen facilities, bathrooms and classrooms to meet rising needs in 1948.

In 1949, the state passed the Minimum Program for Education Act, providing more extensive school consolidation and other improvements. This Act was funded by a sales tax, which was approved in 1951. This new legislation increased teachers' salaries; and funded the 12th grade, additional rural library services, school lunch programs, exceptional children programming, and vocational rehabilitation.

A State School Building Authority was also established at this time to oversee the growing school systems. With the drive to replace one-room and small town schools with modern consolidated public schools, came a reduction in the number of schools from 3,205 in 1942 to 2,480 in 1956. Further consolidation reduced the number to 1,915 by 1960 even as many new schools were built.

A population boom in Georgia and the rest of the United States followed the end of World War II. As returning soldiers settled down, married and had families in great numbers, the need for more schools grew. Extensive new suburbs opened up on the outskirts of every major city, which also necessitated the construction of new school buildings.

Technology, in many cases a result of new production techniques and materials developed for the war, resulted in a new kind of school. Mass production of component parts, standardization of building materials, and a decrease in the use of ornamentation resulted in a different type of school building.

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A school building program in the 1950s, initiated by Governor Talmadge, added 13,000 new classrooms in 1,200 new buildings or additions to buildings. This \$200 million building program was one of the most notable programs ever carried out in the state public school system. Prior to the building program of the 1950s, little had been done to improve the state's school facilities for 40 years. Responsibility for school construction was the concern of local school authorities, and the state only offered suggestions on how to improve existing buildings or how to design new ones.

The Atlanta architectural firm Stevens and Wilkinson made a substantial contribution to school construction in the years after World War II. The partnership, which was formed in 1946, was responsible for the design of 156 schools throughout Georgia, almost all built during the postwar period. Their most famous design, and one that gave them a national reputation (*Time* magazine deemed it one of the nation's outstanding schools) was the E. Rivers Elementary School in Fulton County. This 1949 design became the prototype for post-World War II schools throughout Georgia. Another award-winning school, Roswell High School in Fulton County north of Atlanta, was built in 1954. Other schools designed by this firm included the 1954 Clayton Elementary School and Mountain City Elementary School, both in Rabun County; the 1955 Blair Village School in Atlanta; the 1956 River Bend School in Hall County; the 1956 Harrison High School in West Point; the 1956 McCoy Hill School in Americus, for African-Americans; the 1956 Dodge County High School in Eastman; and the 1956 City Elementary School and 1956-58 Baldwin County High School, both in Milledgeville.

Atlanta schools underwent a number of changes after the end of World War II. The junior high school buildings were converted to high schools, and the boys' and girls' high schools became co-educational. As part of this conversion, gymnasiums were built at a number of the schools. The Atlanta firm of Bodin and Lamberson was chosen to design the new buildings, which were built in 1947 and 1948. They designed more than 100 school buildings in the Atlanta area. Like G. Lloyd Preacher in 1928, Bodin and Lamberson prepared a single design to be adapted to each site.

Curriculum changes in the postwar years were tied to federal policy mandates. The Cold War established the need for more science and math courses as a means to win the weapons race against the Soviet Union. Emphasis was placed on channeling bright youth toward higher education. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 passed in response to public outcry about poor school conditions. Local schools had pressed the federal government for aid, but had been rebuffed. In October 1957 when the Soviets launched Sputnik I, the schools were blamed for the country's lag in technology behind the Soviet Union. The 1958 Act placed new emphasis on science, testing, and foreign languages in order to strengthen the country's position in an effort to influence developing nations to support American policies. It also became a way for the federal government to exercise some control over local educational policy. Other programs such as the Governor's Honors Program inaugurated in 1964 was begun to give added emphasis and prestige to learning. Georgia was the second state to begin such a program and the first to fund it with state money.

Minorities continued to struggle to achieve equal educational opportunities. The struggle accelerated because of the important role African Americans played in World War II, which fueled their hopes for better futures. Likewise, the democratic rhetoric and patriotism of the war years further fed their dreams. They saw education as the key to economic and social mobility for their race. However, in the immediate postwar era, the majority of African-American schools were still housed in one-room

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buildings, churches or lodge halls. A three percent state sales tax, passed in 1951 provided money to upgrade African-American schools and to build modern structures. Many outdated schools, such as those in DeKalb County, were replaced with new buildings by the end of the 1950s. The arrival of a school often meant a first step toward the progress of the community, to be followed by new paved streets, streetlights, and sidewalks for the first time.

In 1954, the Supreme Court, in *Brown v. Board of Education*, decreed that separate was not equal and ordered the desegregation of the nation's public school systems. Opposition in the South, including Georgia, to the order was strong. The Georgia State Attorney General declared that the Supreme Court ruling did not apply to Georgia. With television providing instant coverage in a way not known before, America's image and its concern over how the country was viewed internationally in the civil rights debates meant that local issues, in Georgia and the South, became national issues. However, despite national concern, it was a decade or more before schools in the state were completely integrated. In 1961, the Atlanta City School system was one of the state's first to integrate when it sent several black children to Murphy, Grady, Brown, and Northside high schools.

One of the consequences of legislation of the 1960s was an increased federal role in local school systems. Legislation such as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed segregation in public places. The Civil Rights Act laid the groundwork for greater federal enforcement of school desegregation via Title VI. This law forbade racial discrimination in any program that received federal funds, which led to a period of increased federal oversight of desegregation of public schools nationwide. In 1965, almost every rural school system in the South began a desegregation plan in order to comply with the federal law.

In the 1960s, the emphasis in public education shifted to equalization of opportunity by overcoming poverty and discrimination. Poverty and discrimination were considered the two basic problems that prevented the schools from discovering the talent needed to solve national defense and economic problems. Education became part of a national campaign against poverty. The government, in an attempt to eliminate poverty, began a campaign of special education programs. The resulting Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, passed by Congress, were aimed to alleviate the effects of poverty. The 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act also enabled federal funds to be withheld from schools that did not integrate, and gave state Departments of Education increased power over local school districts. Funds for Head Start, Job Corps, and improved educational programs were given to each state. At the same time, there was a strong public backlash against the schools, which some said were infiltrated by communists. Others wanted anti-American literature removed from school bookshelves

Then in 1968 the Supreme Court ruled that the "freedom to choose" which many Southern states had enacted was not enough. The result of the ruling was a plan that allowed African-American students to transfer to a white school if they chose. In 1967, more than 100 school districts in the state still remained segregated. Then in the late 1960s, when schools began to integrate in earnest, many school systems in Georgia closed African-American schools and transferred the students to white schools because the facilities were better. In others, such as Main High School in Rome, officials expanded the African-American campus in an effort to keep black children separated from the whites.

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In 1971, the Supreme Court reached a unanimous conclusion in *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education*. The case proved to be a milestone in the school desegregation movement. In this case, the Court established busing as an acceptable means of integration, but drew the line at excessively long rides. The court also ruled that as a means for achieving racial balance, racial quotas had to be flexible. And the court stated that if a school remained in the balance of one race, the school district had to prove that the population mix did not result from discrimination. The ruling also gave courts leeway in creating school attendance zones. By 1971, all of the school districts in Georgia had been integrated, ending the state's history of racial segregation.

F. ASSOCIATED PROPERTY TYPES

To qualify under this study, a school must be documented as a publicly funded and operated school, part of a city, county, state or federally funded school system. The state-mandated public school system in Georgia was not enacted until 1868, which would be the earliest date for a school to qualify. State funding for schools was not implemented in the individual counties until 1870, by which time several cities had already established Boards of Education, and built schools. Before the end of the Civil War, city children were tutored at home or taught in private academies. Rural children of the wealthy were taught at home by tutors or sent away for schooling. The rest of the rural population of school-age children, if they received any education at all, were taught at private schools often housed in homes, churches or barns. This study ends in 1971, which represents 105 years of public school education, and appears to be the date by which all school systems in Georgia were finally integrated.

1) Rural Public School

Background

A state-funded system for public instruction in the state of Georgia was established by legislative act in 1870. Shortly after that, the individual counties formed Boards of Education and established school districts. Most of the first school districts were formed following the lines of the former Civil War militia districts.

The rural public school was a direct result of the decentralized public school system in Georgia. Each small community had its own school, which often not more than twelve or thirteen students attended. Between one and five miles was considered an allowable distance to a school. The schools were not graded. Each student progressed at his or her own speed, working through a book (primer) with the assistance of a teacher. Once he or she finished that book, they would progress to the next primer. Although that seemed like a good system, many poor families did not have the money for new books and their children used outdated books that had sometimes been used by their parents. As late as the 1920s, one teacher might teach up to forty students. If the student body had more than forty, a second teacher was hired.

The length of instruction initially was set for three months, often separated into two terms. The actual dates and length of each term varied greatly from county to county. These dates were usually tied to harvest and field labor requirements, which varied to a great extent from the northern mountain counties to the southern coastal counties. Sometimes private fundraising and/or donations were used

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to increase the length of instruction in individual counties. Between the 1870s and 1900s most buildings were not owned by the board of education, but were funded by private donations, and private schools operated alongside the new public schools. By the 1910s most county boards of education had bought out the private schools and owned all the schools they operated. Few new private schools were built in the state of Georgia between the turn of the 20th century and the early 1950s, when integration resulted in a resurgence of that type of school.

Ideas for location, classroom size, interior organization and lighting of the early rural schools were based upon nationally accepted standards. Those standards were discussed in an 1840s publication, *School Architecture*, by Henry Barnard. Barnard believed that a properly designed schoolhouse would instill a sense of order and become a moral and cultural influence for a child well into his adult life. In his book Barnard discussed school designs by Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, and Dr. William A. Alcott, from Hartford, Connecticut. In 1830 Alcott had won a contest, initiated by the American Institute of Instruction, for best essay on a village school. Both men recommended an almost identical plan for a village (rural) school. The one-room school they proposed should be 40 feet long and 30 feet wide, and could accommodate up to 56 students. Each child should have a seat with a desk facing the teacher. The aisles on either side of the room were to be two feet wide. A place for recitation, eight feet wide with movable blackboards, should extend across the entire width of the room in the back. A stove, or a heated-air furnace in the basement, would provide heat. Ventilation would be accomplished through openings in the ceiling. A thermometer, library and museum were to be furnished. However, this ideal school setting was rarely realized in the poor, rural Georgia counties of the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

In 1911, in an effort to help communities build well-designed one, two, three and four room schools, the Georgia Department of Education published a brochure with sample floor plans for a rural school. Their design for a one-room school was based on a classroom size of 24 by 32 feet, which could seat 48 students. The interior layout followed Alcott and Mann's designs very closely, although the classroom was slightly smaller than suggested. The plans also called for an entrance area and coat closets. Placement on the lot was discussed, emphasizing the importance of locating the school on high ground with ample shade trees. The location of the building should allow for a larger square area in back of the school to be used for play and recreation. Plans for the two-room school called for separate classrooms for boys and girls, not for grading. The brochure also suggested that any community constructing a school larger than two rooms should enlist the service of an architect. The fact that a brochure suggesting this type of ungraded small school was published as late as 1911 shows that there was no intent at that time to phase out these buildings.

Although the principles of the Mann/Alcott plans were used in Georgia for the rural schools, extreme poverty and the very limited amount of public funding available kept the design of this type of school to a bare minimum. Schools were more crowded than the ideal proposed in the Barnard book, finishes were kept simple and often esthetics was not an issue.

The rural public school was also found in the smaller, less affluent urban areas. Many times, but not exclusively, African-Americans in cities were educated in this type of school building.

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African-American

Public schools in Georgia were segregated from the beginning of public education until the 1960s, and as late as 1970 in some counties. The actual type of school building used by black students did not differ greatly from that used by their white counterparts, although the black community usually waited a lot longer for newer schools with better conditions. The number of white schools was disproportionately larger than the number of schools for African-American students. The ratio of students to teacher was much higher, and black teachers were paid less than white teachers. Although post Civil War studies showed education was viewed as more important by blacks than by whites, there has been speculation that only one-fifth of all African-American children were educated during the early years of the public school system.

Description

The rural public school consisted of mostly one and two room structures. These most basic of buildings were constructed of wood, either logs or wood frame with wood siding. The footprint was rectangular or square. The roof could be gabled or hipped. Entrances were just a simple door into the classroom, or were sometimes protected by a porch. Sometimes two doors (one each for girls or boys) would lead into one or two classrooms. The fenestration seemed random in most buildings. A few small double-hung wood windows allowed for natural light. Most of these schools were one-story; occasionally, there was a second story. In this case, another classroom was located on the second floor and a public meeting room, like a Masonic lodge, occupied the remaining space on that floor. These second floor rooms were obviously unsafe if a fire should break out in the building. Except for bell towers, resembling small church towers, which were frequently part of the buildings, there was no ornamentation or a characteristic style connected with the rural public school.

The interior usually housed one single classroom, rarely two or three. Either a fireplace on the back wall, or a pot-bellied stove, located in the center or on one side heated it. The floors were wood. The ceiling had exposed rafters or was concealed by tin ceiling tiles. The walls were painted or not, as was most often the case. Blackboards were either just a wood board painted black or slate, which was more costly. The furniture was either rough, locally built benches and desks or patented mass-produced desk and chair combinations. Shutters were used to cover window openings if the school lacked the money for glass windows.

When possible, a rural school was sited at a high elevation, which was considered to provide health benefits. The grounds would always have a spring or well for water. Separate outhouses for boys and girls were located behind the school, away from the building. Many times the schoolyard was fenced, and had ample space for outdoor activities - sometimes even a playground. The 1901 *Annual Report from the Department of Education* mentioned a movement, originating with several women's groups, to improve the school grounds with plantings. It also suggested that teachers and students participate in this effort, and showed sketches with suggested plantings and improvements.

The rural public school was frequently enlarged through additions, or was occasionally built as a larger school from the outset. A wing would frequently be added for a second or third classroom. Separate cloakrooms for boys and girls and storage closets were often added on the front of the school, sometimes protected by a covered porch.

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This property type was strictly vernacular. Barnard shows suggestions for stylistic elements, but no evidence of local examples were found.

Rural Public School Significance

These schools are significant as examples of the first efforts at universal public education in the State of Georgia. They were vernacular buildings with no pretension to style, located in rural areas in a state with few good roads or public transportation. These schools provided a basic, minimal education to Georgia children in an ungraded setting at a time when the state was attempting to recover from the devastation and upheaval of the Civil War.

This type of school building, constructed between 1870 and 1920, is significant under this context if it retains its character-defining features. The significance of the building under this context would end when the building ceased use as a public school or 50 years prior to the date of the nomination, unless its continued use as a school or conversion to another use was also significant in the building's history. These school buildings are eligible under Criterion A for their association with the history of **education**, specifically as examples of buildings built and used for education in rural Georgia upon establishment of a public education system. In Georgia, they may well have significance under Criterion A also in the areas of **African-American history** as examples of segregation by race, or **women's history** as examples of early employment opportunities for unmarried women. Their significance in the area of **architecture** under Criterion C lies in the form, materials and plans that reflect vernacular design.

Although many of these rural schools have been demolished, a surprisingly large number still survive more or less intact. Some have been restored, and are currently used as museums or community centers; they are beloved in their communities.

The time frame for significance of these buildings must be flexible. Rural public schools and urban public school were still being built well into the 1920s, and consolidated public schools were built in some rural and urban areas before 1919.

Registration Requirements**Location**

The small, decentralized nature of an early rural school is significant to this type. To keep its integrity location should be a consideration in nominating this type of building. These schools should be in their original location to be eligible. If a school was moved as part of a consolidation effort and was used again by the public school system this building would also qualify. The grounds (more in size than landscaping) should also be considered. A rural school building abutting directly to newer infill without an appropriate amount of land around it would lose its integrity.

Design

The rural public school should retain its massing, form and pattern of openings to qualify. Non-historic additions can severely change the appearance and proportions of this type, and are not acceptable for a nomination. If an addition was part of the public school expansion, it is significant to show progress of the school system and is acceptable. Since very few of these buildings have been

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used for education since the 1930s, some considerations must be applied for nominations. Newer uses might have required enlargement of openings, which in itself should not preclude the building from nomination. Windows probably are not original, or are deteriorated beyond repair. Pattern of fenestration is more important than the actual window. A ruin or a building without a roof does not qualify, nor does a building with less than 65 percent of original fabric remaining. An education site without the building cannot be nominated. Playgrounds and other recreational sites adjacent to the building should be nominated with the site.

Interior Integrity

The rural public school should retain the classrooms as an undivided space. Conversion to other uses is acceptable if the classroom volume is kept intact. Evidence of other educational supporting elements like cloakrooms, storage closets, ventilation systems, fireplaces and heating systems should also remain. Desks and tables are not essential to convey integrity.

Materials

The material fabric of the buildings illustrates the construction methods of the rural public school. Wood buildings are typical, and the exterior should be intact to qualify. Metal and artificial siding would disqualify a school from nomination, unless it can be removed to expose the original siding. On the interior, the simple woodwork of this type of school building is an important part of its character, and should be in evidence.

Association

When nominating a rural public school, applicants should provide general background on the development of the district schools within their county or town. If possible, applicants should identify other schools within the area and explain the time frame of significance for the school to be nominated. Information on school builders, architects and special, regional design trends should be researched and described if available.

Illustration 1: Drawing of village school classroom designed by Mann and Alcott

Illustration 2: Drawings of recommended one and two-room schools.

Illustration 3: Drawings of suggested grounds improvements.

Illustration 4: Examples of rural public schools in Georgia with several variations. Baty-Cross Plains School, two Hancock County schools, the Mount Zion School and two photographs of Bibb County schools.

2) Urban Public School

Background

At the same time one-room schools flourished in rural Georgia, a larger and differently organized school was being built in the more affluent urban areas of the state. Some urban centers had begun public schooling before the advent of the Civil War, and several of the larger cities established public school systems immediately after the end of the war. Towns or cities with 2,000 or more residents could establish independent school systems. Savannah became the first city to do so in 1866, and

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Atlanta followed in 1869. The city or independent systems could be created by amending the municipality's charter to provide for a school system. State law gave cities the right to levy property taxes for school maintenance and the right to issue bonds for building and equipping schools. The tax structure in Georgia permitted taxation for schools only in the cities, and it was easy to secure a vote for the local tax. Although this provided the city school systems with the potential for additional funds to build more substantial buildings and create far more sophisticated school systems, it also exacerbated the disparity between the urban and rural school systems. It must be made clear that rural as well as urban types of schools could be found in cities, depending on their size, affluence and racial makeup.

Barnard also described a design for this property type in his 1848 book. This kind of school followed the design principles he described as an "academy" style. The building design was based on a graded system, and was intended to house both primary and secondary education. In the early Georgia urban public school systems, the name of the school (elementary or high school) reflected the highest grade taught in the school since elementary and secondary level classes were taught in the same building, from the first grade through the eleventh grade. There were no junior high schools until the consolidation era. In some of the larger cities, such as Augusta, separate schools were constructed for elementary and high school students, and new elementary schools were often built as housing areas were developed.

In most cases these schools were architect designed. Sometimes a specific architect was hired by the school system and designed several schools for that system. These designs were not always lot specific, since the same or very similar buildings could be found in different locations. In Atlanta, two nearly identical school buildings, Home Park School and Highland School, were both designed by Edward E. Dougherty in 1911.

African-American

As in the rural areas, schools for African-American children lagged behind those for white children. Conditions were generally poorer and the schools not as well equipped. Some cities such as Augusta found the money and built a ten-room schoolhouse for black children in 1891, followed by another of the same design, in a different part of the city, in 1895.

Description

The urban public school was built throughout the United States as well as in Georgia. In Georgia it was centrally located and easily accessible by main thoroughfares. It was two to three stories high, contained from four to as many as twelve classrooms, usually had a basement, and occasionally an auditorium/gymnasium. The building could be built of wood, but was more commonly of masonry construction. The footprint in most cases was rectangular, but occasionally irregular or L-shaped buildings are found. Tile was a common material for roofs, which were often hipped. The mass was dense and compact. Auditoriums were sometimes part of the initial design but implemented later, and are a common alteration to this type of school. Additional classrooms, as the population of the area served by the school expanded, were another common alteration to the original buildings.

Wide spacious halls on each floor divided the interior. Sometimes, especially on the first floor, two intersecting corridors provided access to the classrooms. Centrally located open areas were also possible. The halls were very important spaces, and it was believed they should be visually pleasing.

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They could be used for art display as well as bulletin or notice boards, and gave the student a sense of spaciousness. These buildings would house a minimum of four classrooms on each floor. The classrooms were often designed so they could be divided again if necessary. Classrooms were generally twelve feet high to allow for necessary ventilation. Libraries and instructional materials were housed in wood cabinets inside the classroom. In many cases each classroom would have a separate cloakroom, located where a teacher could oversee the students entering and leaving. Offices for school personnel might also be present in the building.

Windows were important for light and ventilation. They were multi-light wood windows either individually placed or in groups of two or more, and it was considered important for each classroom to have several windows. The walls were plastered and painted, and the floors were wood. The school was connected to the city water and sewage system. A steam furnace system, located in the basement, would heat the school with flues set into the walls and venting into the attic space.

Placement of the school on its lot was an important consideration. Setback from the street varied and was probably dependent on the lot depth and the size of the school. These buildings had multiple entrances and a distinctive main entry on the street side of the building. A sidewalk would lead to the front main entrance. The school could also always be entered from the rear to allow students to return to the building after recess. Playgrounds and recreational areas were located behind the building, away from the street and its traffic. Shade trees were planted if they were not already present on the lot.

Typical additions seem to be auditoriums, which often were built later as additional funding became available. Other common changes were additional classroom wings, which were usually placed on the side(s) if there was sufficient land.

Most schools were designed in the revival styles popular in the early 20th century, including Colonial, Classical, Spanish Colonial, Georgian and Romanesque. There are also a few examples of schools in the Beaux-Arts and Craftsman styles.

Urban Public School Significance

These schools are significant as examples of the first schools built in the cities and large towns of Georgia. When they were built, they were some of the most important buildings in their towns and cities. Even today, these are the buildings that represent the idea of "school" in the minds of most people. Urban public schools were generally designed by local architects and reflected the popular revival styles of the day, in particular Colonial and Georgian Revival, which were considered appropriate for schools.

This type of school building, constructed between 1870 and 1920, is significant under this context if it retains its character-defining features. The significance of the building under this context would end when the building ceased use as a public school or 50 years prior to the date of the nomination, unless its continued use as a school or conversion to another use was also significant in the building's history. These school buildings are eligible under Criterion A for their association with the history of **education**, specifically as examples of buildings built and used for education in the cities and towns of Georgia upon establishment of public education systems. In Georgia, they may also have significance

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under Criterion A in the areas of **African-American history** or **women's history** as examples of segregation by race or sex. Their significance in the area of **architecture** under Criterion C lies in the form, materials and plans that reflect significant architectural design.

Many of these schools continued in operation as schools for more than 50 years, expanding as the towns grew. Many still exist in their original settings. In recent years, as changing residential patterns reduced the number of children in older neighborhoods, a number have been sold to developers for conversion to other uses, often as apartments or condominiums.

Registration requirements

Location

The urban environment is significant, and location should be a consideration in nominating this type. These schools should be in their original location to be eligible. Grounds should also be considered. New infill should not encroach upon the building. The original amount of land around it should be used as a guide. In some densely populated cities the neighbors on either side were very close.

Design

Urban public school buildings should retain their massing, form and pattern of openings to qualify. Non-historic additions can severely change the appearance and proportions of this type and are not acceptable for a nomination. If the addition is part of the public school expansion, it is significant to show progress of the school system and is acceptable. Pattern of fenestration is just as important as the actual window. An educational site without the building cannot be nominated. Also playgrounds and other recreational sites adjacent to the building should be nominated with the site if they still exist.

Interior Integrity

The corridors are a character-defining element of this type of school and should be retained in full length and width. The classroom unit with its separate cloakroom should be kept intact. Subdividing the classroom should be possible as long as it is reversible. Built-in cabinets are not essential to convey integrity.

Materials

Wood or masonry buildings are typical and the exterior including the roof should be kept intact. Terra cotta and local stone were often used for ornamentation; roofing was often tile; these should be retained. On the interior, finished spaces should remain as finished spaces even if a different material is used to achieve this. Wood floors should remain, although they could be covered as long as this is reversible.

Association

When nominating an urban public school, applicants should provide general background on the development of the district schools within their city or town. If possible, applicants should identify other schools within the area and give a time frame of significance for the school to be nominated. Information on architects, school builders, or special, regional design trends should be researched and described if the materials are available.

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Illustration 5: Barnard's academy floor plan.

Illustration 6: Home Park School and Highland School.

Illustration 7: African-American urban public schools of the late 19th century.

Illustration 8: Two white urban public schools in Georgia towns.

Illustration 9: John Milledge School in Augusta.

Illustration 10: The Candler Street School in Gainesville and the Adair School in Atlanta.

3) Consolidated Public School

Background

In 1901 the per-capita amount of money spent for education in Georgia was one of the lowest in the nation: 89 cents per child, compared to \$3.68 in Illinois or even \$5.18 in Colorado and \$4.60 in New York. A census conducted by the federal government in 1913 determined that Georgia had the highest illiteracy rate in the nation. Nothing much was done about this until the end of World War I, when the state was finally able to turn its attention to the problem of educating Georgia's children for success in a rapidly changing world. School consolidation in the state took place during the years between the two world wars.

A major study by the State Board of Education in 1920 determined that the financing and maintenance of so many decentralized schools was too costly, and a better quality education could be achieved with fewer, better schools. School consolidation was the answer. With a centralized system, each school would receive more funding, better buildings could be built and better teachers could be hired. Consolidation was already in effect in many other states and in a few Georgia counties, and had proven successful. One central school building, where a larger number of students could be brought together, properly graded and classified, provided a better educational setting for the student than the small, ungraded school with only one teacher.

Grading had been discussed since the turn of the century, and in 1905 the State School Commissioner had prepared a study that encouraged all teachers to prepare for this kind of school system. Although school consolidation had already occurred in some rural and urban areas in Georgia as early as 1910, those isolated efforts did not change the design of the school buildings, and classes were still ungraded in the majority of Georgia schools.

In 1919, the Barrett-Rogers Law passed, which provided funds for the establishment and maintenance of schools that had been consolidated. At the same time, an amendment to the constitution permitted county school boards to issue bonds for construction of the new school buildings. This additional funding allowed the districts to institute school consolidation on a much larger scale, and combining a minimum of schools into one larger building with graded classes radically changed the type of school buildings constructed in Georgia. Because high school consolidation was deemed more difficult, the financial incentives offered were greater - \$1000 was offered to counties that established a consolidated high school and \$500 for an elementary school. Once all counties had been given aid, a second school within a county could apply and receive funds. The \$500 and \$1000 monies could be combined to benefit one school or could be requested separately. In 1920 three-fourths of Georgia's

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population lived in rural communities. Out of a total of 8,359 schools in the system, 4,867 were one-room schools.

Also in 1920 the Kea Act was passed requiring physical education for the first time. The use of school buildings and grounds after school hours as community centers for meetings, and for cultural and recreational purposes became important. These changes provided a new mandate for schools, which now required many classrooms, offices for a principal, gymnasiums and exterior physical education facilities and spaces such as auditoriums suitable for public congregation.

In the rural areas of Georgia, consolidated public schools replaced rural public schools. In the cities, consolidated public schools coexisted with the existing schools, and became the type of choice for new schools. Consolidation also caused co-operation and linking between the town and county school systems.

African-American

According to the 1920 report cited above, the percentage of money spent for African-American students was very low and resistance to increased spending was high. The same report painted a bleak picture of African-American education in rural areas. Conditions of the buildings were described as devastating, and recruitment of teachers, because of the very low salaries and deplorable conditions was difficult. Attendance was very low, which was considered the direct result of unsuitable buildings. At the same time, of 74 new consolidated elementary schools, only one, and none of the 63 new high schools, was for African-Americans. Rosenwald Schools, of course, were the exception.

By 1926, the total number of high schools in the state had grown to 430, and of this number, 36 were for African-American children. Ten years later, there were only 40 black high schools. Systems such as the one in Atlanta spent more than twice the dollar amount per white child as for each black child in the years preceding World War II.

At the height of the consolidation movement, according to the 1932 *Annual Report of the Georgia Board of Education*, out of 3,379 public schools for African-American students in Georgia, 2,595 or 77 percent were one-teacher schools, located mostly in remote rural areas with little possibility of consolidation or of securing transportation (both funded by the counties). Instead of recommending consolidation, the Board of Education implemented four experimental one-teacher rural schools for African-Americans. These were conducted in the summer of 1932 in four institutions of higher learning, in order for teachers-in-training to gain experience, and to provide a better education for their students. Funding for Rosenwald schools had ceased by 1932, and there was no interest in county funding for new buildings or for transportation for black students.

Description

The location for a consolidated public school was crucial. Accessibility and central location within the consolidated district was essential. A further requirement for this type of school was a design, which could start out as a smaller building with the capacity for expansion without major interruptions to the system. A consolidated public school required several classrooms with cloakrooms, physical education facilities, library, auditorium, administrative offices, and heating plant facilities and bathrooms. To combine all of these needs, the letter-plan - a footprint in shape of the letters T, H, L,

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and U - was commonly used. The massing of these schools was more elongated than the urban public school. The structural system was usually masonry load-bearing, one or two-stories high. The roofs were low pitched or flat. Ribbon windows were common to allow proper lighting for classrooms. Exterior wall finishes were brick, natural stone or stucco. A basement was considered desirable, and in addition to central heating and ventilation systems, often housed playrooms, lavatories and locker rooms. The classrooms were oriented along single or double-loaded corridors on the first and second floors.

The primary unit for any school was the classroom. For an elementary school, a room 24 feet wide and 32 feet long could seat 40 to 45 students. Ceilings were thirteen feet high. Placement of windows in the room was considered very important. Windows were placed as close together as safety of construction permitted. They also were located as close to the back of the room as possible, so natural light would fall over the pupils' shoulders. In the South, a classroom should not face to the south because of the heat, but orientation solely towards the north was considered unhealthy. A formula of limiting windows to one-sixth of the floor space was considered adequate. The windowsill should be three and a half to four feet from the floor and the tops should at least be twelve feet above the floor to allow sufficient light for the student sitting furthest from the window. High schools had more specialty rooms including gymnasiums and auditoriums, or a combination thereof. Many times these were part of the original plan, but constructed at a later time.

Finishes in this type of school are similar to the urban public school. The walls and ceilings were plastered and painted, the classroom floors were wood and corridors were terrazzo.

The site plan resembled a small campus design, and was landscaped with lawns, foundation plants, shrubs and shade trees. A circular drive for discharge of students from the main road was common. Distance from the major road should be far enough to keep noise away and also create a safe environment for the children. The number of entrances was controlled for better traffic management. Service drives did not intersect with outside activity areas. The area behind the school was reserved for physical education and recreation. A parking lot was common and closely located to the gymnasium/auditorium, which in many cases were separate facilities. A spectator facility, such as a stadium or basketball court, was commonly found in high schools.

In the early years, most architects continued to design in the revival styles. These included Colonial, Classical, Gothic, Greek, Georgian and Romanesque Revival. Beaux-Arts and Craftsman styles also were used. Toward the end of the time period, a few schools were built in the Modern and International styles.

Consolidated Public School Significance

These schools are significant as examples of the schools built in response to concerns about the state of education in Georgia in the early 20th century. Changing technology, especially the use of the automobile, made it possible to consolidate several rural schools into one larger and better school. The establishment of high schools, and the elimination of ungraded schools in most rural areas were important changes that were reflected in this building type. In urban areas such as Atlanta, the establishment of junior high (later middle) schools combined with population growth after the end of

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World War I resulted in a school building boom. With the larger student population, auxiliary structures such as gymnasiums and auditoriums were often added, giving the school the appearance of a small campus.

This type of school building, constructed between the late 1910s and the late 1940s, is significant under this context if it retains its character-defining features. The significance of the building under this context would end when the building ceased use as a public school or 50 years prior to the date of the nomination, unless its continued use as a school or conversion to another use was also significant in the building's history. These school buildings are eligible under Criterion A for their association with the history of **education**, specifically as examples of buildings built and used for education in both rural and urban Georgia during the period between World War I and World War II. In Georgia, they may also have significance under Criterion A in the areas of **African-American history** or **women's history** as examples of segregation by race or sex. Their significance in the area of **architecture** under Criterion C lies in the form, materials and plans that reflect changing school architecture and design. The auxiliary buildings and grounds associated with this type of school are also important.

In areas where the school population has remained stable, many of these buildings are still in use as schools. Some of them have been sold to private developers and converted to other uses.

Registration Requirements

Location

Both urban or rural environments are significant to this type, and location should be a consideration in nominating these schools. They should be in their original location to be eligible. Grounds should also be considered. New infill should not encroach too closely to the building. The original amount of land around the school should be used as a guide. In some densely populated cities, the neighbors on either side could be very close.

Design

The consolidated public school should retain its massing, form and pattern of openings to qualify. Non-historic additions can severely change the appearance and proportions of this type and are not acceptable for a nomination. If the addition is part of the public school expansion it is significant to show progress of the school system and is acceptable. Pattern of fenestration is just as important as the actual window. Education sites without the building cannot be nominated. Also playgrounds and other recreational sites, such as stadiums adjacent to the building, should be nominated with the site.

Interior Integrity

The corridors are a character-defining element of this type of school and should be retained in full length and width. The classroom unit should be kept intact. Subdividing should be possible as long as it is reversible. Built-in cabinets are not essential to convey integrity.

Materials

Masonry structural systems were common. Interior walls were plastered. A finished look should be achieved, even if replastering is not feasible. Wood and terrazzo floors should remain. They could be covered as long as this is reversible. Windows should remain.

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Association

When nominating a consolidated public school, applicants should provide general background on the development of the district schools within their city or county. If possible applicants should identify other schools within the area and explain the time frame of significance for the school to be nominated. If available, information on school planners and builders, architects and/or regional design trends should be researched and described.

Illustration 11: Early consolidated public school building, Fulton County.

Illustration 12: Two urban high schools of the early consolidation period.

Illustration 13: Junior high schools of the consolidation period.

Illustration 14: Two examples of consolidated public schools in middle Georgia.

Illustration 15: Two examples of consolidated public schools in west Georgia.

Illustration 16: Two examples of consolidated public schools, one in north and the other in south Georgia.

Illustration 17: Consolidated public schools designed by William J.J. Chase.

Illustration 18: Consolidated public schools designed by G. Lloyd Preacher & Company.

4) Early Modern Public School

Background

A population boom in Georgia and the rest of the United States followed the end of World War II. As returning soldiers settled down, married and had families in great numbers, the need for more schools grew. Extensive new suburbs opened up on the outskirts of every major city, which also necessitated the construction of new school buildings. These schools were different from the consolidated public schools built during the 1920s and 1930s. A combination of changing philosophies in education and newly developed building materials and technologies was reflected in the design of post World War II schools.

According to the 1950 *Annual Report of the Georgia Department of Education*, “an exceptional building need has developed.” This resulted from the backlog of building and maintenance deferred during the war, higher birth rates, better attendance supervision and increased recognition of the need for African-American facilities. The result was Georgia’s \$200 million Minimum Program for Education Act, enacted in 1949, financed and activated in 1951 to replace sub-standard schools and provide new schools wherever needed throughout the state. That meant, for the first time in the history of Georgia, state funds were made available for the construction of new schools.

One of the Georgia firms specializing in this kind of school construction was Stevens and Wilkinson of Atlanta. They had designed over 150 schools in Georgia by 1958, most of them during the post World War II period. According to the firm, the Georgia State School Building Authority limited the unit cost to \$7.50 per square foot for grants received under the minimum foundation program. However through simplified, standardized construction methods, utilizing welded steel frames, pre-cast roof decks, steel windows and brick cavity walls, they were able to realize well designed, fully equipped schools within the allowed budget.

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African-American

Separate but equal was the motto of this time. Not even the Brown versus Board of Education decision seemed to have made a great difference in Georgia. It took many additional lawsuits, federal intervention and citizen demonstrations before all school systems in Georgia were finally integrated. The 1949 Minimum Program for Education Act included funding for African-American schools. The school reports of the following years identified tremendous needs for these schools, but the concept of integration was never discussed as a solution. Many communities built new schools for African-American students in an effort to appease the black community. The city of Athens went so far as to build two new high schools – one for white students in 1952, and one for African-American students in 1956.

Description

National guidelines were used as standards for design of the new schools. A publication by the National Education Association, *American School Buildings*, appeared in 1949, and gave detailed guidelines on all aspects of school design. Most likely professional architects, landscape designers and engineers, relying on these national standards, designed the majority of this type of school built in Georgia.

Classrooms in the new Georgia schools were larger, and were more specific for a greater variety of activities. The basic unit for the elementary school was the classroom in all school designs. A typical elementary school was one-story only, and a typical classroom in that school ranged between 23 by 40 and 30 by 30 feet. Thirty square feet per student was considered adequate, and a classroom housed an average of 30 students. Several arrangements existed within these room sizes, offering different layouts for storage closets and chalkboards.

Classroom designs for junior high (middle) and high schools required more variation for the specialized activities that took place in these schools. The academic classroom had different requirements than a laboratory or shop classroom, although some rooms served multiple purposes. For an academic classroom, the old standard of 18 to 20 square feet per student was considered adequate. The furniture arrangement in the individual classroom changed from the typical straight rows to more curved arrangements, often with movable desks so the students could work in small groups or listen to a lecture. Shops, laboratories and combination rooms required 25 to 30 feet per student. The actual classroom size was dependent on the individual needs of the school district. The interior space layout inside the room differed according to its use as a laboratory, shop room, music or art room.

Physical education facilities were considered very important. They were well lit and ventilated, and were always located on the ground floor. Shower and locker facilities were needed, in addition to storage areas for equipment and spaces for the actual classes. For elementary schools, a gymnasium size of 50 by 80 feet was considered adequate. In high schools, a regulation-size basketball court and adequate seating for spectators were desirable.

The auditorium was another consideration in the overall design of the early modern public school. Its size was determined by the individual school system, but a capacity of 300 to 500 students was standard. For safety reasons, auditoriums were to be located on the ground floor and on-grade.

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Seating was usually fixed, but not when combined with another use, such as a lunchroom in an elementary school. Natural light was not considered essential. The stage should be arranged so one side was directly accessible from an adjacent room or corridor. Stage depth should be a minimum of 25, preferably 28 to 30 feet, and the width of the proscenium opening should be at least 24 feet. Ticket offices, storage areas, restrooms and dressing rooms were also a consideration. In addition, several large exit doors were needed to evacuate the spectators safely in the event of a fire. A combined auditorium/gymnasium was a possibility, especially in the smaller schools; however it was not considered desirable, as the two functions were not especially compatible.

All of these individual rooms and functions then needed to be combined into a single or multi-story structure. The number of floors was directly related to the size of the school and the amount of available land. The single-story building was most common. The letter floor plan used for the consolidated public school was mostly abandoned, and a "finger" plan, which provided for a more open, less massive building was adopted. A properly insulated flat roof was considered more economical than a pitched roof. Economy was also gained by avoiding unnecessary ornamentation. Basements were abandoned as costly and wasted spaces. Steel skeleton construction replaced the masonry load-bearing structural system. Use of standardized materials for masonry units, windows, doors and other materials also lowered the price of new construction. The old standards for ceiling heights were also questioned in an effort to save more money. The importance of natural light and a one-sided source of light was examined, and it was determined that a combination of natural, bilateral or multilateral light and supplemental lights was most desirable. In the South, classrooms should be oriented north or south. Large windows were needed, but southern exposures should have adequate shielding to prevent excessive heat build-up. Glass block was considered a good source of shielded light.

Materials and finishes were also different in this type. The use of concrete and steel for structural systems was a new trend. Inside the classroom hardwood floors were still considered a good choice, but new materials like linoleum, asphalt and plastic tiles, as well as cork for acoustical reasons, were used. For corridors cement, terrazzo, asphalt, rubber and linoleum tiles were all possible choices. A trend for interior walls was exposed cinder block or brick instead of plastered surfaces. The windows were mostly metal sash awning type, but glass block was also used.

The early modern public school, just like the consolidated public school, was located near the center of the school population it served. The sites for these "modern" schools were larger than for the older consolidated public schools. Two lane drives leading directly to the place of discharge and ending in a parking lot were common. Driveways generally did not encircle buildings to prevent intersection with recreational spaces. Outdoor activity areas differed between elementary, middle and high schools. Playgrounds for elementary schools were divided into areas that needed close supervision and areas for free play, and were sometimes separate for boys and girls. Playground areas for girls had more space for games like hopscotch and shuffleboard, whereas the area for boys had unobstructed space for games and sports. In the high schools, sport fields for girls included softball and volleyball, whereas boys' areas also included soccer and football. If present, the spectator sports area was close to the parking lot. The layouts for these schools always considered future growth and additions to the groupings of buildings. Landscaping consisted of lawns, foundation planting, intersection plantings of hardy shrubs and trees planted in groves for shade. Rural areas probably had less formal landscaping with more indigenous plants than urban areas.

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The use of the revival styles in public school design seems to have completely disappeared during this period. Schools were designed in the Modern and International styles.

Early Modern Public School Significance

These schools are significant as examples of the schools built in response to the post World War II population boom and the changes in residential patterns made possible by use of the automobile. As large new housing developments were built outside the cities to house returning veterans and their burgeoning families, large new schools were built to accommodate them. This type was designed to take advantage of new technologies and materials developed during the war, and the design of this type school also reflected fundamental changes in the philosophy of education.

This type of school building, constructed between 1948 to as late as 1971, is significant under this context if it retains its character-defining features. The significance of the building under this context would end when the building ceased use as a public school or 50 years prior to the date of the nomination, unless its importance in the history of school desegregation justifies a later date. These school buildings are eligible under Criterion A for their association with the history of **education**, specifically as examples of buildings built and used for public education after World War II. In Georgia, they may also have significance under Criterion A in the area of **African-American history** for their roles in the desegregation of Georgia's schools. Their significance in the area of **architecture** under Criterion C lies in the form, materials and plans that reflect postwar changes in architectural design and educational philosophy.

In areas where the school population has remained stable, most of these buildings are still in use as schools.

Registration Requirements

Location

The location of the school in either an urban or a rural environment is significant to this type, and location should be a consideration in nominating these schools. They should be in their original location to be eligible, and grounds should also be considered. New infill should not encroach too closely to the building. The original amount of land around it should be used as a guide. In some densely populated cities the neighbors on either side could be very close.

Design

Early modern public school buildings should retain their massing, form and pattern of openings to qualify. Non-historic additions can severely change the appearance and proportions of this type and are not acceptable for a nomination. If an addition is part of the expansion of the local public school system, it is significant to show the progress of the school system and may be acceptable. Pattern of fenestration is just as important as existence of the actual original windows. An education site without the building cannot be nominated. Also playgrounds and other recreational sites, such as stadiums adjacent to the school building, should be nominated with the school.

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Interior Integrity

The corridors are a character-defining element of this type of school and should be retained in full length and width. The classroom unit should be kept intact. Subdividing should be possible as long as it is reversible.

Materials

Concrete and steel or concrete block structural systems were common. On the interior, exposed block or brick were often used. Wood, cement or terrazzo floors should remain. Less durable materials as rubber or asphalt tile may be replaced in kind, and could be covered as long as this is reversible. Windows and glass block should remain.

Association

When nominating an early modern public school, applicants should provide general background on the development of the district schools within their county or town. If possible, applicants should identify other schools within the area and give a time frame of significance for the school to be nominated. If information is available on school builders, architects, landscape architects or design trends, it should be researched and described.

Illustration 19: Different finger plans for the early modern public school.

Illustration 20: Examples of site plans for early modern public schools.

Illustration 21: Bilateral and multilateral lighting in one-story school buildings.

Illustration 22: Suggested arrangements of individual desks and tables for good lighting.

Illustration 23: E. Rivers School, designed by the Atlanta architectural firm of Stevens and Wilkinson.

Illustration 24: Stevens and Wilkinson design for Baldwin County High School.

Illustration 25: James L. Riley School, also designed by Stevens and Wilkinson.

Illustration 26: Plan and photograph of McCoy Hill School in Americus, a school for African-Americans.

Illustration 27: Gymnasium-Auditorium designed by Stevens and Wilkinson in 1955 in West Point, Georgia.

G. GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

The State of Georgia

H. SUMMARY OF IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION METHODS

An examination of schools was conducted by researching published works on education, articles, unpublished works, National Register nominations and county surveys from the State of Georgia.

Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971**Page 35**

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

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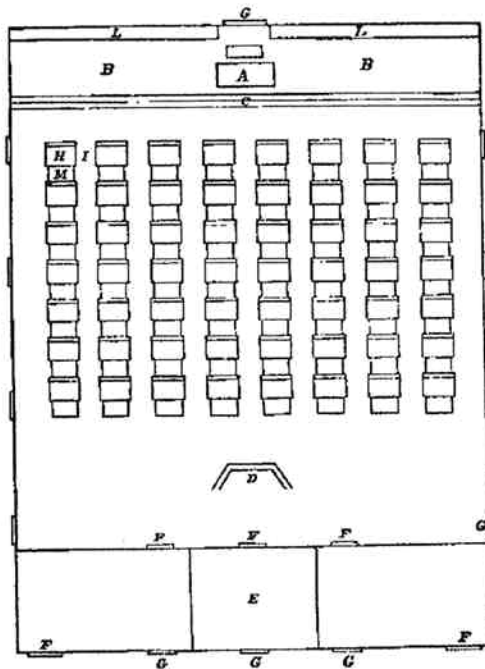
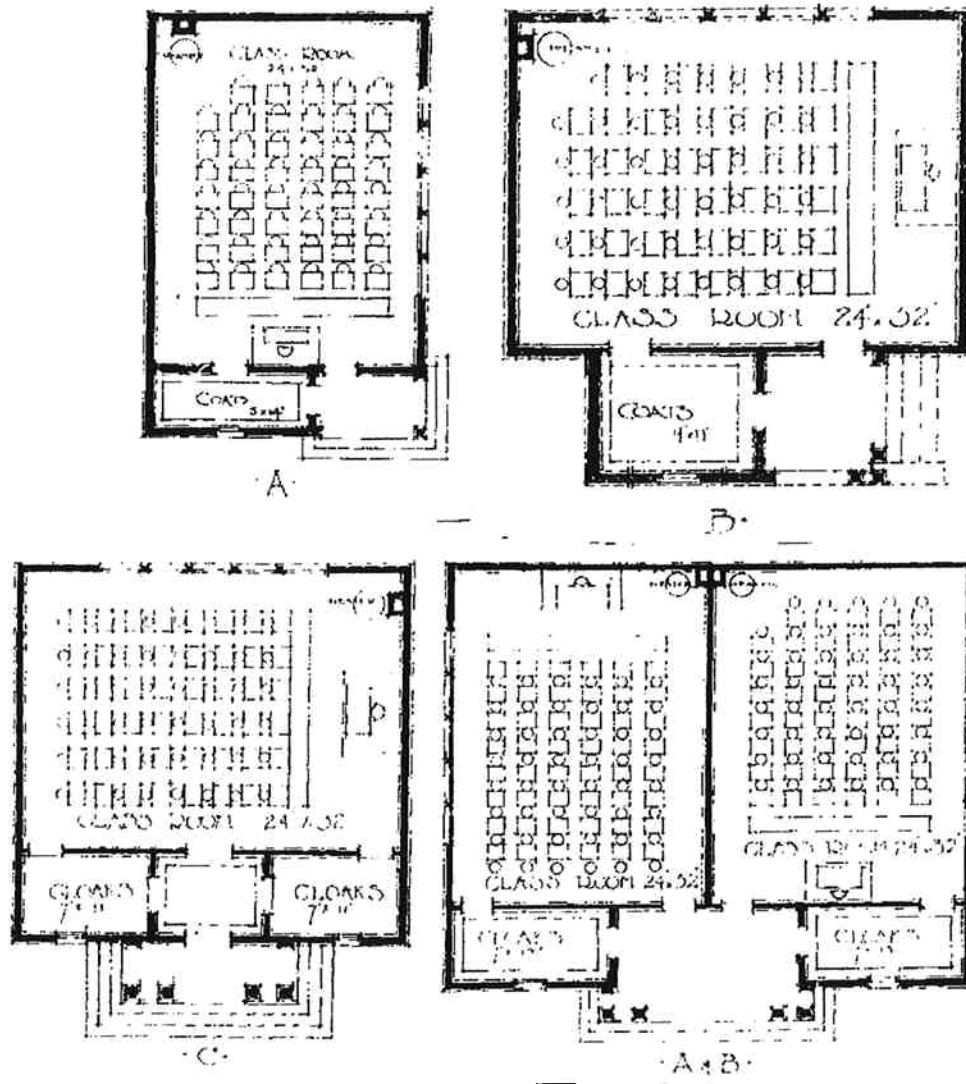


FIGURE 1. Plan for a one-room school house (Recommended by Horace Mann)

Illustration 1: Plan for a one-room schoolhouse from Henry Barnard's *School Architecture*, page 118. This ideal plan for a one-room school was rarely realized in Georgia.

Key: A – Teacher's desk; B – Teacher's platform; C – Steps to platform; D – Place for stove; E – Recitation, interview room; F – Entry and cloakroom doors; G – Windows; H – Pupils' desks; I – Aisles; L – Bookcases; M – Pupils' seat, which was to be 12 x 20 inches.



*Illustration 2: Drawings of recommended one and two-room school plans from *School Architecture*, a 1911 publication of the Georgia Department of Education, pp. 9,11,13 and 17.*

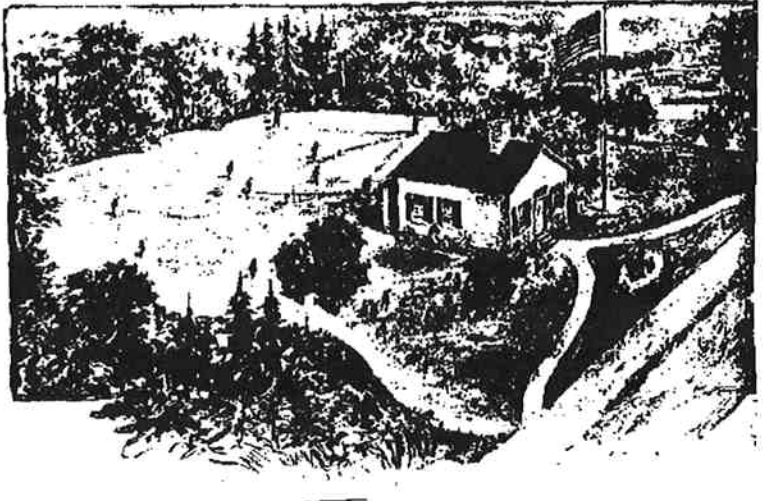
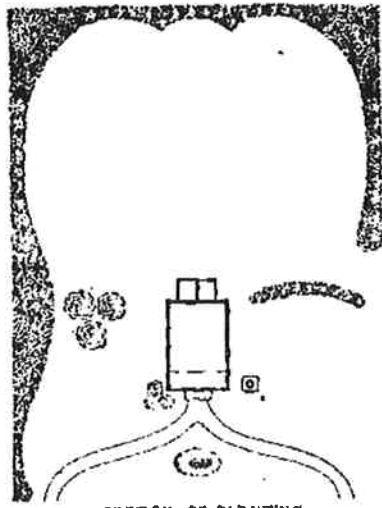


Illustration 3: Drawings of suggested grounds improvements from the *Board of Education Annual Report for 1901*, p. 75.

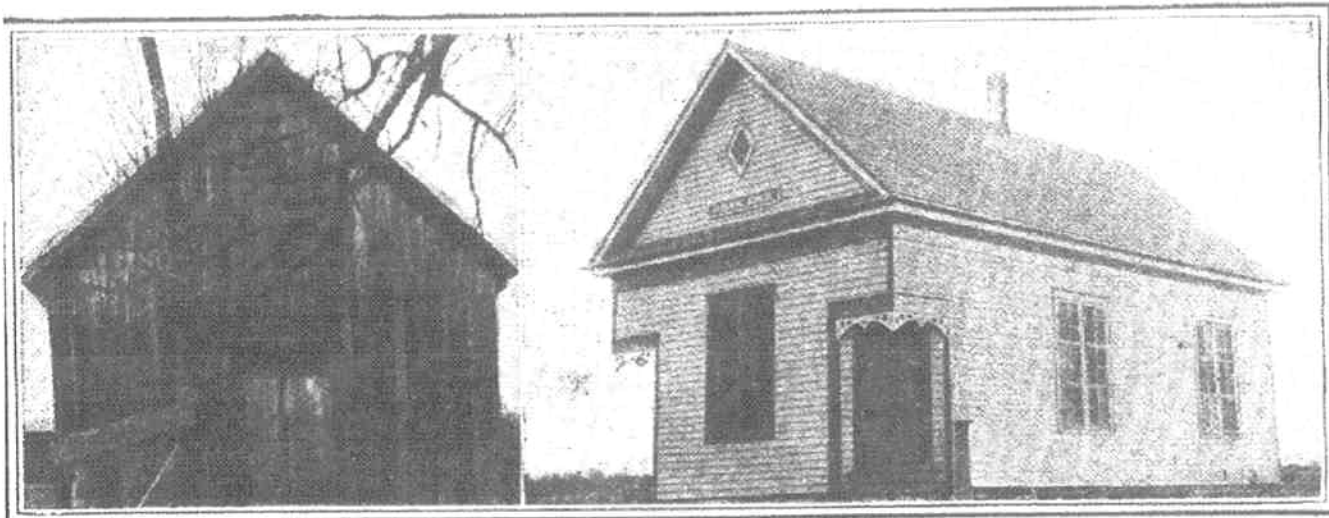


Illustration 4: Examples of rural public schools in Georgia. The photograph above is the Baty-Cross Plains School in Franklin County, a rare example of a “field school.” The picture was taken by Jim Lockhart as part of a National Register nomination. The other photographs were included in Board of Education Reports.

The pictures of the Hancock County schools show that one-room schools replaced one-room schools. Note the dual corner entrances on the “new” school.

The Mount Zion School has the same corner entrance, as well as a prominent bell tower, a standard feature of rural public schools.

Two photographs from Bibb County show African-American and white schools of similar design. Of note is the well, located in front of the white school. This was another standard feature of rural public schools.

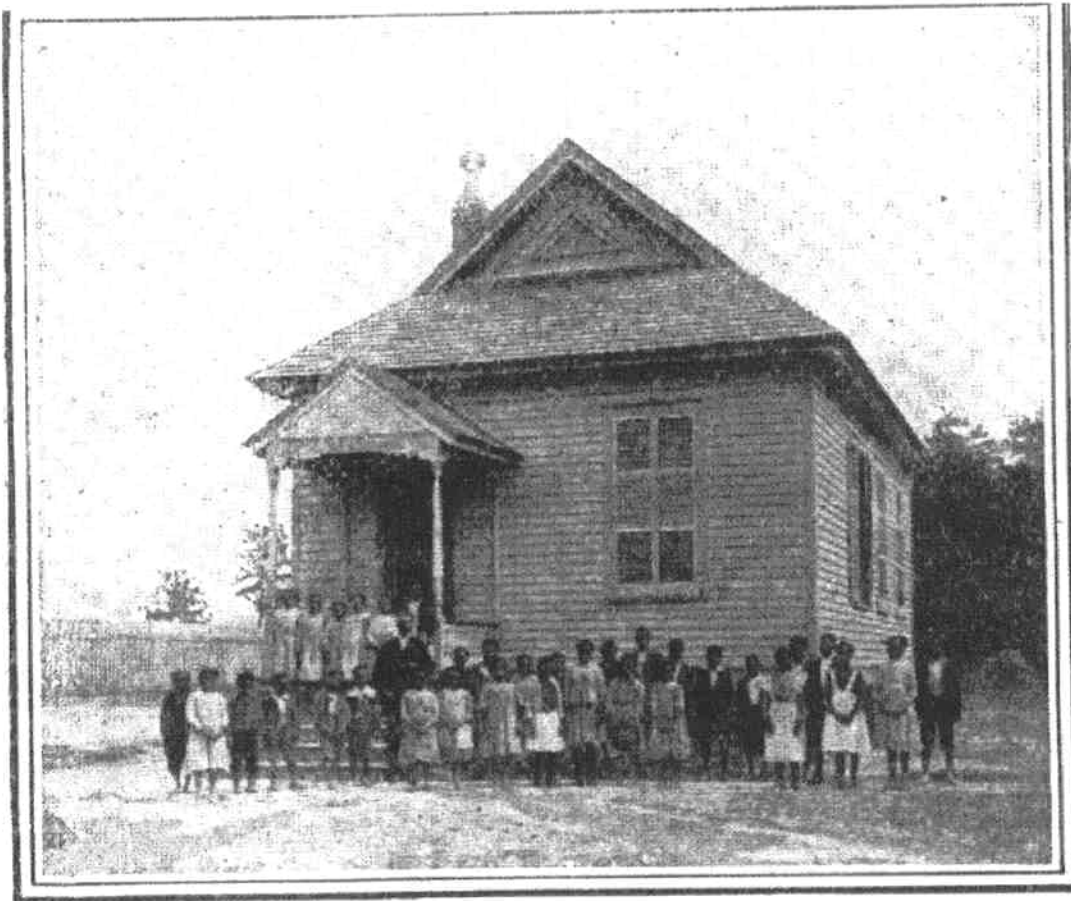


OLD WHITE SCHOOL, HANCOCK COUNTY.

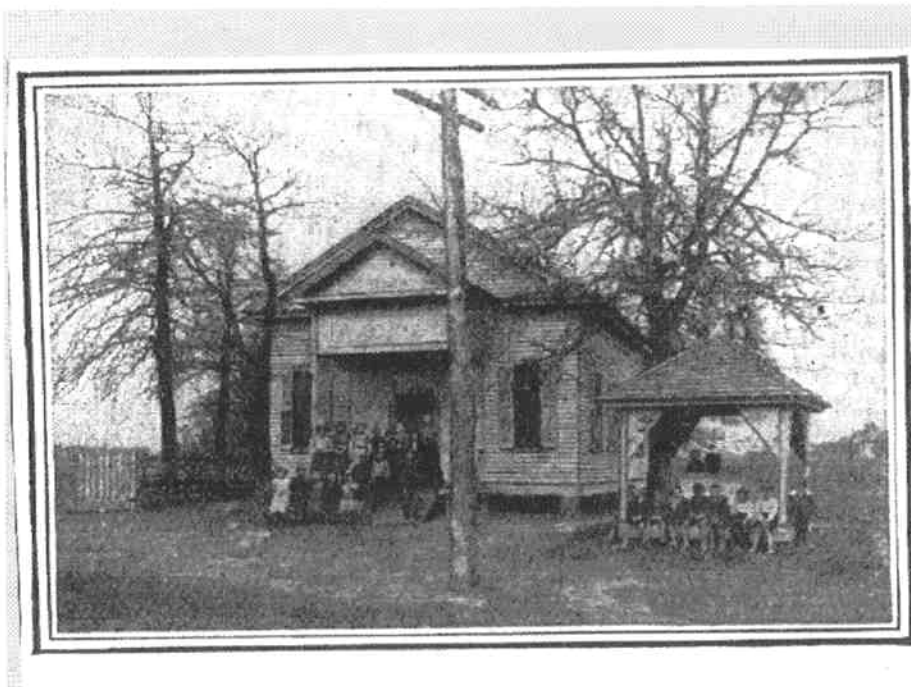
THE NEW "SUNSHINE" SCHOOL.



THE MOUNT ZION SCHOOL.



NEGRO RURAL SCHOOL, BIBB COUNTY, GEORGIA.



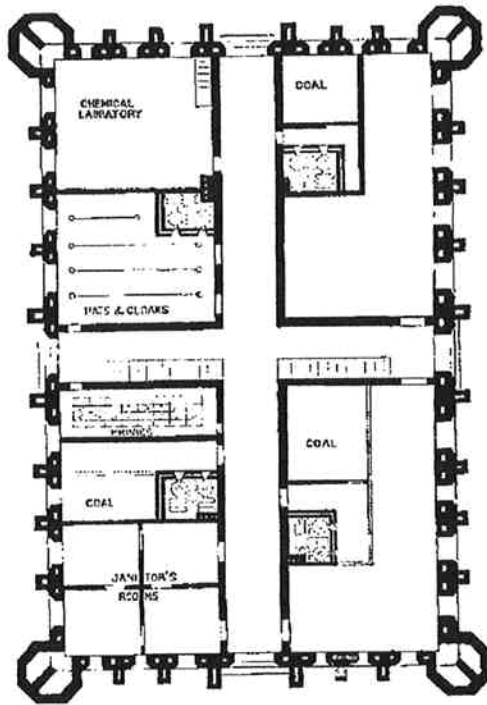


FIGURE 43. Plan of basement floor, Gothic Revival Free Academy, New York City (James Renwick, architect)

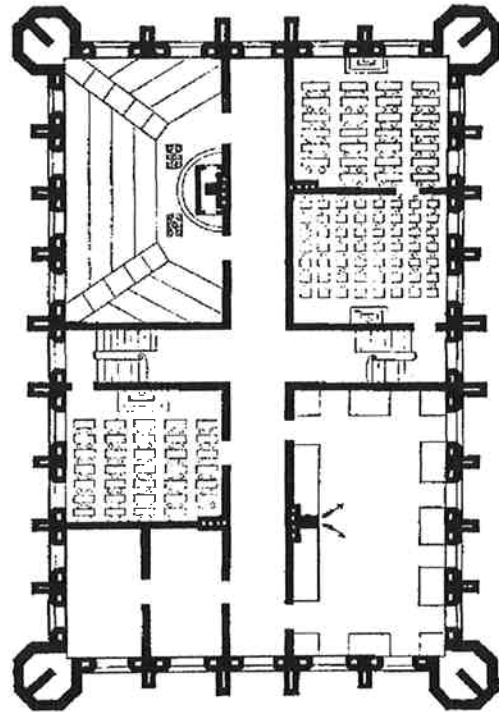


FIGURE 44. Plan of first story, Gothic Revival Free Academy, New York City (James Renwick, architect)

Illustration 5: Plan for an academy from Henry Barnard's *School Architecture*, pp. 188-190. This is a plan for a two-story school with a basement. Typical elements include heating and service areas in the basement, classrooms, offices and auditorium on the first floor, and multiple (two large and four small) classrooms on the second floor. This is a representative floor plan for an urban public school.

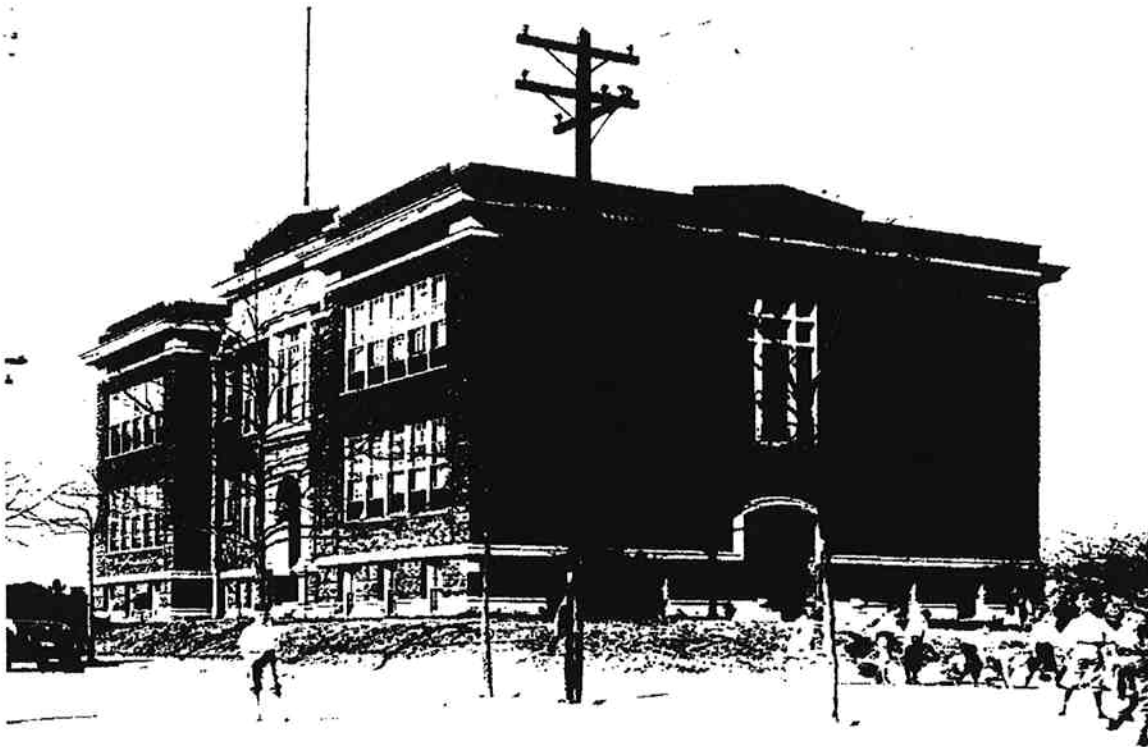
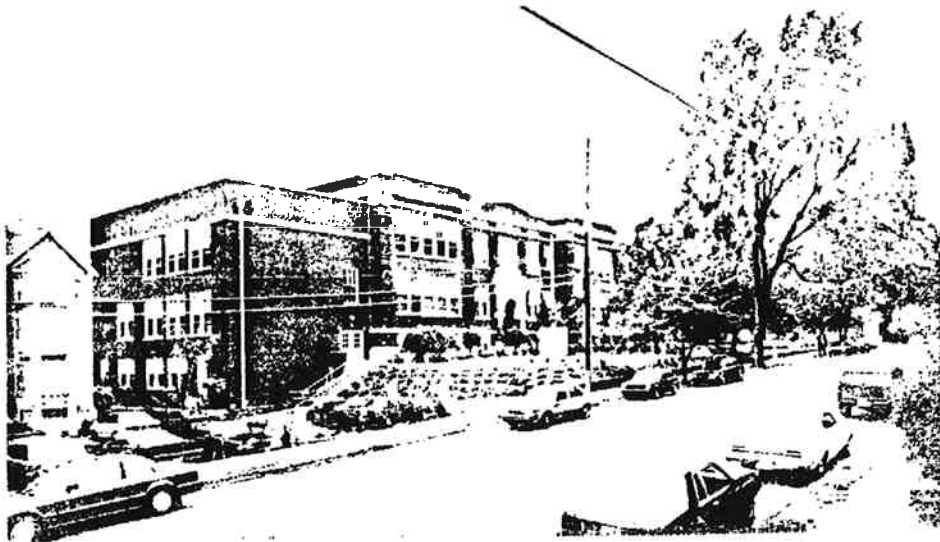


Illustration 6: Home Park School and Highland School, both built in 1911 and designed by architect Edward E. Dougherty. These identical schools are an example of a school design that was not lot-specific. The photograph of Home Park School (top), taken by Jim Lockhart for a National Register nomination, shows a classroom addition. The 1927 photograph of Highland School was taken before additions were built. It is on file at the Atlanta Public Schools Archive.

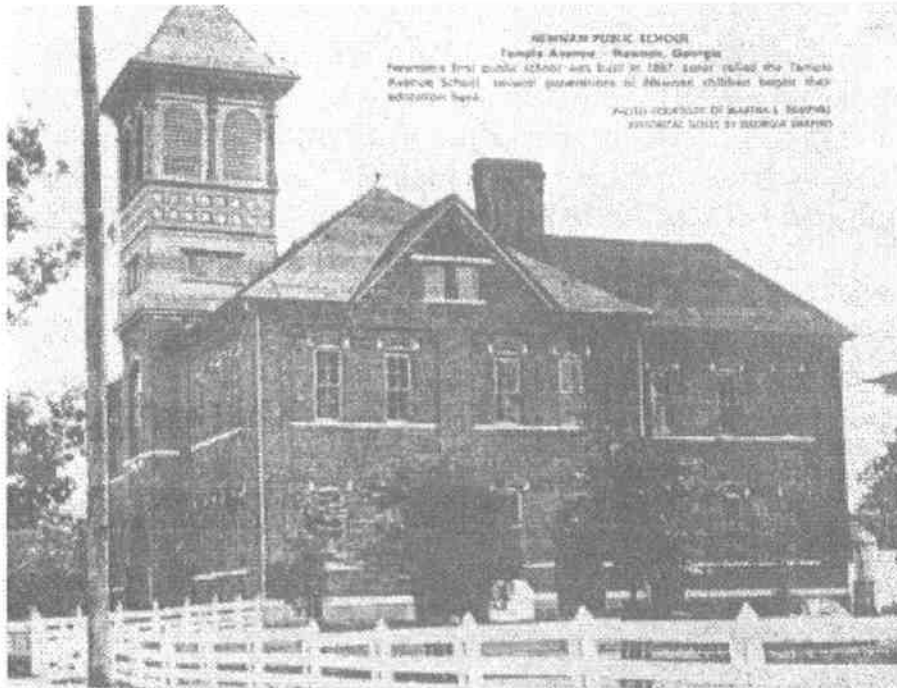


The Old Mauge Street School

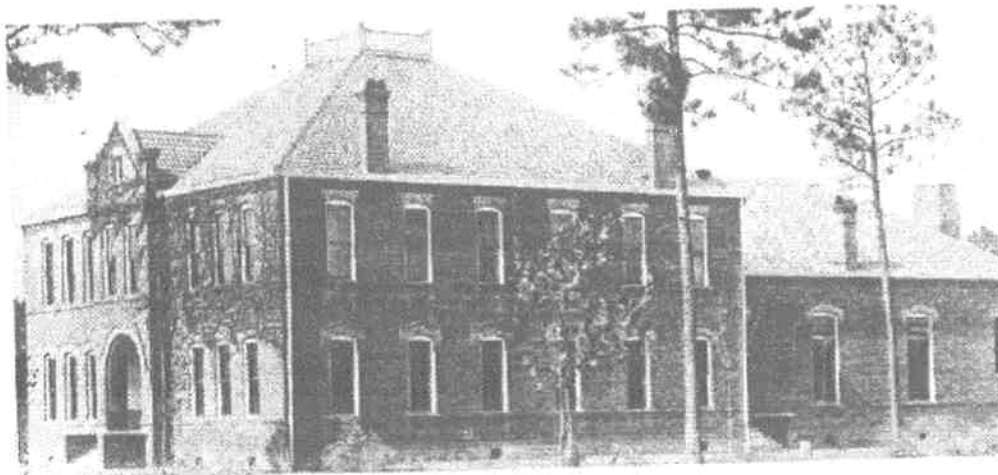
Augusta - Black
1891



Illustration 7: African-American urban public school of the late 19th century. The Mauge Street School in Augusta was a “ten-room schoolhouse,” built in 1891. Illustrations from *The Quest*, p. 31.

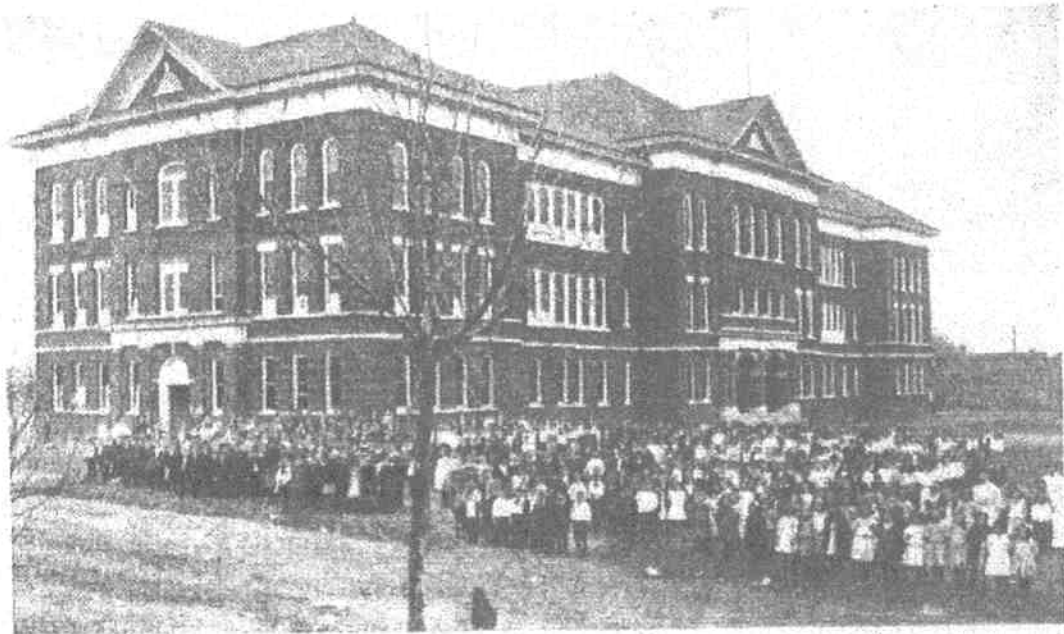


Newnan Public School, built 1887. Newnan's first public school, later called Temple Avenue School.



First brick schoolhouse in Baxley featured all tile roof.

Illustration 8: Two early urban public schools in Georgia towns. The upper picture of the first public school in Newnan is from *Coweta County Remembered*, p.121. Note that this school has a bell tower. The lower picture shows the first brick school in Baxley, a building with many of the features common to urban public schools. Picture is from *Footprints in Appling County*, p. 263.

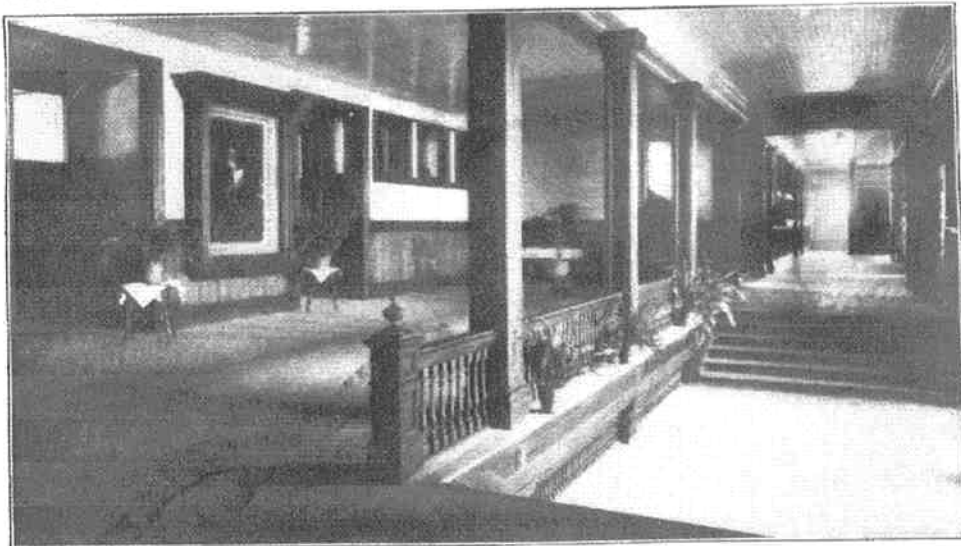


The John Milledge School

1908 Augusta

EDUCATION

BUILDING



MAIN CORRIDOR, JOHN MILLEDGE SCHOOL, AUGUSTA, GA.

Illustration 9: Upper picture is from *The Quest*, p. 48. The John Milledge School in Augusta is a typical urban public school of the early 20th century. Lower picture shows the main hallway of the John Milledge School. This illustration, from *American Schoolhouses*, pp.52-53, confirms the importance of the corridors in urban public schools.

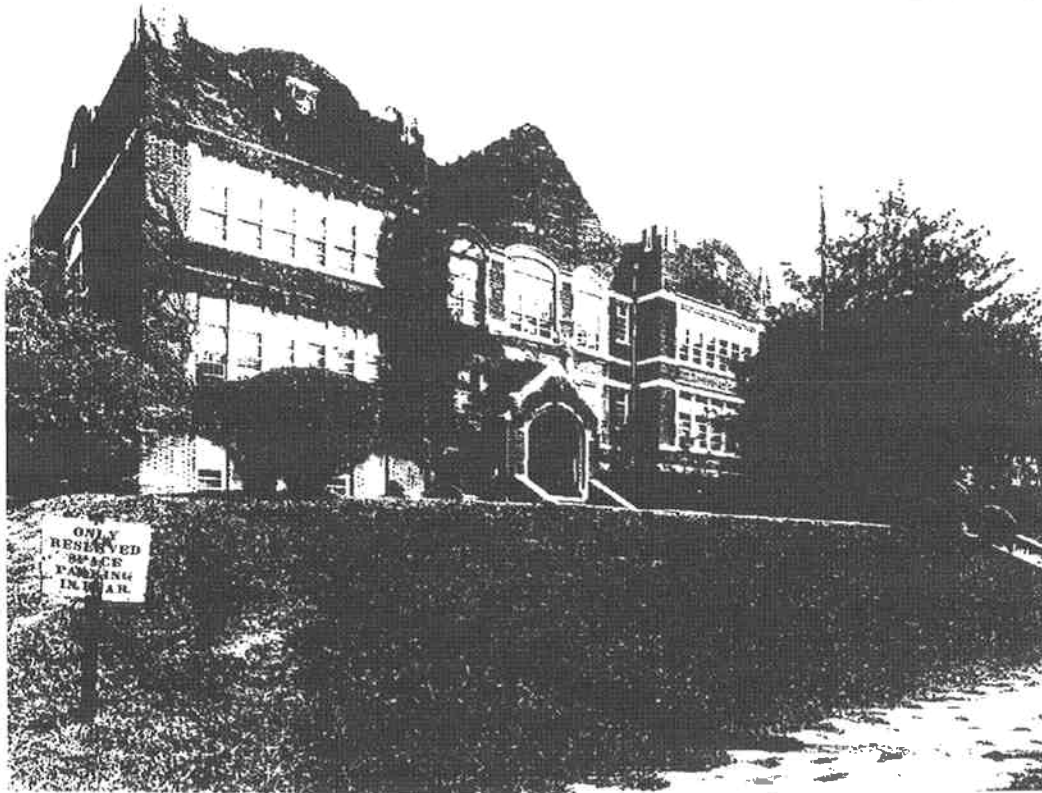


Illustration 10: Two urban public schools. The Candler Street School (top) in Gainesville, designed by Cunningham Brothers of South Carolina, was built in 1911. The Adair School in Atlanta was built in 1912. The architect was Edward E. Dougherty, who also designed the Highland School and the Home Park School one year earlier. Both photographs were taken by Jim Lockhart as part of National Register nominations.

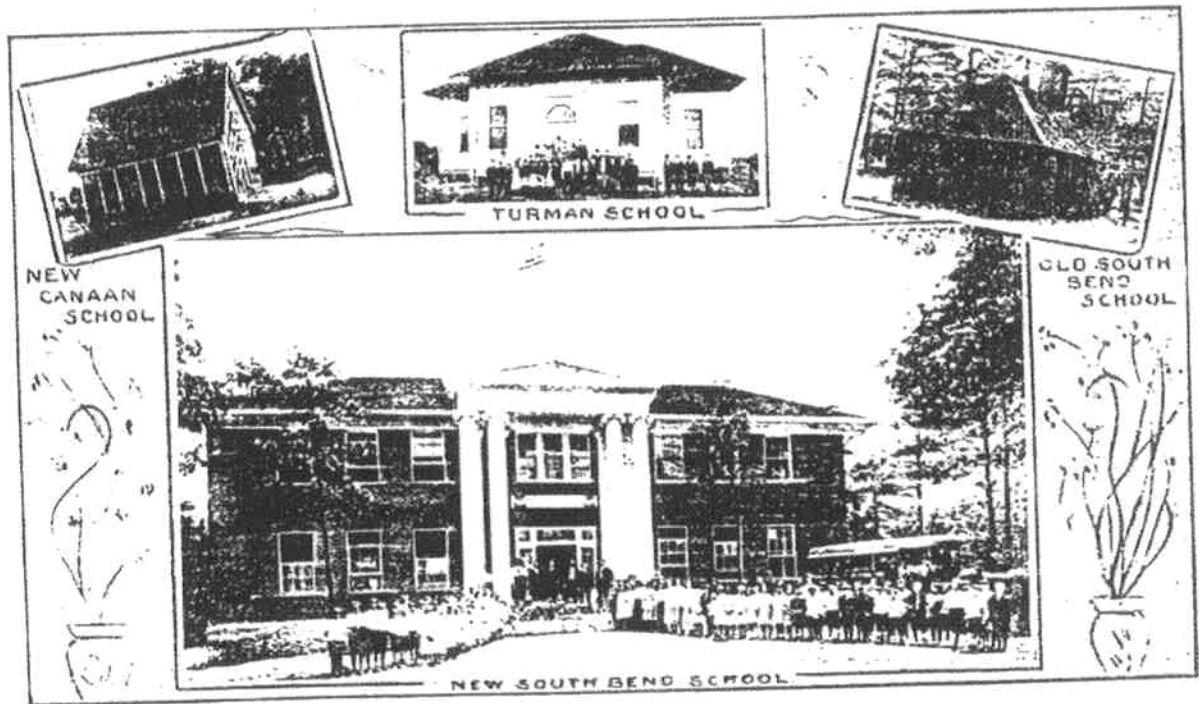
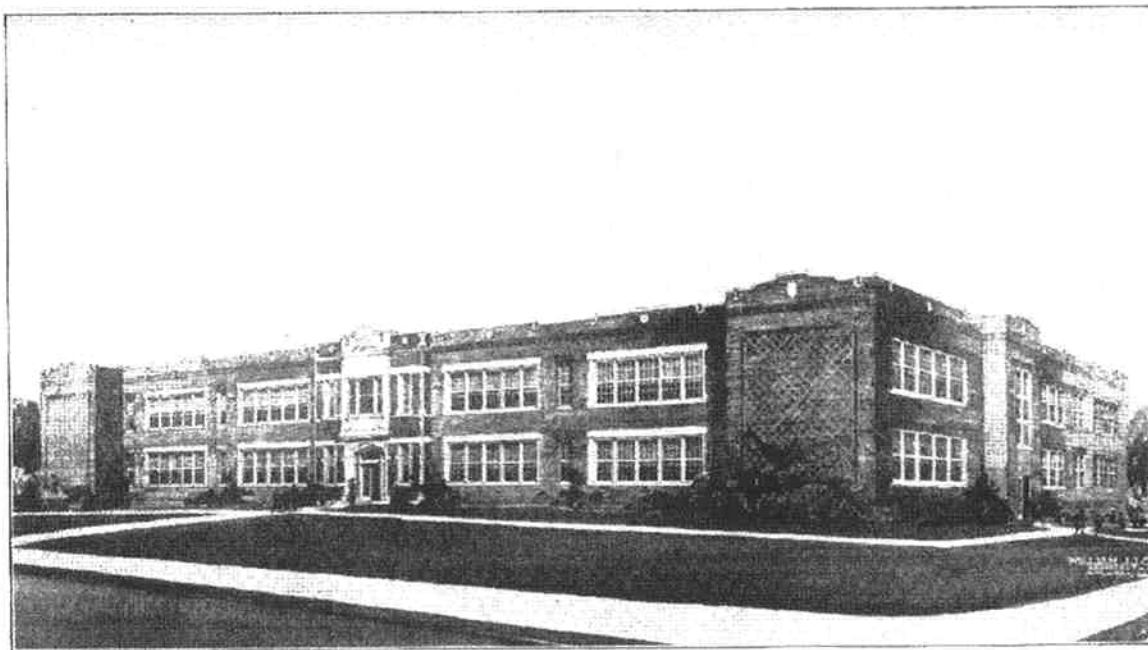
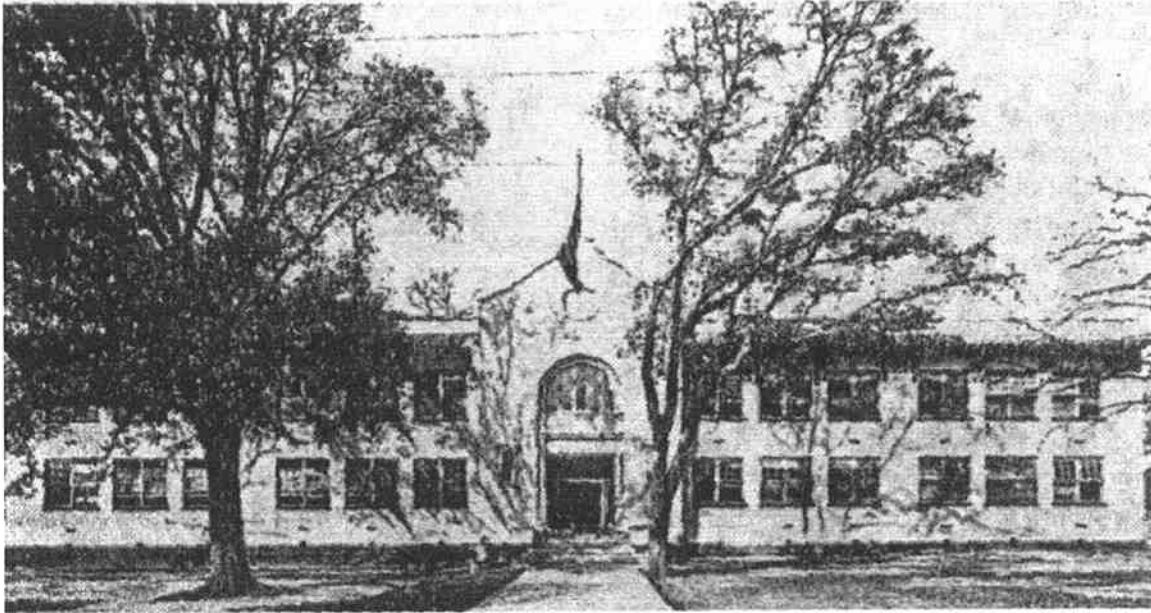


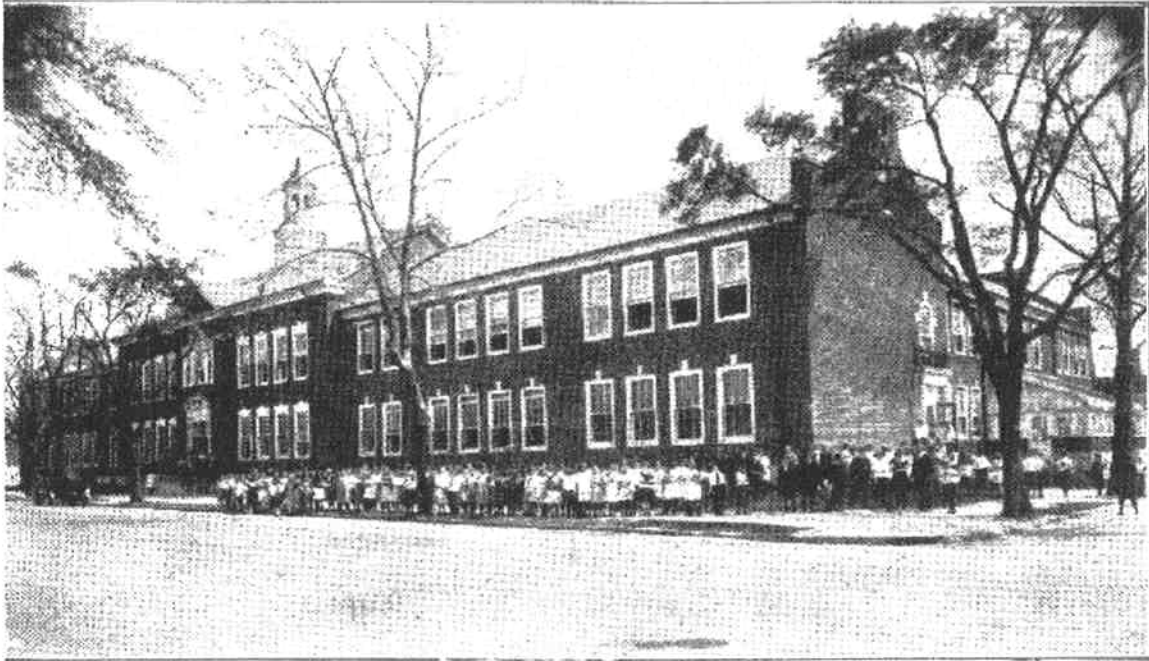
ILLUSTRATION OF CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL BUILDING, FULTON COUNTY, GEORGIA.
 THE THREE SMALL SCHOOLS ABOVE WERE CONSOLIDATED AS SHOWN IN THE LOWER PICTURE DURING THE SPRING OF 1910.

Illustration 11: Photo from the 1911 *School Architecture Georgia* booklet showing early efforts for consolidation. Consolidation was advertised during this time by the Board of Education as the best system for the future.

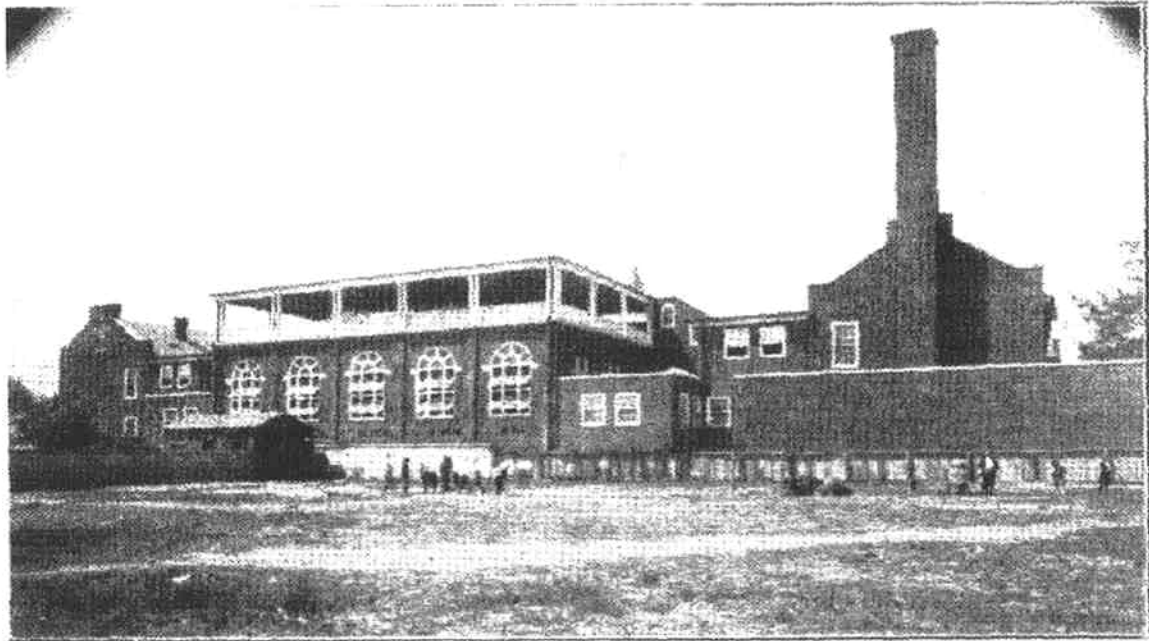


MONTEZUMA HIGH SCHOOL.

Illustration 12. Two urban high schools of the early consolidation period. The design of the 1922 high school building (top) in Bainbridge, a town in south Georgia, shows Spanish influence. Photograph from *Decatur County Georgia Past and Present 1823-1991*. Located in Macon, Bibb County, the Montezuma High School was built in the early 1920s. The architect for this middle Georgia school was William J. J. Chase, who designed more than 100 Georgia schools during his long career.

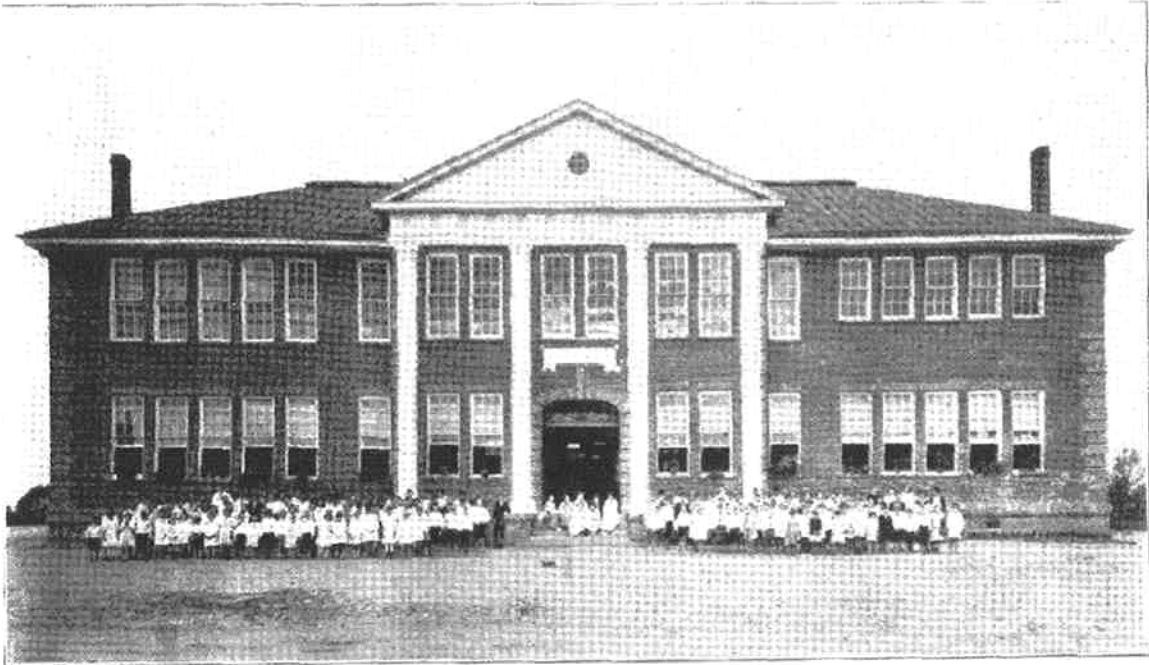


35th Street Junior High School, Savannah, Ga.

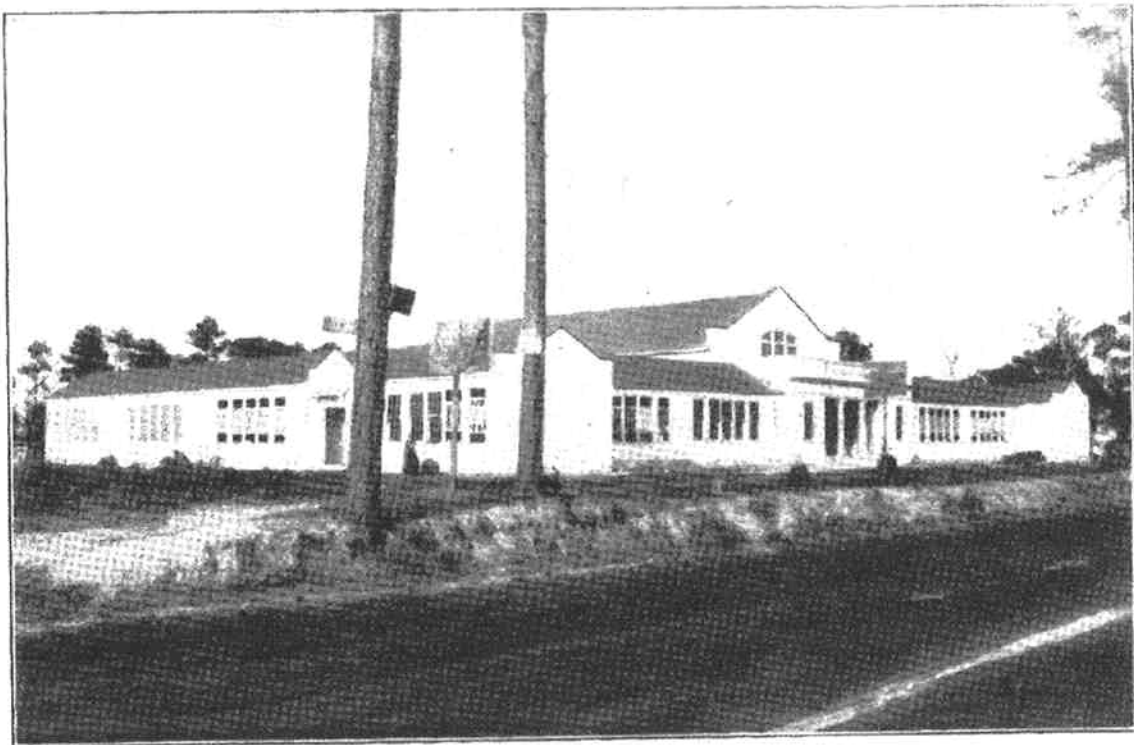


Rear view 35th Street Junior High School, Savannah, Ga., showing open air assembly over gymnasium.

Illustration 13. Junior High Schools were a phenomenon of the consolidation period. They were built in the larger towns and cities of the state. This excellent example of a large urban school of the consolidation period is located in Savannah. These photographs were taken from Board of Education Reports.



Heron, Houston County, Consolidated School. State Aided and South Hughes.



Leslie Consolidated School Sumter County.

Illustration 14. Two examples of consolidated schools, both located in middle Georgia. This type of school was built throughout rural Georgia during the period between the two World Wars. The photographs were taken from Board of Education Reports.

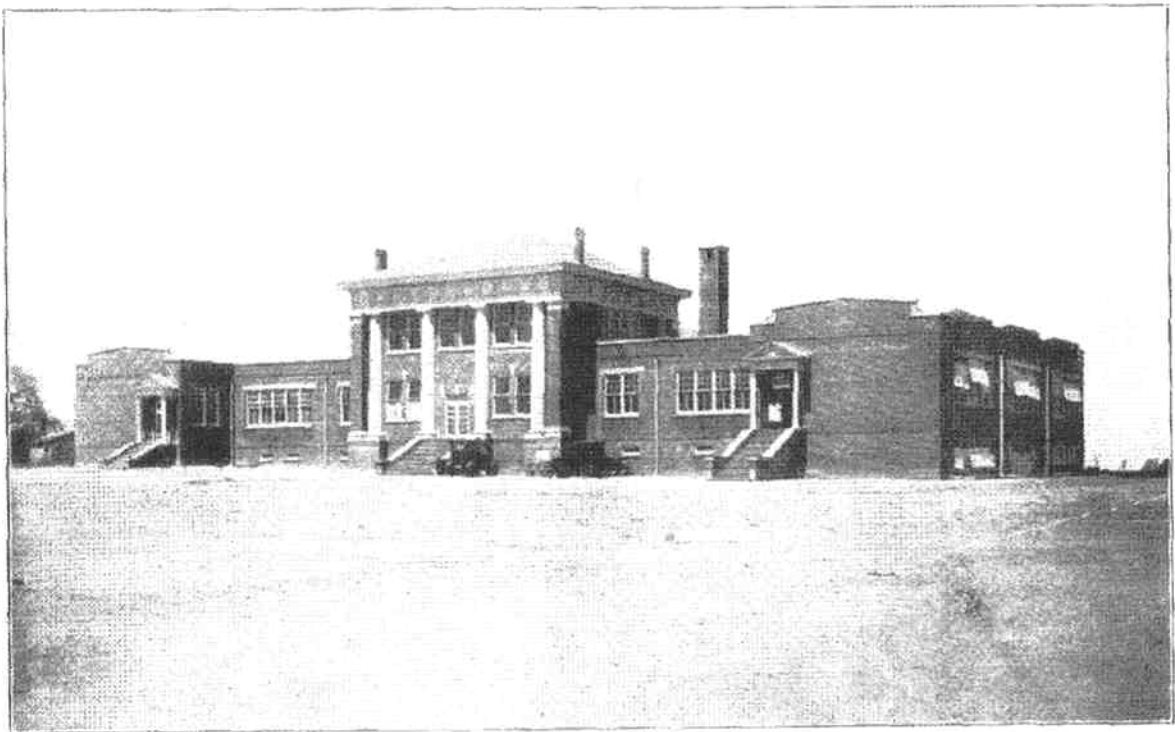


CAYE SPRING CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL.

The Consolidated School at Cave Spring was erected at a cost of \$600,000. School bonds for the building were voted by the people with only nine opposing votes. The building is located on nine acres of land and contains a most beautiful school yard and athletic field. The plans were carefully studied and approved by the State Department of Education.

The building is of brick, tile and stucco construction. It covers nearly 1½ acres of ground and contains thirty rooms with 18 large class rooms. It has an auditorium with a seating capacity of 1,000. The building has rooms for agriculture and home economics. It also contains cloak rooms, lockers, rest room and a library room. It is steam heated and lighted with electricity. The building is equipped with sanitary drinking fountains, and the water supply for the building comes from one of the finest springs in North Georgia, the spring from which the town of Cave Spring derives its name.

The 223 pupils who live within two miles of the school walk, and the 275 who live from two to ten miles are transported in large roomy three-ton passenger trucks.



WOODBURY HIGH SCHOOL.
New Consolidated School.

Illustration 15. Two county schools in west Georgia. The Cave Spring Consolidated School in Floyd County was built in 1922, designed by architects Lockwood and Poundstone of Atlanta, another firm that specialized in schools. Woodbury High School, in Meriwether County in middle Georgia, is a typical design for this kind of school with a central entrance flanked by wings. Both photographs are from Board of Education reports.



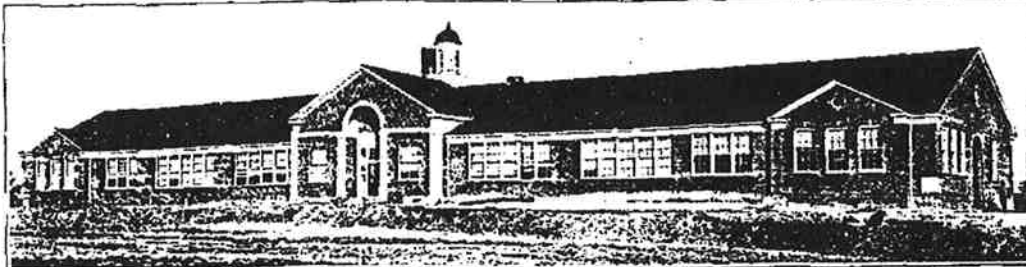
STARR HIGH SCHOOL, in Coweta County, is a consolidation of the following schools: Turin, Sharpsburg, Longstreet, Pondview, and the upper grades of Bailey and Standing Rock schools.

This school has 210 pupils, 6 teachers, 11 grades, and a nine months term, a vocational teacher for boys. Attendance in days for the year will be 75% increase over that of several little schools before consolidation, teachers MUCH better, cost increase about 10%. The building has electric light plant, water system, sewerage, best toilets in basement, hot water heating.

Seventeen members in Agriculture Club, large canning or girls' club.



Illustration 16. Two rural consolidated high schools in north (top) and south (lower) Georgia. The photograph of Starr High School is from the Board of Education Reports. The picture of Kingsland Consolidated High School was taken from *Camden's Challenge: a history of Camden County, Georgia*, p. 113.



COLLEGE PARK HIGH

SOME RECENT GEORGIA SCHOOLS DESIGNED BY
WM. J. J. CHASE, A. I. A., ARCHITECT
 SCHOOL BUILDING SPECIALIST

140 PEACHTREE STREET

ATLANTA

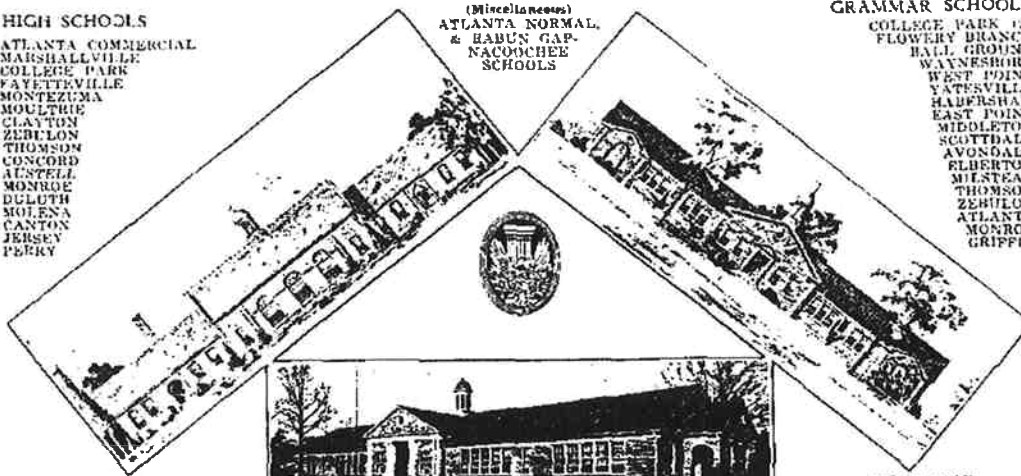
HIGH SCHOOLS

- ATLANTA COMMERCIAL
- MARSHALLVILLE
- COLLEGE PARK
- FAYETTEVILLE
- MONTEZUMA
- MOLTHE
- CLAYTON
- ZEBULON
- THOMSON
- CONCORD
- ALSTELL
- MONROE
- DULUTH
- MOLINA
- CANTON
- JERSEY
- PERRY

(Miscellaneous)
 ATLANTA NORMAL,
 & BABUN GAP-
 NACOOCHEE
 SCHOOLS

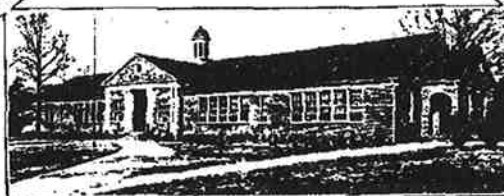
GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

- COLLEGE PARK 121
- FLOWERY BRANCH
- HALL GROUND
- WAYNESBORO
- WEST POINT
- YATESVILLE
- HABERSHAM
- EAST POINT
- MIDDLETON
- SCOTSDALE
- AVONDALE
- ELBERTON
- MILSTEAD
- THOMSON
- ZEBULON
- ATLANTA
- MONROE
- GRIFFIN

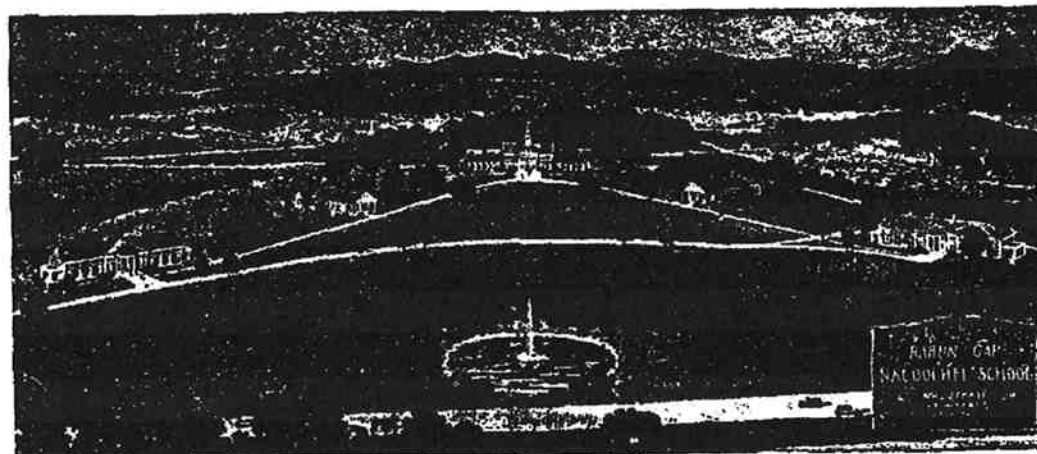


WAYNESBORO GRAMMAR

PERRY HIGH



R. L. HOPE GRAMMAR SCHOOL, ATLANTA



BABUN GAP-NACOOCHEE SCHOOL, BABUN GAP, GA.

Illustration 17. Consolidated public schools designed by William J.J. Chase.

Shown above are some of the 30 odd schools which the C. Lloyd Precher Company, architects and engineers, have supervised in the \$3,000,000 building program of the Atlanta public school system. Buildings are No. 1, Edgewood; 2, Grant Park; 3, Morningside; 4, Davis; 5, Capitol View; 6, Stanton; 7, Haygood-State and 8, Whiteford.

The Precher organization is known throughout the entire South and has directed erection of millions of dollars worth of construction in every section of the country.

One of the largest buildings it has supervised in Atlanta in recent months is Atlanta's new \$1,000,000 city hall now under construction at Mitchell and Washington streets.

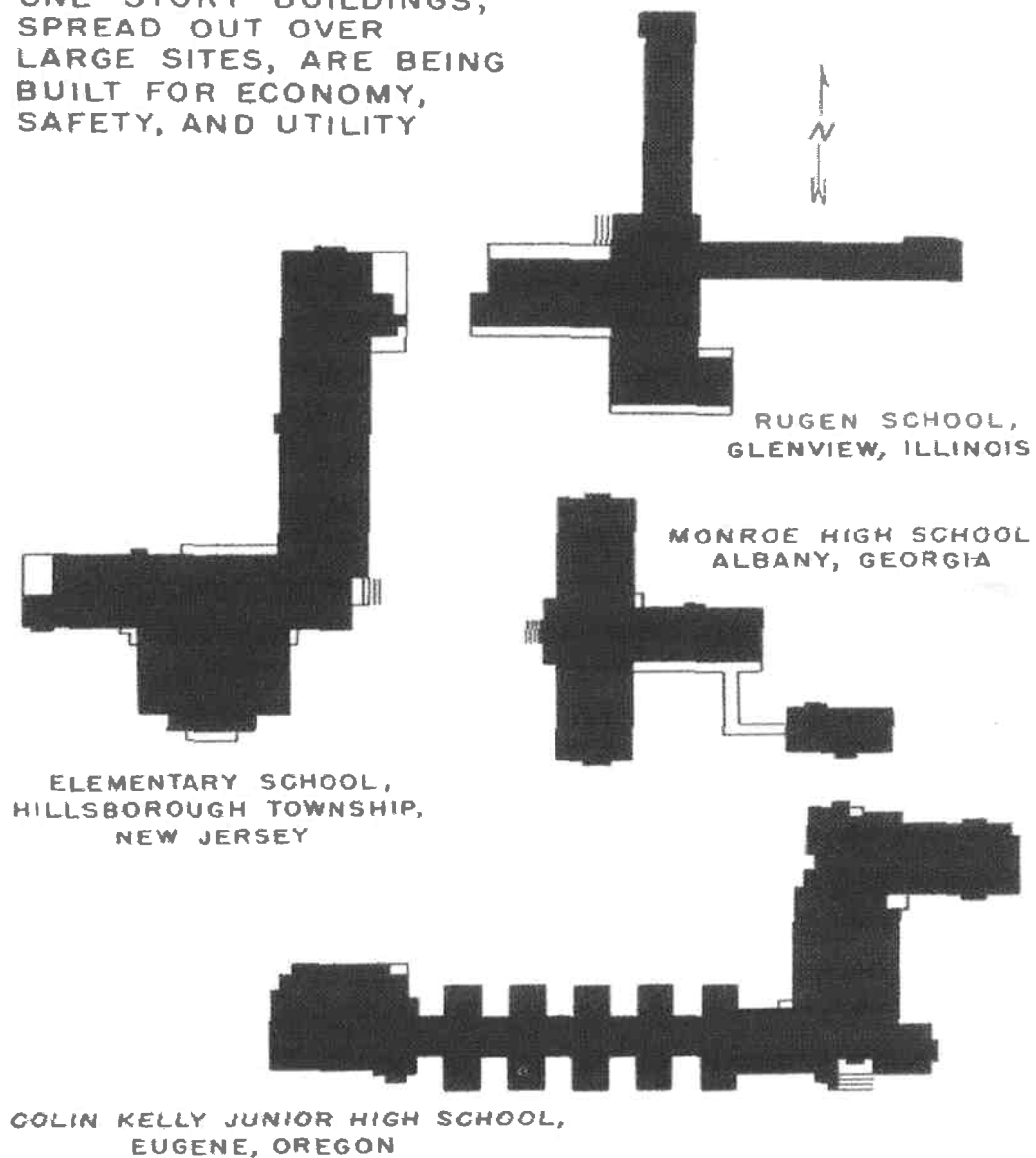
G. LLOYD PRECHER & COMPANY
Architects and Engineers

MORTGAGE GUARANTEE BUILDING PHONE WA. 2447

Illustration 18: Consolidated public schools designed by G. Lloyd Precher & Company.

FIGURE 16

ONE-STORY BUILDINGS,
SPREAD OUT OVER
LARGE SITES, ARE BEING
BUILT FOR ECONOMY,
SAFETY, AND UTILITY



AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Illustration 19: Typical floor plans for the early modern public school from American School Buildings, page 206. This diagram shows national examples as well as a Georgia school.

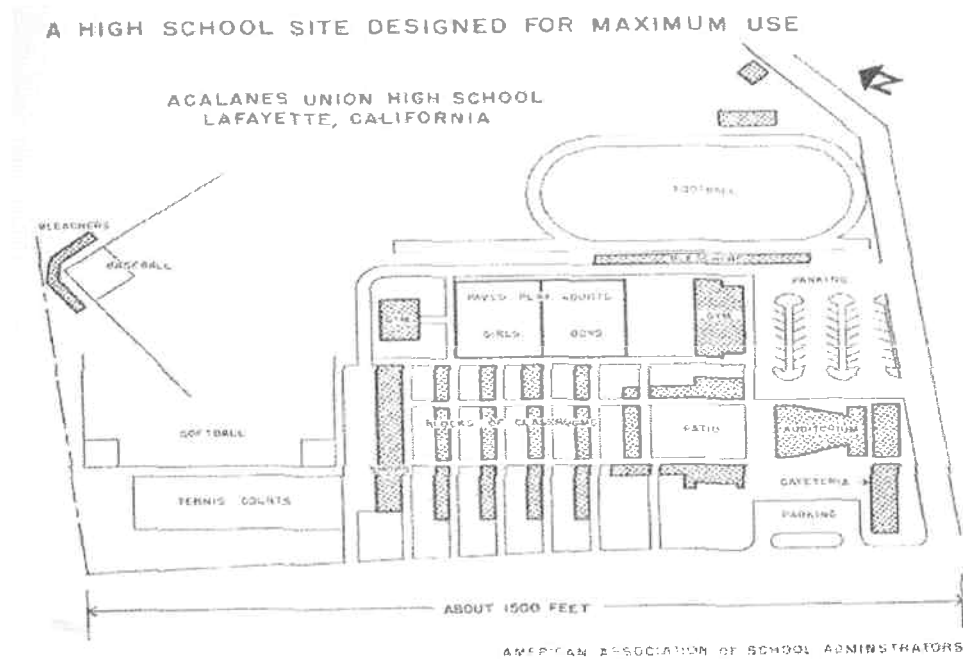
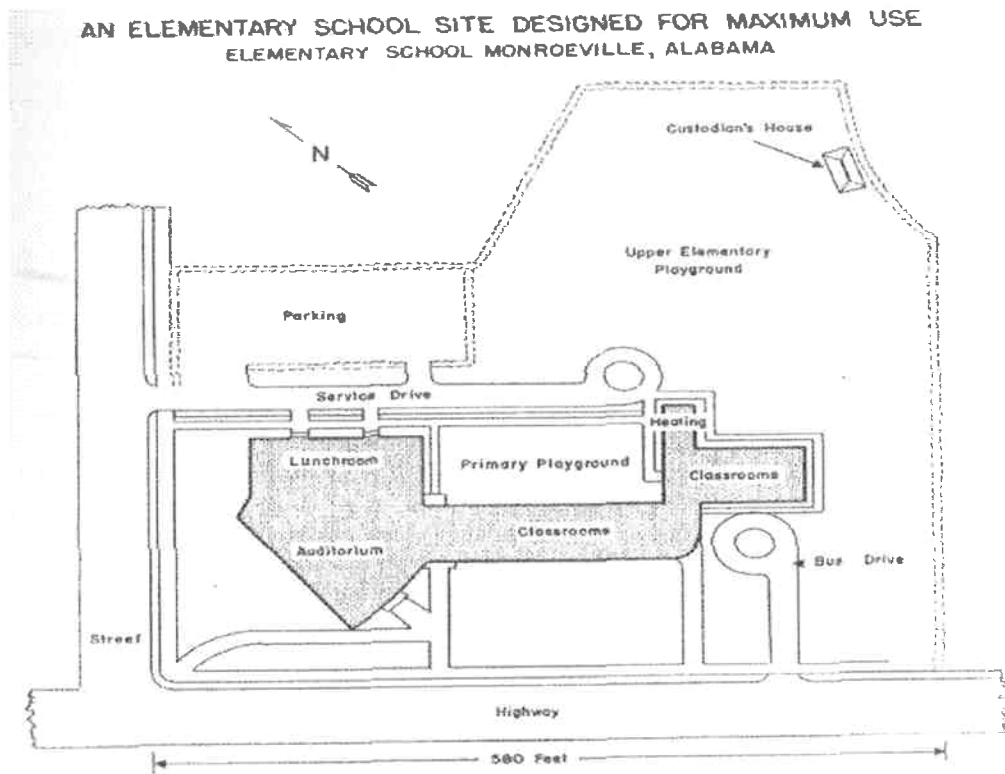


Illustration 20. Examples of site plans for an early modern public elementary and an early modern public high school from *American School Buildings*, pages 77 and 81.

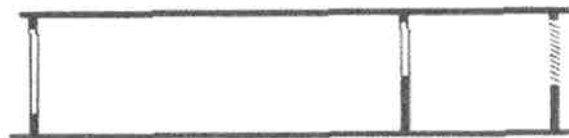
BILATERAL OR MULTILATERAL LIGHTING IN ONE-STORY BUILDINGS WITH SINGLE-LOADED CORRIDORS

Glass block clerestory above dropped corridor roof.
Glass block above clear glass vision strip on window wall



MICHIGAN

Classroom and corridor roof a single slab. Clear glass transom on corridor wall of classroom. Shading louvers on exterior wall of corridor



CALIFORNIA

Curved ceiling to reduce ceiling brightness at high point.
Louvered projecting screen on window wall below glass block strip, to reduce sky glare thru clear glass vision strip.
Louvered overhang above clear glass clerestory



NEW YORK

Square classroom lighted from top and both sides.
Ridge skylight with ventilator.
Plywood egg-crate light baffle placed horizontally above sloping portions of ceiling.
Clear glass transom high on south wall; sunlight blocked by overhanging roof of open corridor



CALIFORNIA

Illustration 21. Examples of lighting solutions from the American School Architecture, page 229.

BILATERAL LIGHTING IN ONE-STORY BUILDINGS WITH DOUBLE-LOADED CORRIDORS

Skylight with ridge ventilator provides light for horizontal clear glass skylights in classroom and corridor ceilings. Heating absorbing glass is recommended for skylight



LOUISIANA

Ridge skylight provides light for transoms on corridor wall of classroom and for skylight in low-ceilinged corridor



OHIO

Dropped corridor roof, to provide ventilating clerestory windows on corridor wall of classroom. Canopies above southern windows. No direct sunlight strikes windows in school hours from April 15 to October 15



LOUISIANA

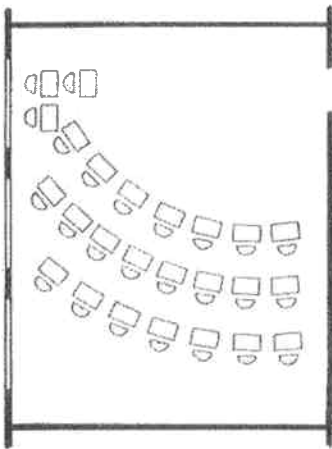
Clerestory or monitor windows provide added light for inner part of classroom. Overhang above clerestory windows blocks off direct rays of sun. Clerestory windows and corridor breeze sash pivoted for ventilation



FLORIDA

Illustration 21, continued. More lighting examples from American School Buildings, page 231.

SUGGESTED ARRANGEMENTS OF INDIVIDUAL DESKS OR TABLES FOR GOOD SEEING IN ROOM LIGHTED FROM ONE SIDE ONLY



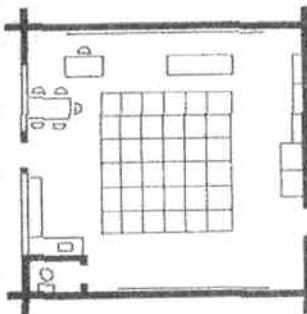
A - QUADRANT PLAN INCLUDING PROVISION (CHAIRS IN UPPER LEFT-HAND CORNER OF SKETCH) FOR LEFT-HANDED PUPILS



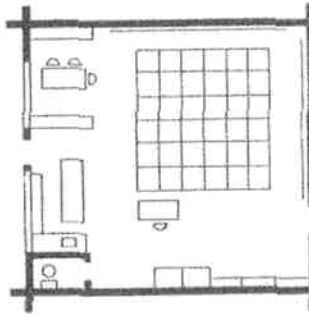
B - CURVED ROWS TO MAINTAIN FOR EACH PUPIL A 50-DEGREE ANGLE BETWEEN LINE OF VISION AND FRONT LIMIT OF WINDOWS

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

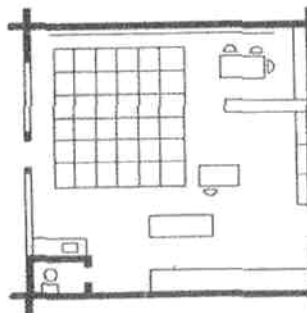
SUGGESTED ARRANGEMENTS OF FURNITURE and EQUIPMENT in SQUARE ROOM with DIFFUSED LIGHTING



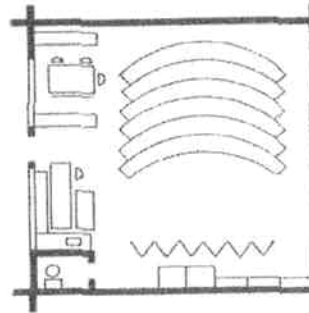
POOR ARRANGEMENT



BETTER ARRANGEMENT # 1



BETTER ARRANGEMENT # 2



ARRANGED FOR DRAMATICS OR PICTURE PROJECTION (ADAPTED FROM # 1)

Illustration 22. Suggestions for classroom arrangement from *American School Buildings*, pages 246 and 249.

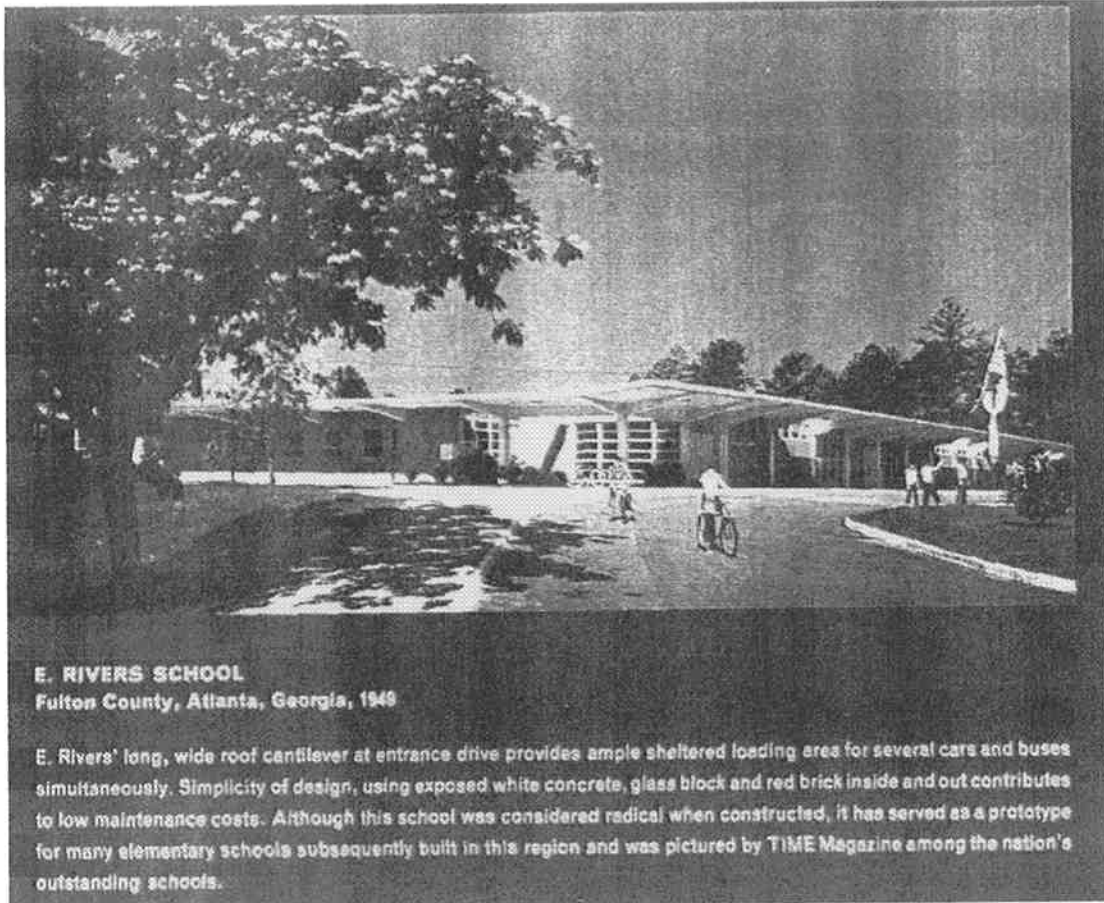
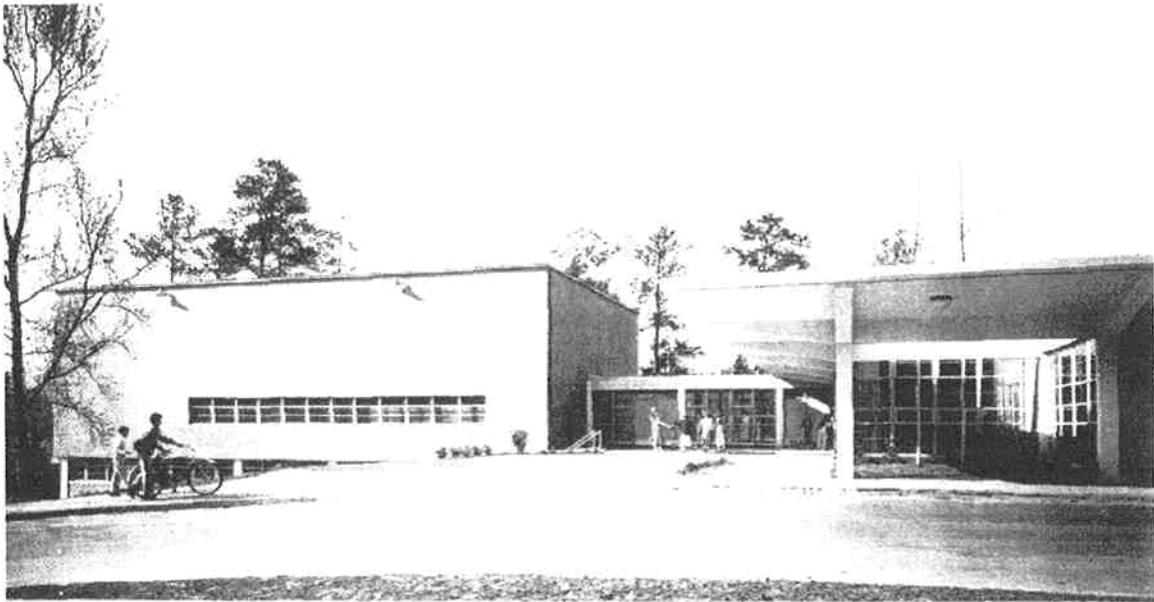
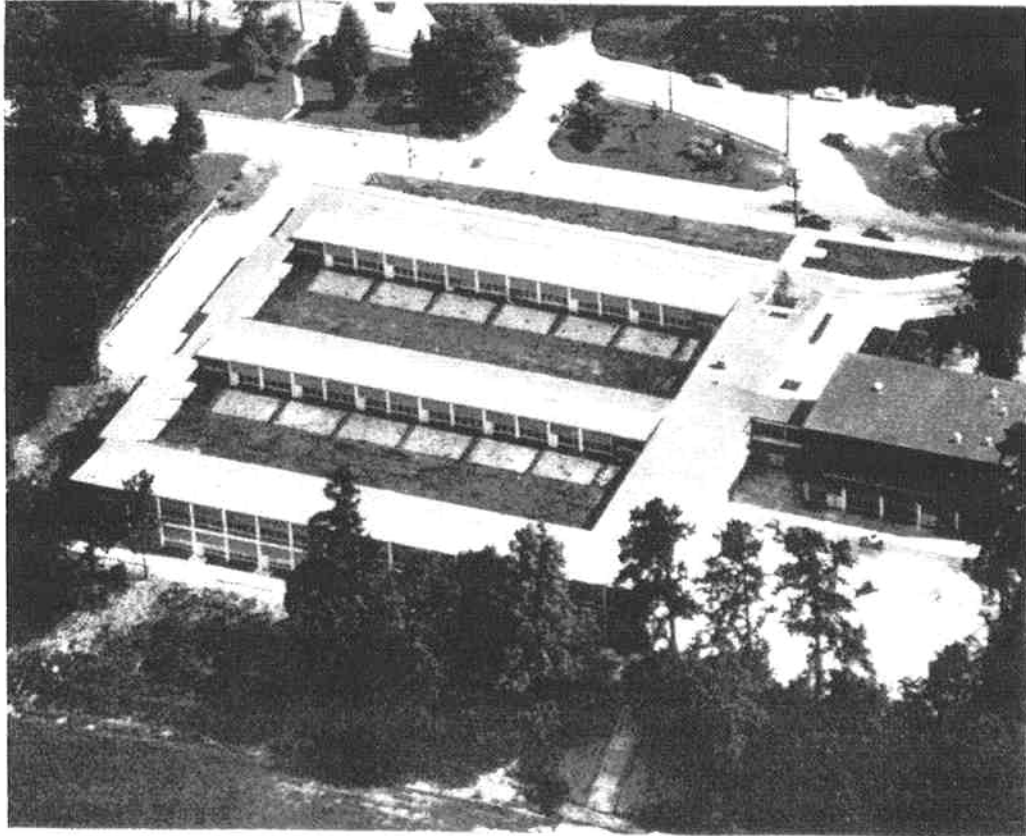


Illustration 23. The E. Rivers School was designed by the Atlanta architectural firm of Stevens and Wilkinson in 1949, and is the quintessential early modern school design. The firm dominated school architectural design in Georgia during the period after World War II, and was responsible for more than 150 schools throughout the state. These pictures are from a publication of the firm's *Selected Works of Stevens and Wilkinson*, pp. 42-116.



E. RIVERS SCHOOL
ARCHITECTURE

Illustration 23, continued. Two more pictures of the E. Rivers School. Above is an aerial view which clearly shows the design of the school. The other photograph shows the auditorium.

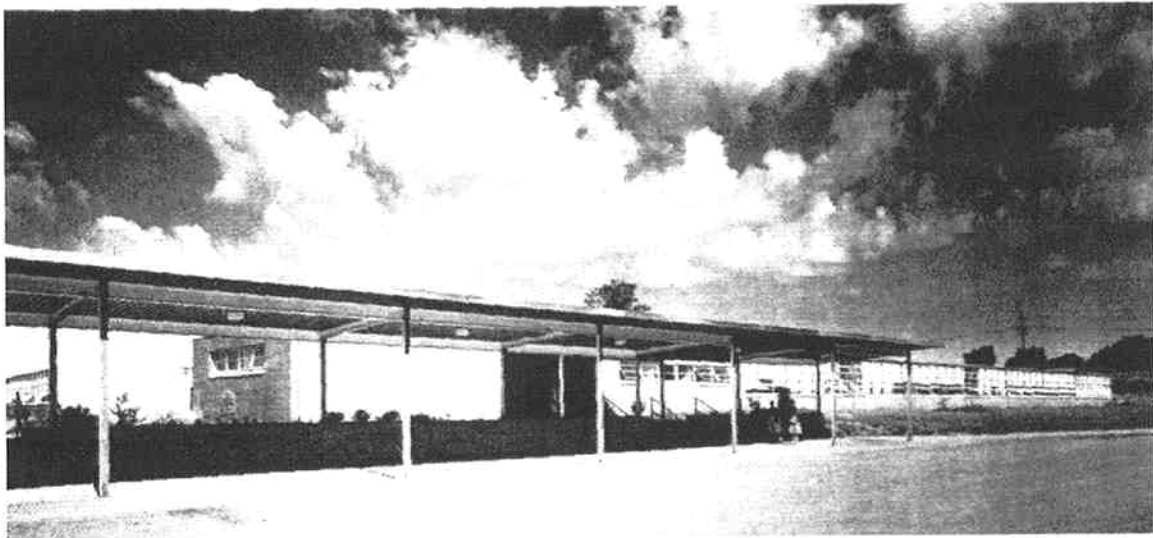
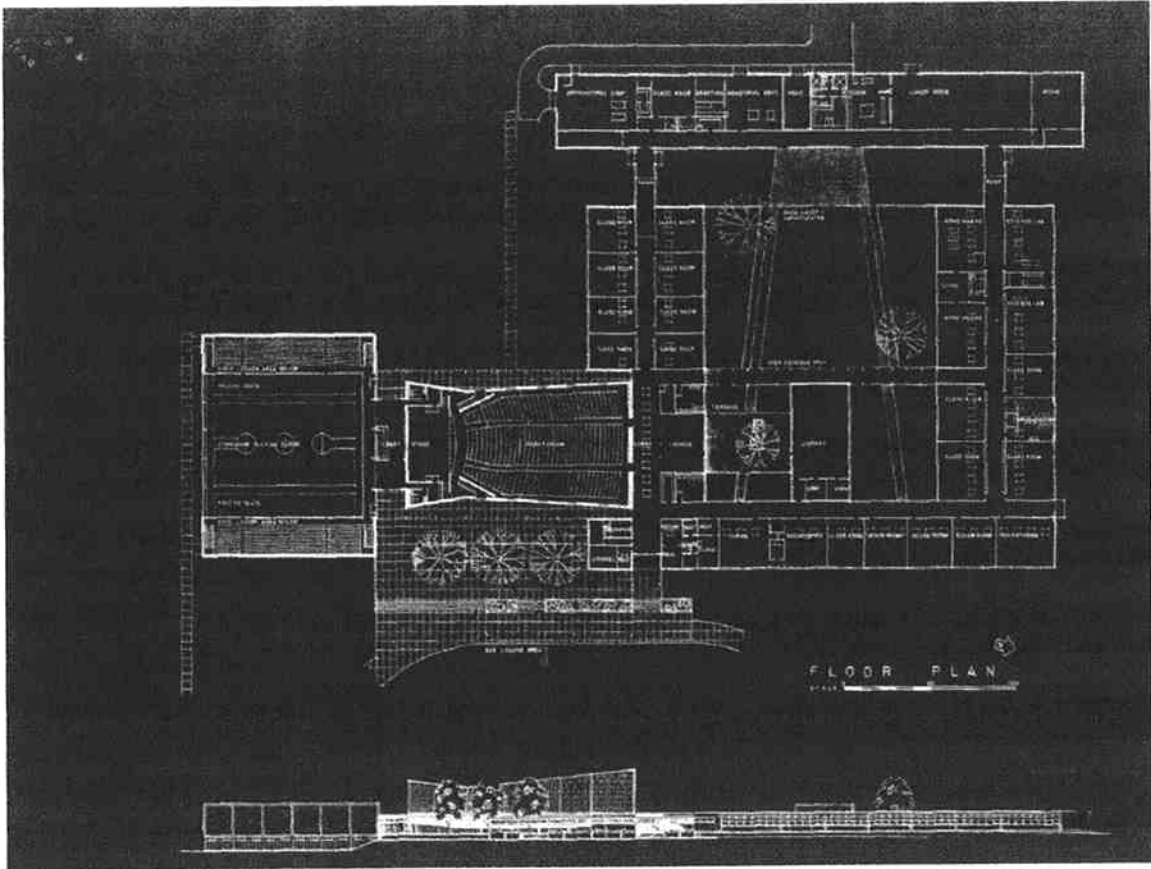
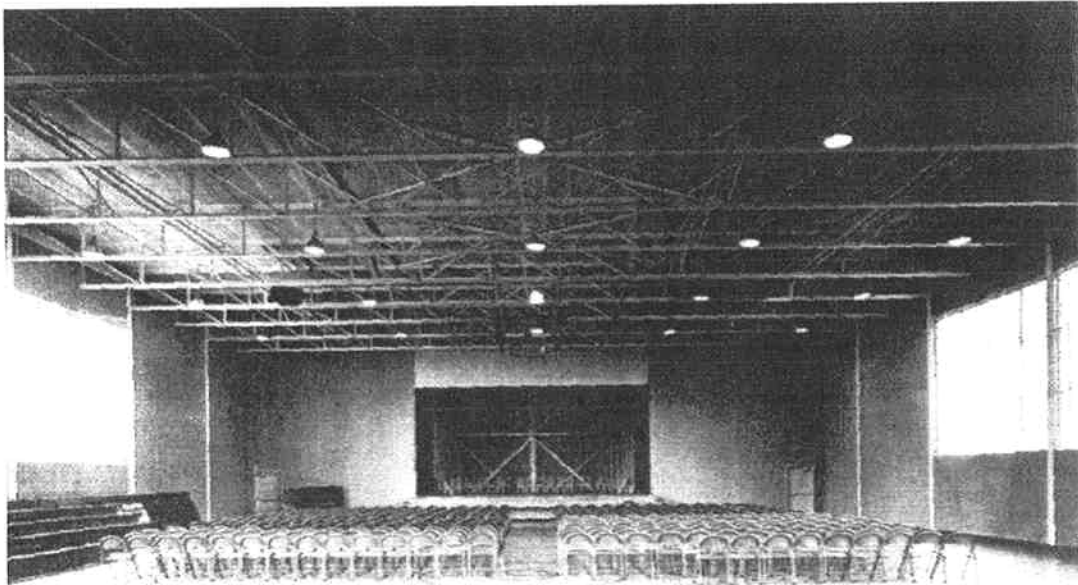
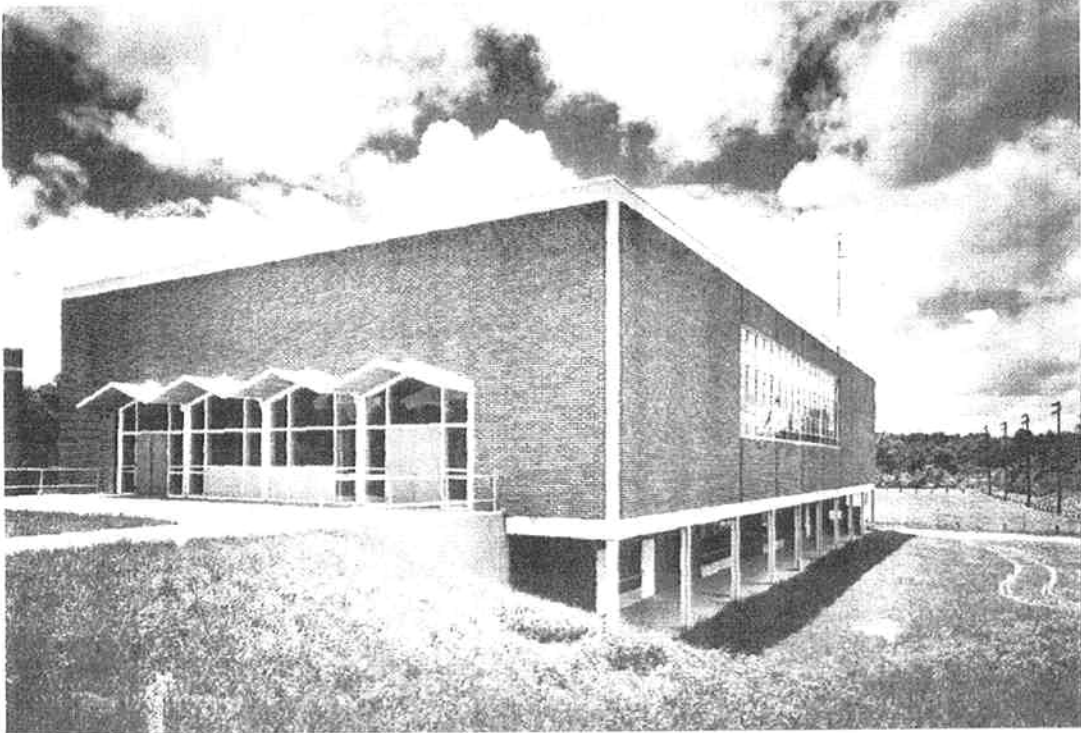


Illustration 24. Stevens and Wilkinson's mid-1950s design for Baldwin County High School, an early modern public school in Milledgeville, a town in middle Georgia. Plan and photograph from Stevens and Wilkinson's *Selected Works of Stevens and Wilkinson*.



Illustration 26, continued. Classroom in the McCoy Hill School, Americus, Georgia. "Day lighting of classrooms is enhanced with the use of light-directing glass block skylights." From Stevens and Wilkinson's *Selected Works of Stevens and Wilkinson*.



*Illustration 27. Gymnasium-Auditorium designed by Stevens and Wilkinson in 1955 for West Point, Georgia, a small town on the west border of the state. From *Selected Works of Stevens and Wilkinson*.*