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National Park Service

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National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (formerly 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

X New Submission _____ Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Rosenwald Schools in Georgia

B. Associated Historic Contexts

Rosenwald Schools in Georgia, 1912-1937

C. Form Prepared by

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D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation.

(_____ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Kathleen Cleaver 6-26-09

Signature and title of certifying official | Date

State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Signature of the Keeper Date of Action

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

The rural school building program of the Julius Rosenwald Fund had a significant impact upon the advancement of African-American education in the state of Georgia. Between 1915 and 1937, the Rosenwald Fund helped build 259 schools throughout the state. To date, approximately four dozen of the Georgia schools have been identified. For a listing of these schools, please see Attachment One of this document. The fund was a welcome relief for the state's African-American population that had long endured the hardships and injustices imposed by Georgia's segregated public education system. In addition to assisting with the construction of new school buildings, the fund also advocated extending the school term for black students, increasing compensation received by black educators, subsidizing transportation for black students, and supporting the development of libraries. The following historic context will provide a detailed factual account of the Rosenwald Fund's specific impact in Georgia and place its significance within the broader framework of black education in the state.

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I: African-American Education In Georgia Prior To The Julius Rosenwald Fund School Building Program, 1751-1912

Colonial, Early Republic, And Antebellum Eras, 1751-1860

Georgia was founded as a British colony in 1733 by General James Oglethorpe, the Earl of Egmont. Initially, the colony prohibited the importation of African slaves because it was inconsistent with its social and economic intentions. Plus, Oglethorpe and others worried that a black slave population might rebel during periods of conflict with the neighboring Spanish in Florida. Between 1733 and 1751, slavery was prohibited in the colony.

Demand for inexpensive laborers to work in the colony's expanding agricultural economy led to the legal importation of African slaves. Between 1751 and 1775 Georgia's enslaved population increased from less than 500 to approximately 18,000 people. During the mid-1760s, the colony began directly importing slaves from West Africa. Georgia's colonial economy closely resembled that of its neighbor South Carolina. The introduction of rice cultivation to the colony demanded large numbers of enslaved workers and created a small but powerful planter class that would dominate colonial governance.

Colonial slaveholders refrained from educating their slaves as a means of social control. Slaves were seen as a commodity to be bought, sold, and manipulated for their cheap labor. According to historian Betty Wood, "Slaves had no legal right to private lives, and they struggled against daunting odds to establish some degree of autonomy for themselves. With varying degrees of success, they tried to recreate the patterns of family and religious life they had known in Africa." Slaves resisted their bondage by running away, but it was not until the American Revolution that many would find their "best prospect of freedom."[1]

During the American Revolution thousands of slaves in Georgia gained their freedom by fleeing to British-occupied areas such as Savannah. The British adopted a policy of emancipating runaway slaves as a means of undermining the patriot rebellion. By the end of the war, many Georgia slaveholders had sustained a significant loss of property and emerged

[1] Betty Wood, ""Slavery in Colonial Georgia," *New Georgia Encyclopedia,* www.georgiaencyclopedia.org, (accessed on May 10, 2008).

from the conflict eager to replenish their enslaved labor force and institute more stringent policies to control their property.[2]

Georgia's slave codes evolved to reflect key changes in attitudes regarding the education of slaves. At no time did Georgia slaveholders consider implementing any form of universal education that would benefit their slaves. Slaves who learned to read and write either did so under the tutelage of their masters or were self-taught. Slaveholders displayed a wide array of opinions on the matter. Some slaveholders saw slavery as "a necessary evil" and adopted only a limited sense of paternalistic responsibilities toward their enslaved work force. Adherents of this doctrine argued that though slavery was not desired, the potential economic and social disaster that would result from freeing slaves would be greater than any burden of maintaining slavery. Those who held this view were less likely to feel any obligation to provide for their slaves' education.

Conversely, other slaveholders saw slavery as "a positive good." This doctrine put forth the argument that African slaves would remain uncivilized without the protective and benevolent control of slave masters who knew what was best for them. Those who shared this belief were more likely to take at least a passing interest in the quality of life of their slaves because any perceived beneficial act of charity toward their property could be interpreted as a justification for slavery's continued existence—this viewpoint was reinforced later by Southern evangelicals who preached that God ordained slavery to provide for an inferior race. A majority of slaveholders espoused the "positive good" view that in turn helped develop a new form of relations between master and slave known as paternalism.

Paternalism was the dominant expression of the master-slave relationship during the antebellum period. Paternalistic masters believed that slavery served the slaves' best interests. Masters portrayed their bondsmen as children who required constant supervision and guidance. Slavery, they argued, offered civilization to Africans who they believed to be uncivilized. For a few decades during the early antebellum period, paternalism—in combination with several other factors—offered a small window of opportunity for more slaves to learn how to read and write with their master's permission. Paternalism affected every aspect of a slave's daily life. The system led to the abandonment of the task labor system and the adoption of the gang labor system. The gang labor system involved a degree of

[2] Timothy J. Lockley, "Slavery in Revolutionary Georgia," *New Georgia Encyclopedia,* www.georgiaencyclopedia.org, (accessed on May 10, 2008); Sylvia Frey, *Water from the Rock: Black Resistance in a Revolutionary Age* (Princeton, N.J.: 1991); Thomas J. Little, "George Liele and the Rise of Independent Black Baptist Churches in the Lower South and Jamaica," *Slavery and Abolition* 16 (1995): 188-204.

supervision by whites that differed significantly from the task system. Increased supervision in turn led many masters to take an increased interest in their slave's religious beliefs. Influenced by evangelical movements that swept across the nation during the early antebellum period, some masters became convinced that their personal salvation depended upon proselytizing among black slaves. Masters used their efforts to bring religion to their slaves as justification for slavery's existence. While efforts varied widely according to individual slaveholders, the desire to proselytize slaves led to a sharp rise in the number of slave preachers and in the number of Bibles and religious literature made available to slaves. In Bartow County, Georgia, slaveholders George S. Barnsley and Charles W. Howard taught several of their slaves to read the Bible so that they could proselytize among other slaves. On one hand, masters used religion to justify slavery and exert additional controls over their slaves. Many planters believed that a Christian slave would be a more efficient and obedient worker. On the other hand, "slaves," according to historian George Tindall, "found great comfort in the church." Religion evolved within the slave community as the cornerstone of their autonomy from their masters and was often the only means available toward learning to read and write.[3]

A number of factors led Georgia's slaveholders to alter their paternalistic practices as the South faced mounting criticism about the future of slavery in America. In 1831, a literate slave preacher, Nat Turner, led a bloody slave rebellion that resulted in the deaths of 57 white men, women, and children in Southampton, Virginia. Turner's actions convinced many slaveholders that teaching slaves to read and write only provided them with useful tools to be used against their masters. Soon after this incident, numerous slave states began adopting slave codes forbidding the instruction of slaves. Meanwhile, the abolitionist movement began to spread among elite circles in the Northeast as a direct result of the Second Great Awakening. Abolitionists, despite their relatively small numbers, effectively used newspapers and pamphlets to express their anti-slavery views. Sensitive to criticism, Georgia slaveholders interpreted the abolitionists' message as an effort to encourage slave insurrections throughout the South. State leaders made a concerted effort to prevent abolitionist literature from reaching the hands of slaves. They even went as far as to openly violate United States postal regulations by censoring, seizing, and destroying abolitionist publications.[4]

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[3] George Brown Tindall and David E. Shi, *America: A Narrative History* (New York: 2004), 596-97. The findings of the WPA Slave Narratives reflect the significance that slaves in Georgia placed upon religion as well as the opportunities religious instruction provided toward furthering a slave's education.
[4] Jeffrey Robert Young, "Slavery in Antebellum Georgia." *New Georgia Encyclopedia.* www.georgiaencyclopedia.org. (accessed on May 10, 2008).

White Georgians greatly overestimated the social and political influence that the abolitionists had upon the Northern population. By the late antebellum period, the state's leaders passed a number of new slave codes as a reactionary measure to combat abolitionist influence and to prevent additional slave rebellions. Georgia passed the state's first slave code in 1848 that explicitly forbid teaching slaves to read and write. "If any slave, Negro, or free person of color, or any white person," according to the statute, "shall teach any other slaves, Negro, or free person of color, to read or write either written or printed characters, the said free person of color or slave shall be punished by fine or whipping, at the discretion of the court."[5] The law also applied to free blacks living in the state. Georgia had become increasingly concerned that the education of slaves posed a serious threat to slavery, but enforcing this new code proved to be difficult. Slaves such as Susie King Taylor attended clandestine schools taught by black women. Some masters ignored the law despite protests from their neighbors. George S. Barnsley, for example, returned from a boarding school in Connecticut determined to teach some of his slaves to read and write. Edwin Purdy, an elderly Methodist preacher who taught enslaved students in his backyard, was not as fortunate. When Augusta officials discovered his clandestine school, they arrested him, fined him $50, placed him in a stockade, and gave him 60 lashes.[6]

Prior to the Civil War, an overwhelming number of slaves in Georgia were illiterate as a result of their enslavement by masters who either explicitly prohibited their education or implicitly viewed educating slaves as pointless. While estimates vary, perhaps as many as 90 percent of slaves in the state were illiterate.

Civil War And Reconstruction Era, 1861-1877

Events that occurred during the Civil War and Reconstruction Era permanently altered the course of African-American history in Georgia. The defeat of the Confederacy ended slavery in Georgia and the subsequent Reconstruction of the Union created unprecedented educational opportunities for freedpeople. African-American education during this period received a significant boost from funding and support distributed by Northern missionaries and charitable organizations. State funding, however, lagged due to poor postwar economic

[5] William A. Hotchkiss, compiler, *Codification of the Statue Law of Georgia*, 2d. (Augusta: 1848), Section II, Act 11 "Punishment for teaching slaves or free persons of color to read."
[6] Charles E. Grenville, "Article I. Crimes, Offenses, and Penalties Section II: Minor Offenses 11. Codification of the Statute Law of Georgia," (Augusta, 1848); David Freeman, "African-American Schooling in the South prior to 1861," *Journal of Negro History* 84:1 (Winter, 1999), 11; Ronald E. Butchart, "Susie King Taylor," *New Georgia Encyclopedia*, http://www.georgiaencyclopedia.org/nge/Article.jsp?id=h-1097, (accessed May 10, 2008).

conditions and racist public policies. Advancements made during this period laid the foundation for subsequent developments in black education in Georgia.

The Civil War offered Georgia's slave population its best chance of obtaining freedom since the end of the American Revolution. The war mobilized a majority of the state's white male population leaving behind elderly men, women, and children to supervise their anxious slaves. From the beginning of the war, slaves saw Union soldiers as potential liberators. Union soldiers first appeared along the Georgia coast and outside of Savannah during 1861. As fleeing Confederates abandoned large stretches of the state's coastline and barrier islands, tens of thousands of slaves fell into Union hands. Thousands more flocked to the Union lines seeking freedom. In 1864, Union General William T. Sherman's Atlanta Campaign, followed by the March to the Sea, was accompanied by a massive slave rebellion as hundreds of thousands of slaves fled from their masters in search of shelter and freedom within Union lines. As historian William Freehling has documented, the appearance of large numbers of runaway slaves within Union lines forced the federal government to immediately address their future status.[7]

While the relationship among freedpeople and Union soldiers varied, a significant number of soldiers, with the aid of numerous benevolent organizations that accompanied the army, gave freedpeople their first opportunities to receive an education. Temporary schools for freedpeople were common inside Union lines where soldiers and missionaries worked as instructors. Their efforts laid the foundation for black education in the South for decades to follow. During the war, a large number of freedpeople learned to read and write and acquired the skills necessary to pass that knowledge along to others.

Black education was one of the central issues debated during Reconstruction. The first documented African-American school in the state of Georgia held classes in the basement of Savannah's First African Baptist Church. In Georgia, the absence of a statewide antebellum-era public school system hampered the expansion of educational opportunities for both white and black students during Reconstruction. The state lacked the buildings and qualified teachers needed to develop a public education system. The combined efforts of the Union army, federal agencies such as the Freedmen's Bureau, and Northern benevolent associations helped institute the state's first black schools, but limited funding, resistance from local whites, and a declining interest in the condition of freedpeople among the Northern

[7]William W. Freehling, *The South vs. the South: How Anti-Confederate Southerners Shaped the Course of the Civil War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001).

population severely undermined those advances. Local whites resented the intrusion of Union soldiers, federal agents, and Northern missionaries into their communities. After the war, the state's white population made a concerted attempt to restore their authority over freedpeople economically, socially, and culturally. Schools became a symbol of black autonomy and were thus targets of extreme acts of violence committed by whites.

Freedpeople emerged from the war demanding land, education, and control over their labor. In 1865, Congress created the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands (Freedmen's Bureau) to assist freedpeople. The bureau's greatest contribution during Reconstruction was its supervision of black schools. The bureau did not directly establish schools, but coordinated the benevolent activities of Northern societies committed to black education. Locating buildings to be used as schoolhouses was a difficult task because of the bureau's limited resources. Throughout Reconstruction, the lack of well constructed school buildings hampered black education in Georgia. Most black students met in private homes, churches, and barns. Many buildings lacked heating and most held classes for only a few months each year. School buildings were frequent targets of Ku Klux Klan violence, which often resulted in their destruction. Many counties—especially in northeast Georgia—lacked African-American schools for decades after the war.[8]

During Reconstruction, African Americans in Georgia made significant advancements in the area of higher education. In 1865, Atlanta University opened its doors. By the end of Reconstruction, the university had begun granting bachelor's degrees and training black teachers and librarians who found employment in public schools across the South. In 1867, the Augusta Institute opened in the Springfield Baptist Church in Augusta. The institute, which relocated to Atlanta in 1879, was renamed Morehouse College in 1913 in honor of Henry Morehouse, the corresponding secretary of the American Baptist Home Missionary Society. Meanwhile, in 1869, the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church (MEC) that later became the United Methodist Church, founded Clark College. The college was named in honor of Bishop Davis W. Clark, the first president of the Freedmen's Aid Society and a MEC bishop. The college held its first classes at a Methodist Episcopal Church in Atlanta's Summerhill neighborhood. Two years later, in 1871, the college relocated to property located along Whitehall and McDaniel streets, and in 1877 it was chartered as Clark University. Atlanta University and Clark University laid the foundation for the subsequent expansion of higher education of African Americans in Georgia and trained hundreds of

[8] Paul A. Cimbala, *Under the Guardianship of the Nation: The Freedmen's Bureau and the Reconstruction of Georgia, 1865-1870* (Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1997).

educators and librarians who gradually improved the quality of instruction available to rural black students across the South.

Locating qualified teachers however remained a problem during the Reconstruction era. The bureau did not provide black schools with teachers, but instead relied upon Northern benevolent organizations such as the American Missionary Association (AMA) to send instructors who would receive some financial compensation from the bureau, the AMA, and African-American residents. The AMA provided teachers for schools such as the Dorchester Academy in Liberty County, Risley School in Glynn County, and Evergreen Church and School in Grady County. The education of freedpeople provided Northern women with their first opportunities to work as teachers in the United States. During Reconstruction, the teaching profession in America became a feminine profession. American Missionary Association teachers endured hardships associated with isolation from friends and families and sometimes grew frustrated with their substandard working conditions. Many AMA teachers harbored paternalistic feelings toward their black students. Northern missionaries were ill-equipped to understand African-American culture and often struggled in their efforts to assimilate freedpeople into white society. When teachers expressed those paternalistic attitudes inside the classroom, they alienated many black students.

A majority of black schools formed during Reconstruction were the product of the efforts of the Georgia Educational Association (GEA). The GEA was created in 1865 by freedpeople to supervise schools, establish school policies, and to raise funds for education. More than two-thirds of the state's African-American schools were organized and sustained by the GEA. By 1868, the GEA had formed 152 African-American schools in Georgia. Georgia created a racially segregated public school system in 1870, but a severe postwar economic depression impaired its development.[9]

Black education during Reconstruction depended upon the limited financial support provided by Northern philanthropists. In 1867, George Peabody, a wealthy Baltimore merchant, established the Peabody Education Fund. The fund provided financial support for the improvement of existing schools and only on rare occasions provided money for the construction of new schools. Since only a small number of African-American schools had been created prior to the fund's creation, only a handful of black schools received support

[9] Ray & Associates, "Public Elementary and Secondary Schools in Georgia, 1868-1971," *National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form*, Report available on-line: http://hpd.dnr.state.ga.us/content/displaycontent.asp?txtDocument=277, 5.

from this program. Although African-American students received a significantly smaller portion of this fund compared to white schoolchildren, the fund marked the rise of American philanthropic foundations dedicated to uplifting Southern education.[10]

New South Era, 1877-1912

During the New South period, seven major educational foundations developed that contributed to the advancement of African-American education in the South. Of these seven foundations, none dedicated the bulk of its assets to the construction of new school buildings for black students. The funds dedicated most of their capital toward improving the quality of teacher education (i.e. Daniel Hand Fund, General Education Board, and Peabody Education Fund). These funds did drastically improve the quality of instruction and increase the awareness of the poor condition of black public schools in the South. In Georgia, improvement occurred at different rates depending upon where African-American students lived and their access to schools. Many Georgia counties did not have public schools for either white or black students. Some counties had schools for whites but not for blacks. African-American education in Georgia during the New South period experienced measurable improvements, but that progress was accomplished largely in spite of, rather than as a result of, the state's public education policies. African-American schools remained dependent upon the charitable contributions of Northern philanthropists and churches to help fund substantial improvements. The city of Atlanta did pass a bond referendum in 1920 that significantly increased the amount of funding the city devoted to black schools. This achievement however failed to expand beyond the capital city. The state-funded public school system would not seriously address the inequality of African-American education until the U.S. Supreme Court decision, *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education,* forced the issue in 1954.

African-American public education during the New South period in Georgia was defined by the state's segregationist policies prohibiting the creation of publicly funded interracial classrooms and schools. In 1896, the United States Supreme Court ruling in *Plessy v. Ferguson* upheld the practice of racially segregating public accommodations and institutionalized the doctrine "separate but equal." In Georgia, the ruling expanded the scope of existing Jim Crow legislation that had begun during Reconstruction. While federal law required the Georgia public school system to provide African Americans "separate but equal" schools, in reality black schools received significantly less funding. Overall, public school funding in the state

[10] Ibid, 3.

lagged far behind the national average and African Americans received the most inferior school buildings and textbooks and the least qualified teachers.

While federal court rulings such as *Plessy v. Ferguson* severely limited the educational opportunities of the state's African-American children, congressional legislation provided some relief for improvements in higher education. On November 26, 1890, Congress passed the Second Morrill Land Grant Act. The act provided federal funds acquired from the sale of government lands to be used by state governments to construct new institutions of higher learning. The act stipulated that for every whites-only university created using this federal money, a state must also build a college for African Americans. In Georgia, this act led to the founding of the Georgia State Industrial College for Colored Youth (later renamed Savannah State University), which is the state's oldest black public university. The school's first principal, Richard R. Wright, Sr., was one of Atlanta University's first graduates and a tireless advocate for black education.[11]

Five years after the founding of Savannah State University, another Atlanta University graduate, John W. Davison, helped create the state's second public black college, Fort Valley High and Industrial School (later renamed Fort Valley State University). The school received funding from Northern philanthropists such as Anna T. Jeanes as well as the American Church Institute for Negroes of the Protestant Episcopal Church. In 1947, Savannah State University transferred its Morrill Land Grant Act status to Fort Valley State University because the school's curriculum had expanded beyond the act's intent to provide industrial and agricultural training courses. Today, Fort Valley is the state's only university still funded in part by the 1890 Morrill Land Grant Act.

African-American education in Georgia benefited during this period from the continued funding provided by Northern benevolent institutions and churches. George Peabody's earlier philanthropy inspired others such as John L. Slater. In 1882, Slater, who inherited a fortune from his uncle's textile business in Connecticut, donated $1 million of his inheritance to a fund bearing his name that was the first to be devoted exclusively to African-American education. Slater made a concerted effort to work through state and local school officials to effectively distribute funding.

[11] Charles J. Elmore, "Savannah State University," *New Georgia Encyclopedia,* www.georgiaencyclopedia.org, (accessed May 10, 2008);

In 1881, Northern Baptist missionaries, Sophia B. Packard and Harriet E. Giles, representing the Women's American Baptist Home Mission Society, founded the Atlanta Baptist Female Seminary in the basement of Atlanta's Friendship Baptist Church. The college received financial support from the Women's American Baptist Home Mission Society as well as from John D. Rockefeller, the oil tycoon who had befriended Packard and Giles prior to their arrival in Atlanta. Packard and Giles expressed their appreciation for Rockefeller's support by renaming their school Spelman Seminary in honor of the tycoon's wife, Laura Spelman Rockefeller. The seminary was later renamed Spelman College in 1924. Spelman College was the first college in the United States created for African-American women.

John D. Rockefeller's support of Spelman College influenced his decision to create the General Education Board (GEB) in 1902. The GEB worked with publicly supported universities and state departments of education, awarded grants for academic buildings, research programs, faculty improvement, and endowments for special purposes. In 1907, Anna T. Jeanes, a Quaker philanthropist from Philadelphia, donated more than $1 million to the GEB for rural black schools. Her donation started the Jeanes Fund. The money was used to hire black women teachers as district supervisors, improve material conditions in existing black schools, assist black teachers with curriculum, and develop black community-based schoolwork. By 1924, the fund had been expanded into 26 counties in Georgia. Large sections of the state, such as northeast Georgia, however, did not receive any monies from this fund because of their small African-American populations.[12]

II: The Julius Rosenwald Fund School Building Program In The American South, 1912-1937

Summary

The Julius Rosenwald Fund School Building Program, which operated from 1912 to 1937, was representative of a number of New South-era Northern philanthropic programs that benefited African-American education in the South. The program was distinctive because of its focus upon helping local communities erect new school buildings for black students. The level of interaction between the program's administrators, African Americans, and local school boards was unprecedented among Northern philanthropic organizations. The program provided partial funding for the construction of 259 schools in 103 of Georgia's 159 counties.

[12] Chirhart, *Torches of Light,* 101-02.

Julius Rosenwald, Philanthropist

Julius Rosenwald (1862-1932), a second generation German-Jewish immigrant, used his fortune amassed during his career, which culminated as president of the Sears, Roebuck & Company, to create philanthropic programs that strove to eradicate the inequities faced by the nation's African-American and Jewish populations. He donated more than $65 million to various causes, including creating settlements for Jews in Russia, the building of 25 Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) buildings and three Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) buildings dedicated to African Americans, and the construction of over 5,000 schools for blacks in the South.

Rosenwald's philanthropy was motivated by his personal experiences as the son of a Jewish immigrant living in America. "Whether it's because I belong to a people who have known centuries of persecution," wrote Rosenwald, "or whether it is because I am naturally inclined to sympathize with the oppressed, I have always felt keenly for the colored race." Rosenwald's generosity was inspired by John Graham Brooks' biography *An American Citizen: The Life of William H. Baldwin.* Baldwin, a man of wealth, advocated educational opportunities for Southern blacks. He served as chairperson of the General Educational Board (GEB), established by John D. Rockefeller in 1903. The GEB was an organization created for the purpose of distributing gifts made by Rockefeller. Baldwin also supported the work of educator Booker T. Washington through his service on the Tuskegee Institute Board. Baldwin's philanthropy and the openness of the GEB toward assisting those in need appealed to Rosenwald. Rosenwald wrote to his daughters, Adell and Edith, who were attending school in Germany, "I just finished *An American Citizen*, and it is glorious. A story of a man who really led a life which is to my liking and whom I shall endeavor to imitate or follow as nearly as I can."[13]

The Tuskegee Period, 1912-1920

To celebrate his 50th birthday in 1912, Rosenwald donated $687,000 in notable gifts to various causes. Of that amount, $25,000 went to Booker T. Washington for the Tuskegee Institute, with $2,800 dedicated for the construction of six rural schools for black children in the vicinity of Tuskegee, Alabama. Washington sought to construct school buildings using Rosenwald's gift as a stimulus for projects. The Tuskegee Institute's founder encouraged Rosenwald to

[13] Peter Ascoli, "The Rosenwald School Building Program in the Rural South: 1913-1931," l.c. Arkansas State University, Jonesboro, Arkansas, 13 February 2003.

extend his offerings to other states after appointing a general agent to cooperate with county officials. Washington understood that some Southern communities might resist external funds being used to erect black schools, so he encouraged Rosenwald to build only in counties where conditions were favorable. Washington also advised Rosenwald that building new schools for African-American students would require aid from county officials and eventually would demand support among the white population. Without the support of local whites, Washington argued, the crusade to build new black schools would never get off the ground.[14]

Washington proved to be an excellent advisor. He understood how to build coalitions with local white government officials and he knew precisely how much it would cost to build each new school. He estimated that each school could be constructed for $600. Then he suggested that Rosenwald add an additional $50 per school to pay for the traveling expenses of someone to "get people stirred up and to keep them stirred up until the school houses have been built."[15] The fund required that local governments and residents be held responsible for raising the remainder of the funds to build the schools. Matching contributions had to include cash, land, interior furnishings, building materials, and labor. Rosenwald suggested using Sears, Roebuck & Company's prefabricated home construction materials to reduce costs, but Washington declined this proposal in favor of using local suppliers. In February 1915, Rosenwald traveled to Alabama to inspect his first Rosenwald school. He was accompanied by 41 prospective donors who toured the school and attended an annual Tuskegee Institute board meeting.[16]

The first schools built using Rosenwald Funds were one-teacher schoolhouses designed by the Tuskegee Institute. The main concern was cost, which averaged $800. African Americans living in Lee County, Alabama, raised the money necessary to build their one-teacher schoolhouse, at a cost of $942, by soliciting donations from community members for amounts as little as one penny. Of the $942 it cost to erect the school, $150 was spent on the required two acres of land and $132 was spent on labor. Donations of $360 came from white members of the community and Rosenwald contributed $300.[17]

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[14] Horace Mann Bond, *Negro Education in Alabama: A Study in Cotton and Steel* (Tuscaloosa: 1994), 275.
[15] Peter M. Ascoli, *Julius Rosenwald: The Man Who Built Sears, Roebuck, and Company and Advanced the Cause of Black Education in the American South* (Bloomington: 2006), 137.
[16] Ibid., 138, 143. Washington's choice to use local suppliers for the school's construction materials was an attempt to foster greater support among local white businessmen.
[17] Rusell O. Mays, "Julius Rosewald Building Partnerships for American Education." *The Professional Educator* 1:2 (June, 2007).

Collaboration between Rosenwald and Clinton J. Calloway, the Rosenwald program's chief administrator, led to the publication of *The Negro Rural School and its Relation to the Community* in 1915. This publication standardized building plans for rural schools, industrial buildings, and teachers' homes. William A. Hazel, head of Tuskegee Institute's architectural and mechanical drawing division, George Washington Carver, Tuskegee's noted agricultural scientist, and Robert R. Taylor, a professor of architecture at Tuskegee, wrote the book which paralleled contemporary rural school planning used by white Progressive-school architects. These schools mandated function, efficiency, natural lighting, fresh-air ventilation, and hygienic classrooms arranged in simple, symmetrical floor plans with unadorned facades. The battery of windows had to be tall and double-hung so that natural light could fall above and over the left shoulder, and clean outside air would adequately ventilate the classrooms. Cloakrooms that housed dirty or wet outerwear maintained proper sanitation. The site was to be large enough to accommodate the building as well as industrial workshops, outhouses, playgrounds, and workshop-gardens.[18]

Architectural characteristics of Rosenwald schools include short foundation piers for ventilation and moisture control; banks of four to seven double-hung windows; hipped and clipped-gable roof lines; and central entrances with gabled or shed porch roofs. *The Negro Rural School and Its Relation to the Community* had three popular designs: the one-teacher school, the central school, and the county training school. Design Number 11, the one-teacher school, was the smallest design and became the most commonly built Rosenwald school during the Tuskegee era.[19]

The Rosenwald School Building Program continued with great success, despite the death of Booker T. Washington in 1915. The school building program had expanded during the final years of Washington's life to include more than 80 school buildings in Alabama, Tennessee, and Georgia. The pace of construction slowed, however, during the years of America's involvement in World War I (1917-1918) due to the shortage of building supplies. As the war progressed, emphasis was placed on consolidation of scattered, inefficient one-room schools with one larger school building that served several communities in a single county. Rosenwald and a group of African-American agents decided that the Tuskegee Institute would continue to administer the school building program under the guidance of several new directives in 1917. The Rosenwald School Building Program quickly expanded after World War I. Program

[18] Mary Hoffschwelle, *The Rosenwald Schools of the American South* (Gainesville: University Press of Florida, 2006), 55.
[19] Ascoli, *Julius Rosenwald,* 231.

agents were working in North Carolina, Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Tennessee, Georgia, Oklahoma, Texas, Maryland, Florida, and Missouri by the early 1920s. This expansion increased the need for modern building plans. At the recommendation of Wallace Buttrick and Abraham Flexner of the GEB, Rosenwald consulted with Fletcher B. Dresslar to audit the schools. Dresslar was a professor of hygiene, rural sanitation, and schoolhouse planning at George Peabody College in Nashville, Tennessee. By January 31, 1920, Dresslar reported that financial records were in disarray because of the rapid pace of school construction. Some of the new schools were so poorly constructed that immediate improvements had to be made before the start of classes. Architectural plans, which the fund had attempted to standardize, were either unavailable or being ignored by builders, calling into question the Tuskegee Institute's ability to supervise the program.

Dresslar's report led Rosenwald to transfer the school building program and fund administration from Tuskegee Institute to the Julius Rosenwald Fund. He also created a Rosenwald Fund Southern Office located in Nashville that would be independent of any institution. His decision angered Margaret James Murray Washington, Booker T. Washington's widow. She wrote "what was important about [Julius Rosenwald's] gift was that it showed enough confidence in blacks to give the school building program over to them in the first place." Historian Peter M. Ascoli examined the motivations behind Rosenwald's decision and concluded that: "The people at Tuskegee failed to perform satisfactorily, regardless of their color. There was no qualified black candidate not connected with Tuskegee who was available and could take over the project. Hence [Rosenwald] felt he had no choice but to turn the school building program over to a white man with the requisite amount of experience."[20] Rosenwald's decision to relocate the school building fund to Nashville ended the Tuskegee era.

Samuel L. Smith, Director Of The Rosenwald Fund, 1920-1928

Julius Rosenwald's decision to remove control of the school building program from the Tuskegee Institute alienated some of his African-American supporters. Leo Favrot, Alabama's state agent, for example, rejected an offer from Rosenwald to head the program in Nashville because the former favored keeping the fund at Tuskegee. In 1920, an undeterred Rosenwald overcame those obstacles and appointed Samuel L. Smith, state agent of Tennessee, as the Rosenwald Fund Southern Office director. Smith's qualifications included completing a graduate course in schoolhouse planning under the instruction of Fletcher B.

[20] Ibid.

Dresslar. Under Smith's management, architectural plans were carefully drafted, building sites were inspected, and assessments were conducted before Rosenwald funds were dispersed. The program grew enormously with very few complaints.

In 1921, Smith helped develop a fresh set of architectural plans that became the future archetypal Rosenwald schools as the program shifted from promoting better schools to creating model school buildings. In the fall of 1921, the fund published *Community School Plans* with a series of floor plans that accommodated specialized training in rural schools. The Julius Rosenwald Fund provided the plans, designed by Fletcher B. Dresslar and Samuel L. Smith, to communities through the state departments of education.[21]

In the *Community School Plans*, the cross-lit windows of the Tuskegee Plan were reoriented to only one side of the classroom to maintain a fresh supply of air while reducing the total number of windows to avoid glare on the eyes, blackboard, and interior walls caused by excessive natural lighting. Batteries of double-hung windows were narrower and taller and stretched from the interior wainscot cap to the eaves. The orientation of the building would face east-west or north-south to address natural light conditions. The exterior could be either brick or wood. The facades remained unadorned, and adding to the rear or to the side could expand existing plans. By 1929, the fund had building plans in various sizes with specific functions as needed by a community. These included 33 types of schoolhouses, six types of teacher houses, six types of shops, and special additions to buildings. Overall, 5,358 schools were built as a result of Rosenwald's programs, the majority of them under the leadership of Samuel L. Smith.

Edwin Embree, President Of The Rosenwald Foundation, 1928-1932

Edwin Embree, president of the Rosenwald Foundation, described the reasons behind Smith's success: "[He] was just the man for the job. He knew the South and he knew its people. . . . Negroes came to look on him as a personal symbol for Julius Rosenwald, and to love and trust the Northern philanthropist they had not seen because of the kindly Southerner they knew."[22] Embree became president of the Julius Rosenwald Foundation on January 1, 1928, at a time when Rosenwald was ready to refine the program and move the foundation in a new direction. Embree was the former director of the Division of Studies (health and nursing

[21] Samuel L. Smith, "The Julius Rosenwald Fund School Building Program," *The American School Board Journal* (July, 1941), 21.
[22] Ascoli, *Julius Rosenwald*, 237-38.

education) for the Rockefeller Foundation and had experience in launching new philanthropic foundation projects. Embree's goal was to reorganize the foundation by separating Rosenwald's individual philanthropy with that of the corporate foundation. Within a year, the fund's program was enlarged to include aid to high schools and colleges, fellowships for promising African Americans, assistance to black hospitals and health agencies, the development of county library services in Southern states, and distribution of medical services to persons of moderate means. Embree also solicited the aid of prominent American architects to help refine the program's school buildings. Most of these architect-designed school buildings were never built. For example, in 1928, Frank Lloyd Wright designed a Rosenwald school in La Jolla, California. His design was never built because the fund continued to favor Colonial Style architecture over more contemporary designs.

In the fall of 1930, the fund's trustees authorized an investigation into the quality of education within Rosenwald schools. Embree was eager to end the program and recommended devoting more program funds toward improving conditions within existing schools rather than building additional schools. Rosenwald agreed. The fund sought to develop a model of a good rural school, to develop a profile of what constituted a good teacher in that school, and then to redesign teacher-training curricula to meet that profile. Horace Mann Bond, an African-American Rosenwald Fellowship recipient, and Clark Foreman conducted the research in three Southern states. They were required to live in rural communities and to observe all aspects of residents' experience and their relationships to school life, and to test black students. The instruction in rural schools was at best mediocre and their findings showed that teachers were ill prepared by existing training programs to deal with the realities of teaching in a rural environment. Lessons in farming, handicrafts, homemaking, and health had been omitted in the rural schools' curriculum. A teacher's curriculum needed to meet the "special needs of the southern region" which included instruction "based on their own heritage."[23]

Based on these findings, the Rosenwald Fund School Building Program began to wind down its activities in 1930. The fund's trustees agreed that the building program and teacher program had served its purpose and that Southern governments should spend more money on black education. The trustees terminated the building program in 1932 stating that "this particular demonstration had served its purpose of stimulating interest and must be discontinued in order that the Southern states should not rely too heavily on outside aid, and thus be delayed in assuming full responsibility for the schools of this section as an integral part of public provisions for the education of all the people." The final Rosenwald school was built

[23] Ibid., 67.

in 1937 in Warm Springs to carry out an agreement made earlier between Rosenwald and President Franklin D. Roosevelt. The fund continued to support other Rosenwald programs until the foundation went out of existence voluntarily in 1948.

Julius Rosenwald died in his Chicago home on January 6, 1932. African-American scholar W.E.B. DuBois penned a stirring tribute to Rosenwald. "The death of Julius Rosenwald," DuBois wrote, "brings an end to a career remarkable especially for its significance to American Negroes. As a Jew, Julius Rosenwald did not have to be initiated into the methods of race prejudice, and his philanthropic work was a crushing arraignment of the American white Christians. . . . He was a great man. But he was no mere philanthropist. He was, rather, the subtle stinging critic of our racial democracy."[24]

III: The Julius Rosenwald Fund School Building Program in Georgia, 1915-1937

Between 1915 and 1937, the Julius Rosenwald Fund School Building Program supported the construction of 259 school buildings in 103 of Georgia's 159 counties. A majority of the buildings statewide were constructed in small rural towns such as Fort Gaines (Clay County), Quitman (Brooks County), Moreland (Coweta County), and Millville (Laurens County). Most of the new school construction occurred during the late 1920s and early 1930s. Only a handful of the Rosenwald school buildings in Georgia were constructed during the fund's Tuskegee era (1912-1920). Most were erected during Samuel L. Smith's management of the program (1920-1928). Consequently, a majority of the Rosenwald school buildings in Georgia used building plans from the *Community School Plans* published during the 1920s. The fund donated an average of $400 toward a typical construction project.

The Rosenwald Fund attracted criticism from many of Georgia's white residents and politicians. Many felt that Northern philanthropic organizations such as the Rosenwald Fund were meddling in the state's affairs. Newspaper editorials accused the fund's creator of advocating miscegenation and communism. Governor Eugene Talmadge referred to the program using both racial and ethnic epithets. Some local white leaders welcomed the funds and did not see the fund as a threat to racial segregation. While the Rosenwald Fund leaders would have preferred for the South to integrate its public school systems, the fund never openly championed the cause, realizing that such a stance would raise the ire of the white population and prove counterproductive to the advancement of African-American education.

[24] Quoted in Ascoli, *Julius Rosenwald*, 385.

The success of the Rosenwald Fund was especially remarkable given the hostile racial tensions that existed in the South in the first decades of the 20th century.

In 1915, three years after Julius Rosenwald's 50th birthday gift funded the construction of the first Rosenwald schools in Alabama, the fund provided $300 to build the Selma Rural School in Appling County, Georgia. The construction costs exceeded $1,700. African Americans in the community raised more than $950 for the school with the additional support of $450 from local whites.

George D. Goddard, Georgia Rosenwald Agent, 1915-1919

Rev. Dr. George D. Goddard served as Georgia's first Rosenwald agent from 1915 until 1919. Goddard was a Primitive Baptist minister and educator who strove to improve the quality of teachers employed in the state's African-American schools. Goddard supervised the disbursement of funds for seven Rosenwald schools built between 1915 and 1919. The schools included the previously mentioned Selma Rural School (Appling County), Homer School (Banks County), Rays Bridge School (Burke County), Rosenwald School (Coffee County), Spring Creek School (Early County), Pleasant Hill School (Early County), Mt. Olive School (Lowndes County), and Screven School (Wayne County). All of the schools except the Selma Rural School (1915) and the Homer School (1916) were constructed between 1917 and 1918. The Homer School is the only known example of an extant Tuskegee-era Rosenwald school in Georgia. While Goddard viewed the completion of seven schools as a success, his efforts to erect additional buildings were hampered by the scarcity of building materials created by America's involvement in World War I (1917-1918). Goddard retired in 1919, prior to the fund's split with the Tuskegee Institute.

Walter B. Hill, Jr., Georgia Rosenwald Agent, 1920-1930

In 1920, Julius Rosenwald removed control of the fund from Tuskegee Institute and relocated the fund's headquarters to Nashville where it was supervised by new president Samuel L. Smith. Following the retirement of Georgia's Rosenwald agent, George Goddard, in 1919, Samuel L. Smith selected Walter B. Hill, Jr. to fill that position. His appointment reflected changes within the fund as white men, such as Smith and Hill, assumed larger leadership roles in positions once held entirely by black men affiliated with Tuskegee Institute. Hill proved to be a solid choice. His father, Walter B. Hill, Sr. had been a chancellor of the University of Georgia (1899-1905). Hill had worked previously with the United States Office of Education where he co-authored a two-volume study of black education in America. In 1920, Hill

submitted his annual report to the state department of education that noted "the generous aid of the Julius Rosenwald Fund now makes it possible for better rural school houses to be built. Public school authorities are urged to cooperate in this work." Most of Georgia's Rosenwald schools were built during Hill's tenure as state agent using the *Community School Plans* published by the Nashville office.[25]

Noble Hill School: An Excellent Example of a Rosenwald School Built During Walter B. Hill, Jr.'s, Tenure

The history of the Noble Hill School, located in Bartow County, Georgia, is an excellent example of a two-teacher community school constructed using Rosenwald Fund monies under Walter B. Hill's leadership as Julius Rosenwald Fund agent for Georgia and provides an example of the program's impact upon a single local community. The school is located in Cassville, a northwest Georgia community. This wooden building was the first Rosenwald *Community School Plan* building constructed in Bartow County. Noble Hill was built through partnerships, as African Americans, whites, the Bartow County Board of Education, and the Rosenwald Fund contributed financial and human capital to provide an elementary school education to local students. When Noble Hill opened in 1924, African Americans contributed 47 percent of the building costs and 33 percent was provided through the Rosenwald Fund.

Noble Hill is a two-teacher community school building. At Noble Hill, students sat at wooden desks in the two classrooms distinguished by tall banks of windows that provided maximum sunlight. Noble Hill had an industrial training room, two cloakrooms, and separate vestibules leading to the two classrooms. Wood stoves provided heat in the winter. There were no indoor bathrooms. The Noble Hill curriculum offered classes through the seventh grade in reading, mathematics, spelling, English, history, writing, and industrial arts. School enrollment steadily increased to nearly 100, as Noble Hill absorbed students who were attending school in African-American churches and lodges. In 1955, the county consolidated Noble Hill and these other schools to form the Bartow Elementary School, and Noble Hill closed, standing vacant for over 25 years.

Dr. Susie Wheeler was an early graduate of the Noble Hill School. While in school she was so impressed by her teachers that she would later aspire to become an educator. Eventually she returned to Bartow County as a teacher, Jeanes Fund Supervisor, and curriculum director. In 1983, Dr. Wheeler worked with her sister-in-law, Bertha Wheeler, to create the Noble Hill-Wheeler Memorial Center, a non-profit organization. With this act, Dr. Wheeler began a five-

[25] Walter B. Hill, *Georgia Department of Education Annual Report, 1920,* Georgia Archives, Morrow, 12.

year effort to achieve her dream of preserving Noble Hill and reopening it as an African-American heritage museum.

Dr. Wheeler recruited a group of trustees who successfully saved the school by raising over $200,000 in private donations, including a planning grant from the National Trust for Historic Preservation. The trustees included Noble Hill alumni and Georgia Supreme Court Justice Robert Benham, a native of Bartow County. The Georgia State Historic Preservation Office provided technical assistance, and a $3,000 grant was awarded through the Governor's emergency fund and the Georgia Humanities Council. The building was restored and reopened as a museum in 1989. Noble Hill was listed in the National Register of Historic Places on July 2, 1987.

Thomas Jefferson Elder High And Industrial School: An Excellent Example of a Rosenwald School Built During Walter B. Hill, Jr.'s Tenure[26]

Like the Noble Hill School, the Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School, located in Washington County, Georgia, is also significant as an excellent example of a four-teacher community school built using plans found in the Rosenwald Fund's *Community School Plans* book. The school's history also represents the impact that the Rosenwald School Fund Building Program had upon local communities in Georgia. The school is located in Sandersville, Washington County. African-American educators Thomas Jefferson Elder and his wife, Lillian Phinizy, who are buried on the campus, founded the school in 1889.

The T.J. Elder High and Industrial School later received Rosenwald Funds for expansion of their campus in 1927-1928. The building is constructed of brick and has an H-shape. The features of the school include: a front porch, a bank of windows, an auditorium with stage, two classrooms on each side of the building with another pair behind, and wooden floors. In 1917, a domestic science building was built with the help of the Rosenwald Fund, and from 1927 to 1928, the fund also provided monetary assistance for the completion of a brick dormitory building. Six classrooms with restrooms were added to the rear wings in 1938.

Renamed to honor Professor Elder in 1933, this school was the first in rural middle Georgia to offer industrial training as a part of its curriculum. The students were also required to study

[26] The history of the Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School was taken from an article written by Jeanne Cyriaque in the August 2001, edition of *Reflections.* A copy of this publication is available at: http://hpd.dnr.state.ga.us/assets/documents/Reflections/Reflections_August_2001.pdf.

Latin, math, social studies, and a host of other academic courses. Teachers met the highest standards in their professional and personal lives. T.J. Elder hosted one of the state's two training institutes for rural African-American teachers. Professor Elder combined state funds, local funds, student tuition, and foundation grants to build a school of outstanding quality and impeccable standards. The Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School was converted, in 1960, into an elementary school when a new black high school was built. The Thomas Jefferson Elder High and Industrial School was listed in the National Register of Historic Places on May 12, 1981.

J. Curtis Dixon, Georgia Rosenwald Fund Agent, 1930 - 1937

Walter B. Hill, Jr., who left Georgia to accept a position as assistant field agent of the General Education Board in Richmond, Virginia, was succeeded by J. Curtis Dixon in 1930. School construction continued at a brisk pace during Dixon's administration. During his tenure, several large Rosenwald schools were built in Columbus, Thomasville, Alto, and Carrollton. In 1932, Dixon penned an annual report to the Georgia Department of Education that attracted some controversy. The report criticized the state's segregated education system. Dixon correctly noted that the disenfranchisement of black voters had blunted black education. He warned state leaders that unless changes were adopted, the state of black education in Georgia would ultimately impair the economic advancement of the state's white population. Dixon helped supervise the construction of the final Rosenwald schools in Georgia.

The Last Rosenwald School: Eleanor Roosevelt School[27]

The last Rosenwald school in the United States was built in Meriwether County, Georgia, in 1937. During one of Franklin D. Roosevelt's annual trips to Warm Springs in 1929, Roosevelt contacted Samuel L. Smith, director of the office in Nashville. He told Smith that "we voted to spend $15,000 for a white school and a Negro school, but they used all the money on the white school. We still plan to build the Negro school. Will you give us Rosenwald aid?" Smith informed Roosevelt that the fund would contribute $2,500, but the Warms Springs school board and the community would have to raise the bulk of the funds. Shortly after this conversation, the stock market crashed, plummeting the nation into an economic depression.

[27]This text was taken from an April 2004 article written by Jeanne Cyriaque for *Reflections*. A copy of this publication is available at: http://hpd.dnr.state.ga.us/assets/documents/Reflections/Reflections_April_2004.pdf.

Smith did not hear from Roosevelt again for almost five years. In 1933, while spending Thanksgiving in Warm Springs, President Roosevelt convened a meeting of local businessmen to discuss "a matter of great importance." He told them "I'm just embarrassed every time any of my friends comes down here from the North and goes out here and looks at that Negro school building." Following this meeting, Roosevelt telegraphed Smith, inviting him to the White House to discuss the matter "we started in 1929, but the depression stopped it all."

When Smith visited the president, Roosevelt reminded him of his promise, but Smith informed him that the Julius Rosenwald Fund had closed its school building program in 1932. "But you promised me!" Roosevelt remarked. He asked Smith to come to the Little White House in Warm Springs to work out the details. Smith and Curtis Dixon, state agent of the Georgia Department of Education, attended the meeting, and President Roosevelt drove them to the site of the Negro school in his open-top Plymouth. In *Builders of Goodwill*, his book about the state agents for Negro education in the South, Smith described the condition of the old school as "one of the worst I have ever seen."

Following this site visit, Smith and Dixon selected a six-acre site for the new school on an elevated site overlooking the Warm Springs' pools. Roosevelt reminded Smith that the local school board had submitted plans for a brick, seven-teacher white school in 1929, and said "we want one just as nice for the Negroes." He knew of a brick kiln nearby that was closed since the Depression, and he was certain the owner would be glad to make the bricks. Next, Smith, Dixon, and Roosevelt discussed the total construction costs. Smith reiterated the fund would authorize up to one-fourth of the costs, and the Warm Springs School Board, at the request of President Roosevelt, voted to provide $8,000 to qualify for the $2,500 fund grant. Because of the desperate economic conditions in Warm Springs, the school board could not borrow the necessary funds, and the project again appeared stalled.

Smith continued to correspond with Roosevelt about the broader issue of federal aid to rural schools in the South, and in 1935 the president telegraphed him to come to the White House. Smith discussed the conditions of both white and Negro schools and the inability of Southern states to build any public schools without federal aid. Roosevelt subsequently implemented New Deal initiatives that ensured the establishment of the Works Progress Administration (WPA) and the Public Works Administration (PWA).

The Warm Springs school board applied for $12,000 in WPA aid to build and equip the school, and $500 contributed by the Negro community paid for the site. Peabody contributed $500

and the Rosenwald Fund allocated $2,500. When the WPA director indicated they needed an additional $1,000 on deposit to begin work, Roosevelt sent his personal check to build the four-classroom building with an auditorium and library. This was the 5,358th and last Rosenwald school in the country.

The Eleanor Roosevelt School is a five-teacher community school built using plans included in the Rosenwald Fund's *Community School Plans* publication. The Eleanor Roosevelt School was dedicated on March 18, 1937. The keynote speaker was President Roosevelt. Edwin R. Embree, president of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, addressed the crowd, along with M. L. Collins, state superintendent of education. Robert L. Cousins, director of Negro education, accepted the building. S. L. Smith introduced the president as "your friend and good neighbor, Franklin Delano Roosevelt!" Roosevelt remarked that he began to learn economics at Warm Springs in 1924 through discussions with his neighbors about teachers' salaries and the price of cotton.

Until the mid-1960s, the Eleanor Roosevelt School served grades one through eight. As school consolidation plans were implemented, the school held elementary classes until it closed in 1972 with integration. The school housed an adult education center for three years, and a day care center until it was sold in 1977 to the present owner, who cuts and stores carpet there.

Summary

Between 1912 and 1937, the Julius Rosenwald Fund aided the construction of over 5,000 buildings for African-American schoolchildren in 15 Southern states. Less well known than the construction of school buildings were the Rosenwald initiatives to extend the school term in black schools, subsidize transportation, supplement teachers' salaries, and fund libraries. Scholar Horace Mann Bond estimated that in 1932 between 25 and 40 percent of all Southern black schoolchildren attended class in Rosenwald-assisted schools. The program began in Lee County, Alabama, and built its final school in Warm Springs, Georgia. With grants from the Rosenwald Fund, Georgia constructed over 250 schools, 12 teacher homes, and seven shops. Georgia received $1,378,859 from the Rosenwald Fund.

The Rosenwald Fund significantly enhanced the quality of African-American education in Georgia, but the program could not overcome the state's racially prejudiced public education system. Many counties never received funding from external philanthropic sources that benefited black education. The entire state education system was under-funded because

state leaders did not see the importance of public schools. Black schools continued to receive less funding compared to white schools. Many local school boards allocated funds for the construction of new white schools during the 1920s and 1930s, while black schools continued to hold classes in dilapidated buildings.

Racial segregation remained the status quo in the state until the late 1960s when many counties integrated. Following the landmark 1954 *Brown v. Board* decision, most local school boards throughout the state of Georgia—and the American South—developed strategies to resist impending federally mandated integration ordinances. Some local school boards considered plans to close their public schools rather than submit to racial integration. Such plans attracted little support from working and middle-class white families whose only source of education for their children were the local publicly funded comprehensive schools. Equipped with new sources of revenue following the state's school building initiative launched by populist governor Herman Talmadge, local school boards saw the construction of new state-of-the-art school buildings for African-American schoolchildren as a possible way to circumvent impending federal mandates. The most modern school buildings of the period were those designed in the International Style. Such designs included large-scale buildings capable of holding large class sizes in comfort while optimizing common elements such as massive walls of elongated daylight windows that provided students with fresh air and proper lighting. All-white school boards in many Georgia counties believed that if they built new school buildings for African-American students, then perhaps the local African-American community, as well as national Civil Rights advocates, might view this as a progressive step forward that might convince both parties to forestall integration into the unforeseeable future. The construction of "equalization" schools for African Americans accelerated during the 1950s and 1960s as local school boards vainly tried to avert integration.

The pace of integration varied statewide. Counties that built equalization schools sometimes avoided integration until as late as the early 1970s, while others desegregated during the mid-1960s. Integration led to the further consolidation of most county school systems that resulted in the closure of numerous black schools. Only a handful of Rosenwald schools remained in operation after desegregation was implemented statewide. Many of these buildings passed into private ownership or were left vacant or demolished by county officials.

Rosenwald schools played a significant role in the development of African-American education in Georgia as well as throughout the American South. Funds received from Julius Rosenwald enabled hundreds of thousands of black schoolchildren in Georgia to receive a publicly funded education in state-of-the-art classroom facilities under the tutelage of trained educators. This

unprecedented expansion in education among African Americans built a foundation of knowledge that directly advanced the Civil Rights agenda as Rosenwald school alumni demanded civil equality from their local, state, and national leaders.

F. Associated Property Types

This analysis of the resource types associated with Rosenwald schools was written by Bryan Clark Green for the Virginia Department of Historic Resources as part of the Rosenwald Schools in Virginia Multiple Property Document in 2004. Because of its suitability to Georgia's Rosenwald schools, it has been adopted, with some editing, for this document.

The Architecture of Rosenwald Schools

The Rosenwald-funded schools varied in size from small one-teacher schools to large 11-teacher facilities that offered instruction from first grade through high school. In the fund's early years, wood-frame, one-story, one- and two-teacher schools were the most common. In later years, larger schools constructed of brick were built with greater frequency, though always in much smaller numbers than the wood-framed rural schools. Rosenwald schools were built according to standardized plans that were produced by the Rosenwald Fund. The fund required a two-acre campus that often included teachers' homes, shop, privy, and athletic fields in addition to the school.

The fund first published architectural plans produced by a pair of African-American architecture professors at Tuskegee, Robert R. Taylor and William A. Hazel, in a 1915 pamphlet titled "The Negro Rural School and Its Relation to the Community." Taylor and Hazel created plans for a one-teacher school, two variations on a five-teacher school, and included plans for an industrial building, a privy, and two homes for teachers.

In 1920, control of the school-building program shifted to the new Rosenwald Fund office in Nashville. There, director Samuel L. Smith, an associate of Fletcher B. Dresslar, created new designs. The fund soon built on those foundations with the 1921 publication of *Community School Plans.* The Rosenwald Fund reprinted *Community School Plans* several times due to their popularity. Smith and Dresslar produced plans for schools that ranged in size from one to seven teachers, with separate designs for buildings that faced east-west and buildings that faced north-south. Smith also produced plans for privies, industrial buildings, and residences for teachers. The plans were eventually distributed by the Interstate School Building Service, and reached an audience far beyond the South.

The most recognizable architectural features of Rosenwald schools were large banks of windows, an important feature in an era where rural schools seldom had the benefit of electricity. Samuel L. Smith's plans specified room size and height, blackboard and desk placement, paint colors, and window shades, all in order to make the most of available light. Smith insisted that windows be placed so that light came only from the students' left, and included alternative plans depending upon the orientation of the school.

Associated Property Types:

I. Schools

II. Teacherages (Teachers' Homes)

III. Industrial Vocational Buildings

I. Schools

Constructed in Georgia from 1915 to 1937, Rosenwald school buildings fall into two distinct subtypes based on their physical and associative characteristics: Subtype One school buildings constructed from 1915 to 1920 under the supervision of Tuskegee Institute according to plans and specifications drawn up by Robert R. Taylor, Director of Mechanical Industries, and W.A. Hazel, Division of Architecture, Tuskegee Institute, and Subtype Two schools built from 1920 to 1937 under the supervision of the Rosenwald office in Nashville according to designs and specifications prepared by Samuel L. Smith.

Subtype One: Tuskegee Plan

By 1915, Booker T. Washington, Principal of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, and Clinton J. Galloway, Director of Tuskegee's Extension Department, had published *The Negro Rural School and Its Relation to the Community* to serve as a guide for communities which were interested in constructing a Rosenwald school. This booklet provided plans (numbers 11 to 20) for schools, central schools, industrial buildings, county training schools, teacher's homes, and boys and girls dormitories.

Description of Subtype One Schools: Tuskegee Plan

With the publication of *The Negro Rural School and Its Relation to the Community,* Washington

and Galloway helped standardize Rosenwald school plans. Included in the publication were designs for "one-teacher," "two-teacher," "five-teacher," central, and training schools. Washington was certain that the majority of rural schools would be of the "one-teacher" type. These structures feature minimal Craftsman detailing, specifically wide-overhanging eaves and exposed brackets. Typically, these structures featured hipped or gable roofs, bands of double-hung sash windows, and interior chimney flues. They are covered with simple weatherboarding and the structures rest on brick piers. As with the later designs of Samuel L. Smith, Washington and Galloway supplied alternate designs to provide for an east-west orientation and maximum lighting. The interior room arrangement contained classrooms with small cloakrooms and an industrial room. Two-teacher facilities contained classrooms with a movable partition between the rooms so that the classrooms could be used as a meeting room or auditorium.

Subtype Two: Community School Plans

After the establishment of the Rosenwald Fund Southern Office in Nashville in 1920, director Samuel L. Smith and Fletcher B. Dresslar published a series of pamphlets presenting a variety of floor plans and specifications for use by communities interested in constructing a Rosenwald school. The pamphlets also contained information regarding site selection, landscaping, and bird's-eye views of an ideal Rosenwald school campus. Beginning that year, educators and communities built Rosenwald schools according to Smith's designs. These schools are the most easily discernable and readily identifiable. Additionally, in the late 1910s and throughout the 1920s, Tuskegee and the Rosenwald Fund Southern Office began the process of photographing each school and keeping the photograph on file, providing additional documentary sources.

There are characteristics that hold constant for both subtypes in Georgia. Rosenwald schools were built in the Southeast region of the United States within a 25-year period extending from 1912 to 1937. In regard to physical characteristics, all schools are one story with an east-west orientation. Almost all are wood-frame buildings with little or no detailing. Any detailing is either Colonial Revival or Craftsman style. All are located in rural areas or small communities. For associative characteristics, all Rosenwald schools were for rural African Americans and provided elementary and vocational education.

Description of Subtype Two Schools: Community School Plans

In 1920, when Julius Rosenwald established the office in Nashville, Tennessee, he hired Samuel L. Smith as the agency's first director. An experienced administrator with a keen interest in rural

schoolhouse design, Smith and Fletcher B. Dresslar drew up a series of school plans. Demand for the school designs proved so great that in 1921 the Rosenwald Fund issued a booklet entitled *Community School Plans* that included floor plans and exterior renderings of 17 schools ranging in size from "one-teacher" to "seven-teacher" schools. The plans also included two designs for teachers' residences plus a "Sanitary Privy for Community School." Along with the designs, the booklet contained contractor's specifications and advice on site location and size, painting, and landscaping.

Rosenwald schools incorporated the most up-to-date designs in American rural school architecture. The design of the schools relies on proportion and massing of form, accentuated by groupings of windows and minimal detailing. Since electricity was unavailable in most rural areas, maximization of natural light was a principal concern. Smith's designs called for groupings of tall, double-hung sash windows, oriented to catch only east-west light. Smith drew two separate versions of each plan so that no matter what site a community chose, the building could have proper east-west orientation. Interior color schemes, seating plans, and window shade arrangements made the fullest use of sunlight. Floor plans always showed seating arrangements with the windows at the children's left side so that their writing arms would not cast shadow on their desk tops. Light paint colors reflected maximum illumination.

As with the designs supplied by Tuskegee, each Rosenwald school contained an industrial room. Also, the school's interior design encouraged its use as a meeting center for the adult community. In the smaller schools, two classrooms were divided by folding doors that could be opened and the room used as a meeting space or small auditorium.

Exterior architecture of the schools exhibited only the faintest hint of Colonial or Craftsman trim. Smaller buildings usually reflected the Craftsman style in the bracketing found under the wide overhanging eaves. Larger schools featured columns or dormers, details commonly found on buildings in the Colonial Revival style. Almost all of the schools built under the supervision of the Rosenwald Fund Southern Office were one-story tall. Although some of the large schools had brick exteriors, most were clad in weatherboard with brick chimneys. Smith recommended a two-acre site to "give ample space for the schoolhouse, two sanitary privies, a teacher's home, playgrounds for the boys and girls, a plot for agricultural demonstrations, and proper landscaping." The interior room arrangement depended on the type of school built, but all contained classrooms, cloak rooms, and an industrial room. Larger schools often contained an auditorium while smaller schools had folding doors or movable partitions between classrooms.

Significance of Schools

Rosenwald schools are eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A (Education, Ethnic Heritage — Black), and Criterion C (Architecture).

Criterion A: Education

The Rosenwald Fund constituted an important avenue for the advancement of African-American education during the first half of the 20th century. From 1912 to 1937, the Julius Rosenwald Fund contributed to the construction of 5,358 elementary schools, teachers' homes, and industrial buildings in 15 Southern states. The remaining school buildings represent one of the most ambitious school building programs ever undertaken and they reflect African-Americans' struggle for educational advancements in the segregated South.

In the early 1900s, Booker T. Washington and his staff at Tuskegee Institute conceived an ambitious program of private-public partnership to improve African-American rural schooling. Initially, Washington aimed the school building program for communities around Tuskegee, Alabama, but eventually he expanded his ideas to include communities throughout the South. With the assistance of Julius Rosenwald, president of Sears, Roebuck & Company, Washington launched an ambitious school building program for African Americans.

At the time when Julius Rosenwald agreed to supply matching grants to rural communities interested in building African-American elementary schools, African-American public schools were suffering from two overriding factors: poverty and localism. By the early 1900s, the typical African-American school was nothing more than a deteriorating log cabin, shanty, or dilapidated church filled with children for only three or four months out of the year. Often, the teacher was barely more knowledgeable than the pupils. Washington realized that rural African-American communities needed qualified teachers and quality school facilities. In 1905, with money from Anna T. Jeanes, Washington established the Jeanes Fund, which provided for the employment of qualified teachers to work in the rural schools. To improve educational facilities, Washington turned to Chicago philanthropist Julius Rosenwald. With a guarantee from Rosenwald to supply one-third of the necessary funds, Washington implemented a program by which communities would raise one-third of the funds and the state would contribute the remaining funds. Although Rosenwald and Washington hoped that members of the white community would also contribute funds to the erection of the school buildings, white residents rarely contributed substantial sums for the school.

An integral component of Washington and Rosenwald's educational philosophy was industrial education, and therefore every school plan included an industrial room. The Rosenwald Fund never challenged segregation but rather provided eighth-grade educations supplemented by the "industrial" classes in farming and home economics.

The Rosenwald Fund represents a landmark in the history of African-American education. As a result of the fund's initiatives, more African-American children went to school longer and with better-trained teachers in better-constructed and equipped schools. Rosenwald money helped stimulate increases in public tax money for African-American education. Rosenwald schools served as community centers, where not only students but their parents learned better methods of agriculture, sanitation, hygiene, and nutrition.

Criterion A: Ethnic Heritage - Black

From 1912 to 1937, the Rosenwald Fund developed plans for African-American schools in two phases: Tuskegee Plan schools that were administered by the Tuskegee Institute from 1912 to 1920 and Nashville Plan schools, which were administered from the fund's office in Nashville, Tennessee, from 1920 to 1937. The Rosenwald Fund provided funds for 5,358 schools in 833 counties in 15 Southern states. Rosenwald schools provided several generations of African Americans with improved educational opportunities.

In addition to the educational benefits of the fund, Rosenwald schools became active community centers for rural African Americans. As Samuel L. Smith, noted, "the best modern school is one which is designed to serve the entire community for twelve months in the year." In these community centers, Jeanes Fund supervisors taught better agricultural methods, established homemakers' clubs and held home products exhibits. Jeanes teachers and supervisors started home garden clubs and boy's agricultural clubs, worked for school and community improvement, and taught basic skills such as hat making, sewing, and cooking. The Rosenwald schools became the site of musicals, theatricals, pageants, and exhibits of industrial work. The school often set the standard for the neighborhood in regard to architecture, sanitation, and maintenance.

Criterion C: Architecture

The Rosenwald Fund developed plans for African-American schools in two phases: Tuskegee Plan schools that were administered by the Tuskegee Institute from 1912 to 1920 and Nashville Plan schools, which were administered from the fund's office in Nashville,

Tennessee, from 1920 to 1937. This ambitious building program reflected innovations in educational architectural design and set the standard for school construction for years to come. One of the greatest contributions of the Julius Rosenwald Fund was the development of floor plans and specifications for a variety of schools. These plans and specifications ensured every community a quality school. The designs commissioned by the Rosenwald Fund revolutionized rural school architecture. These designs included alternate plans ensuring an east-west orientation for improved natural lighting, the inclusion of industrial and cloak rooms, and specifications for window shades, sanitary privies, heating stoves, and interior paint schemes. The folding doors between classrooms allowed the school to be used as a community center and meeting place.

The Rosenwald program was administered by Booker T. Washington at the Tuskegee Institute, where plans were developed for schools, industrial buildings, teachers' homes, and privies. Samuel L. Smith drew up plans that incorporated innovations and techniques for educational facilities. Smith and Dresslar published designs one at a time in four-page pamphlets that proved to be so popular that he published his plans in a booklet, *Community School Plans.* The booklet proved equally popular and Smith re-issued the booklet several times. Whites as well as African Americans used the booklet for schoolhouse construction. Included in the booklet were designs for "teacherages" or teachers' homes and a sanitary privy. The booklet contained specifications and recommendations on siting, painting, and landscaping.

Smith was particularly concerned with the maximization of natural light, providing alternative plans for each design to ensure an east-west orientation. His plans called for tall, double-hung sash windows, specific paint colors, seating arrangements, window treatments, and blackboard placement. An integral part of the school design was the incorporation of an "industrial room," following the educational philosophy of Booker T. Washington. Smith also included an auditorium or connecting rooms with movable partitions to serve as an all-purpose community room.

By 1928, 20 percent of rural schools for African-American students in the South were Rosenwald schools. Rosenwald schools housed one-third of the region's rural African-American schoolchildren and teachers. By the 1930s, thousands of old shanty schoolhouses had been replaced with new, larger structures constructed from modern standardized plans. These buildings set the standard not only in regard to schoolhouse architecture and design but they influenced the construction, architecture, and maintenance of other structures in rural areas and nearby communities.

Registration Requirements for Schools

Rosenwald schools were mostly plain, wood-frame buildings constructed in the rural South as improved facilities for African-American education. While the majority of the school buildings were frame, rare examples of brick schools have been identified and others may exist. To be eligible for the National Register, a Rosenwald school in Georgia must have been built between 1915 and 1937 utilizing funds provided personally by Julius Rosenwald or the Julius Rosenwald Fund and must conform to examples or standard design guidelines put forward by the Rosenwald Fund.

Schools will also retain elements of their original design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials to be considered eligible. Stylistic details are minimal, although some schools display Craftsmen or Colonial Revival influences. Schools should retain their original location in a rural setting to evoke their period of development. The qualities of association and feeling are bolstered by their rural setting. Schools that have been moved from their original location may also be considered eligible if their new location is in close proximity to the original location and the new setting is consistent with the original setting. Rosenwald schools nominated solely under Criterion A for Education and Ethnic Heritage may not possess as high a degree of historic integrity as those school buildings which are also nominated under Criterion C for architecture.

II. "Teacherages" or Teachers' Homes

Booker T. Washington and Clinton J. Galloway initially focused on building schools, but later embraced the idea of building teacherages, or teachers' homes. These small cottages were built for one or more teachers and were to be located adjacent to the schools. Washington believed these served not only as residences, but as models for mothers in the community.

Description of Teacherages or Teacher's Homes

Teachers' homes were similar to the schools in concept, style, and design. They were an important part of Washington's overall concept of education. Washington stated that the teacher's home should not be expensive but rather should be comfortable. He advocated that the kitchen, back porch, dining and living rooms, and front porch be open so that they could be used for large community gatherings. Washington and Galloway presented two plans for teachers' homes in *The Negro Rural School.* Design No.15 for a "Teacher's Home, Five Rooms" in *The Negro Rural School* contains living and dining rooms, two bedrooms, a kitchen, bathroom, and

pantry as well as front and rear porches. The house rests on brick piers and is covered with weatherboards. A central flue serviced the four-corner fireplaces of the principal rooms. Design No. 16 featured a smaller, three-room floor plan (bedroom, living room, and kitchen) with a proposed addition to include a dining room. The front elevation for Design No.16 proposed a dwelling with hipped roof, two interior chimneys, brick piers, and a four-bay facade with central entrance.

Samuel L. Smith and Fletcher B. Dresslar offered four plans for teacher' homes in his *Community School Plans*: two reformulations of school plan No. 200; a Craftsman-style bungalow, No. 302; and a large Colonial Revival-style cottage, No. 301. Smith's designs were more compact than those supplied by the Tuskegee Institute. They resembled more of a family home than a house which could be used for community gatherings and socials. Plan No. 200 contained a large living/dining room, two bedrooms, kitchen, bath, and small pantry. The house was designed to rest on brick piers, have a side-gable roof and be clad in simple weatherboarding. Plan No. 302 resembled a typical Craftsman-style bungalow with a small gable roof and front porch supported by tapered posts. The interior contained two bedrooms, a bathroom, kitchen, and combination living room/dining room. Plan No. 301, the Colonial Revival cottage, was clad in weatherboard and featured a side-gable roof, front porch, and a brick-pier foundation. The interior plan contained three bedrooms, a bath, living/dining room, kitchen, pantry, and rear porch.

Significance of Teachers' Homes

Teachers' homes are eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A (Education, Ethnic Heritage—Black), and Criterion C (Architecture).

Criterion A: Education and Ethnic Heritage - Black

The teachers' homes that are associated with Rosenwald schools symbolize the commitment of the African-American teachers to the communities they served. They illustrate the unique relationship between the teacher and the local African Americans as everyone struggled to give African-American children an adequate education in a segregated South. Teachers' homes built by the Rosenwald Fund were an integral component in Booker T. Washington's overall educational concept. The construction of teacherages on the school grounds greatly improved the educational opportunities offered by the school and enabled teachers to provide leadership to the local African-American community.

In plans provided to various communities, Booker T. Washington and Samuel L. Smith recommended that schools be constructed on a two-acre site, to give ample space for the schoolhouse, sanitary privies, a teacher's home, playgrounds for the boys and girls, a plot for agricultural demonstrations, and proper landscaping. For the most part, teachers were Hampton Institute (Hampton, Virginia), and Tuskegee graduates, who had been trained in home building and homemaking. Hence, the teachers' homes became an attractive addition to the community. Also, they served as a social center where mothers' clubs and small socials were held.

As the teachers' homes became an attractive addition to the community, the teacher usually became a civic leader in the area. Hampton and Tuskegee graduates usually occupied the homes, as did the Jeanes Supervisors, who were community leaders and instrumental in raising funds for longer school terms and additional Rosenwald schools.

Criterion C: Architecture

The teachers' homes built by the Julius Rosenwald Fund reflect the architectural styles, forms, and trends popular in the Progressive era in America during the early part of the 20th century. The homes are basically bungalows and Colonial Revival-style houses with minimal styling and detailing. They were, however, built according to designs furnished by Booker T. Washington in *The Negro Rural School* and Samuel L. Smith in *Community School Plans* and complement the designs of the school buildings. In all, the Rosenwald Fund contributed to the construction of 217 homes throughout the 15 Southern states. As part of the Rosenwald school building program, the teachers' homes were an integral part of the most ambitious building program undertaken to advance the cause of African-American education in the South.

Registration Requirements for Teachers' Homes

Teachers' homes were essentially modest, wood-frame buildings constructed in rural areas near Rosenwald schools. To be eligible, teachers' homes in Georgia must have been built between 1915 and 1937 with funds from Julius Rosenwald or the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The extant teachers' homes will also meet registration requirements because of their design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials. Stylistic details are minimal, although some teachers' homes display Craftsman-style or Colonial Revival-style influences. In general, to qualify for registration, the teachers' homes should retain their original location in a rural setting and the design, floor plan, workmanship, and materials that evoke their period of construction and the conditions of the time. The integrity of their association and feeling is bolstered by their rural setting. Teachers' homes nominated solely under Criterion A for Education and Ethnic Heritage do not have to

possess as high a degree of historic integrity as those teachers' homes that are also nominated under Criterion C for architecture.

III. Industrial Vocational Buildings

Booker T. Washington, in *The Negro Rural School,* states: "the idea of the central school is mainly vocational. Three buildings are necessary: the school proper, the industrial building, and the teachers' homes." The Tuskegee Institute, and later the Rosenwald Fund Southern Office in Nashville provided plans for industrial buildings where trade skills such as blacksmithing, carpentry, furniture making, home building, and tool repair were taught.

Description of Industrial Vocational Buildings

Industrial buildings or "shops" were inexpensive buildings that were well suited for carpentry, blacksmithing, and other forms of vocational work. The 40' x 30' building contained two rooms, one designed for carpentry work and the other for blacksmithing. These buildings featured gable-on-hip roofs and wide overhanging eaves. Six double-hung sash windows were located on each (short) side wall of the building, while the front facade (long side) featured two sets of double doors as well as two double-hung sash windows. Washington advocated unfinished dirt floors although he suggested that if a concrete floor was desired, it could be constructed at very little expense. The interior was left unfinished.

Only one plan for industrial shops is found in *The Negro Rural School* but none are found in Samuel L. Smith's *Community School Plans.* Industrial buildings were constructed using the plan found in *The Negro Rural School.* Industrial buildings or shops were usually located on the grounds of county training schools.

Significance of Industrial Vocational Buildings

Industrial buildings or shops are eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A (Education, Ethnic Heritage—Black), and Criterion C (Architecture).

Criterion A: Education and Ethnic Heritage- Black

Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald sought to improve public education for African Americans in Southern states. Their concern was practical as well as humanitarian. They set about creating a better-trained African-American labor force through vocational instruction,

then known as industrial education. Industrial buildings were integral parts of the Rosenwald school program. Julius Rosenwald believed that improved African-American education based on the Hampton and Tuskegee models would provide African Americans with practical training as skilled workers.

Julius Rosenwald was attracted to Washington's idea of self-help through vocational training. Industrial education was a key component of his educational philosophy and the development of rural school plans. The 163 shops that were built in 15 Southern states were an integral component of the Rosenwald school program. In these buildings, boys were taught carpentry, blacksmithing, furniture making, home building, and tool repair. Some shops included facilities for teaching women domestic skills, such as cooking.

Criterion C: Architecture

The industrial buildings that were built as part of Rosenwald school campuses were an integral part of the complex because they provided facilities for vocational training that illustrate the significance that both Washington and Rosenwald placed on industrial education for rural Southern African Americans. The 163 industrial buildings or shops constructed throughout the South were built according to plans and specifications produced by Booker T. Washington and his staff at Tuskegee. They are simple, utilitarian structures with a minimum of stylistic detailing.

Registration Requirements for Industrial Vocational Buildings

Industrial buildings were small, utilitarian buildings constructed in the rural South as vocational training facilities for African-American education. To be eligible, an industrial building must have been built between 1915 and 1937 utilizing funds provided personally by Julius Rosenwald or the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The plans for these structures were taken from *The Negro Rural School.* The extant industrial buildings will also usually meet registration requirements because of their design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials. Basically utilitarian structures, stylistic details are minimal. In general, to quality for registration, the industrial buildings should retain their original location in a rural setting and the design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials that evoke their period of construction and the conditions of the time. The integrity of their association and feeling is bolstered by their rural setting. Industrial buildings nominated solely under Criterion A for Education and Ethnic Heritage do not have to possess as high a degree of historic integrity as those industrial buildings which are also nominated under Criterion C for Architecture

G. Geographical Data

The State of Georgia.

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

This multiple property documentation started with individual, isolated National Register nominations, such as Noble Hill School in Bartow County, which was listed in 1987. A growing recognition of the importance of these resources led to the creation of the Historic Preservation Division's Georgia Rosenwald Schools Initiative in 2001. This initiative seeks to: conduct field surveys to identify extant Rosenwald schools; conduct historical background research; evaluate the National Register eligibility of schools; and publicize the importance of these schools and identify a constituency to preserve them. As part of this initiative, staff of the Historic Preservation Division conducted research at Fisk University in Nashville, the archive of the Rosenwald Fund. In 2008, the Historic Preservation Division began preparing a multiple property nomination for Rosenwald schools in Georgia. This documentation includes original research on the history of the Rosenwald Fund in Georgia and also relies on existing multiple property documentation for Rosenwald schools, especially Alabama and Virginia.

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( ) **Other State agency**
( ) **Federal agency**
( ) **Local government**
( ) **University**
( ) **Other, Specify repository:**

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Appling	Selma School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,702	300
Atkinson	Kirkland School	1921-1922	Addition	400	200
Baldwin	Milledgeville (County Training School)	1926-1927	7	15,000	1,700
Banks	**Homer School**	Tuskegee Period	2	850	300
Bartow	Cartersville School	1921-1922	6	8,200	1,500
Bartow	**Cassville School (Wheeler-Noble Hill)**	1923-1924	2	2,125	700
Bartow	County Training School	1922-1923	6	10,450	1,500
Bartow	Shop at County Training School	1927-1928	Shop	2,050	200
Ben Hill	**County Training School**	1926-1927	5	18,140	1,700

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Ben Hill	Shop at Fitzgerald School	1931-1932	Shop	6,500	850
Berrien	Nashville School	1926-1927	3	5,000	900
Bibb	Mt. Hope School (Walden)	1923-1924	2	2,500	700
Bibb	Swift Creek School	1923-1924	2	2,500	700
Bleckley	**Cochran School**	1929-1930	3	4,925	1,275
Brooks	**Cross Roads School**	1927-1928	2	2,680	500
Brooks	**Grooverville School**	1920-1921	2	2,150	800
Brooks	Morven School	1929-1930	2	3,000	500
Brooks	Quitman School	1928-1929	6	14,750	1,700
Brooks	Simmon Hill School	1926-1927	3	5,575	900
Brooks	Simmon Hill School	1931-1932	4	3,300	1,000

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Bryan	Daniels Siding School	1930-1931	3	4,650	1,050
Bulloch	County Training School	1922-1923	4	2,750	1,100
Bulloch	County Training School #2	1925-1926	7	12,000	1,000
Bulloch	Pope School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,025	300
Bulloch	Riggs School	Tuskegee Period	1	775	300
Bulloch	Statesboro School	Tuskegee Period	5	6,300	400
Bulloch	Teachers' Home at Statesboro School	1931-1932	Teachers' Home	6,000	1,000
Bulloch	Willow Hill School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,507	250
Burke	Keysville School	1920-1921	3	3,000	1,000
Burke	Midville School	1926-1927	2	3,000	700

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Burke	Teachers' Home at Keysville School	1923-1924	Teachers' Home	1,900	900
Burke	Walkers Grove School	1926-1927	2	2,675	700
Camden	**Kinlaw School**	1921-1922	3	2,859	1,000
Camden	Silco School	1931-1932	4	5,250	1,000
Camden	St. Mary's School (County Training School)	1926-1927	4	9,610	1,100
Camden	**Waverly School**	1930-1931	2	2,756	400
Campbell	Fairburn School	1922-1923	4	3,550	1,100
Campbell	Palmetto School	1928-1929	2	2,710	500
Campbell	Rivertown School	1926-1927	1	1,350	400
Candler	Canoe-Hagan School	1931-1932	3	4,075	875

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Carroll	Springer School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,971	500
Charlton	Folkston School	1927-1928	2	2,500	500
Chatham	Pin Point School	1925-1926	2	5,000	700
Chatham	Practice School (Georgia A&M College)	1926-1927	3	5,300	900
Chatham	**Thunderbolt Practice A&M School**	1925-1926	3	5,300	900
Chattahoochee	**Cusseta School**	1929-1930	2	2,973	750
Chattahoochee	**Friendship School**	1929-1930	2	2,804	500
Chattooga	Holland School (County Training School)	1927-1928	4	7,550	1,000
Cherokee	Cherokee School	1926-1927	2	2,715	700
Clarke	County Training School	1920-1921	4	4,200	1,200

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Clay	Ft. Gaines School	1928-1929	5	7,650	1,800
Clayton	Jonesboro School	1931-1932	3	5,325	1,062
Clinch	**Dupont School (Homerville)**	1926-1927	2	2,900	700
Cobb	**Acworth School**	1924-1925	2	3,250	700
Cobb	Jonesville	1920-1921	1	1,115	500
Cobb	Marietta High & Industrial School	1929-1930	5	10,450	1,750
Coffee	County Training School	1922-1923	5	8,500	1,300
Coffee	Douglas School	1921-1922	4	4,950	1,300
Coffee	Kirkland School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,300	300
Coffee	Paulk School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,950	500
Coffee	Rosenwald School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,300	300
Coffee	Rosenwald School	1917-1918	5	8,500	1,300

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Colquitt	Moultrie (County Training School)	1925-1926	8	16,200	1,500
Colquitt	Union Grove School	1920-1921	1	1,000	500
Cook	Adel School, County Training School	Tuskegee Period	6	5,200	1,300
Cook	Adel School, County Training School	1921-1922	Addition	1,200	800
Cook	Sparks School	1923-1924	3	2,875	900
Cook	Teachers Home, Adel	1920-1921		3,750	1,000
Coweta	Grantville School (County Training School)	Tuskegee Period	4	3,450	600
Coweta	McCollum School	1927-1928	2	2,600	500
Coweta	Moreland School	1920-1921	3	3,428	1,000
Coweta	Mt. Zion School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,250	500
Coweta	Senoia School	1927-1928	3	3,600	700
Coweta	**Turin School**	1925-1926	3	3,100	900

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Crisp	County Training School	1928-1929	6	8,400	2,100
Decatur	Bainbridge School	1923-1924	6	20,000	1,500
Decatur	Climax School	1924-1925	2	1,900	700
DeKalb	Moriah School	1928-1929	2	6,000	500
DeKalb	Scottdale School	1923-1924	5	6,300	1,300
DeKalb	Stone Mountain School	1927-1928	4	6,010	1,000
Dodge	Chauncey School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,799	400
Dodge	Chester Colored School	1923-1924	4	3,300	1,100
Dodge	Coffee School	1926-1927	2	2,350	700
Dooly	**Vienna County Training School**	1926-1927	7	17,737	1,700
Dougherty	Practice School at Ga. N & A College	1930-1931	8	39,000	4,000
Early	Pleasant Hill School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,625	300

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Early	Spring Creek School	1917-1918	3	1,625	300
Early	Spring Creek School	Tuskegee Period	3	1,625	300
Early	Spring Creek School #2	1925-1926	4	5,000	980
Early	Spring Creek School No. 2 (County Training School)	1925-1926	4	5,000	980
Early	St. Maryland School	1928-1929	2	2,020	500
Early	Teachers' Home at Country Training School	1927-1928	Teachers' Home	2,050	700
Elbert	Centerville School #2 (Maple Springs)	1926-1927	2	3,103	263
Elbert	Centerville School (Maple Springs)	1924-1925	2	3,200	700
Emanuel	Delwood School	1930-1931	2	3,750	400
Emanuel	**Summertown School**	1926-1927	3	5,272	900

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Emanuel	**Swainsboro School**	1921-1922	4	3,200	1,200
Floyd	Cave Spring School	1924-1925	3	4,100	900
Floyd	County Training School (Rome High and Industrial)	1923-1924	3	2,020	900
Floyd	Summerhill School	1920-1921	2	1,150	800
Floyd	West Rome School	1924-1925	3	4,100	900
Franklin	Royston School	1922-1923	3	1,800	900
Fulton	Battle Hill School	1924-1925	4	5,500	1,100
Fulton	East Point School	1927-1928	9	19,300	1,900
Fulton	Hapeville School	1926-1927	4	6,715	1,100
Fulton	Springfield School	1924-1925	4	5,000	1,100

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Glynn	**Glynn County Training School**	1922-1923	10	39,000	1,500
Glynn	Risley School	1921-1922	12	37,500	1,500
Gordon	Calhoun School	1929-1930	3	6,364	1,275
Gwinnett	Norcross School	1922-1923	2	1,900	700
Habersham	Alto School	1931-1932	3	3,850	850
Hall	State Industrial School	1920-1921	1	2,695	600
Hall	State Industrial Shop	1925-1926	N/A	750	200
Hall	Teachers' Home at State Industrial School	1924-1925	Teachers' Home	3,000	900
Hancock	Shop (County Training School)	1929-1932	1	1,000	200
Hancock	Shop at Springfield Industrial School	1928-1929	Shop	1,000	200

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County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Hancock	**Sparta East End School**	1929-1930	4	4,775	1,000
Hancock	Springfield School	1922-1923	3	1,00	900
Harris	Whitesville School	1927-1928	4	5,321	1,000
Hart	Camp Ground School	1928-1929	2	2,500	500
Hart	Flat Rock School	1921-1922	3	2,000	900
Hart	Hartwell School (County Training School)	1923-1924	5	7,000	1,300
Hart	Teachers' Home at Country Training School	1929-1930	Teachers' Home	2,400	900
Heard	State Line School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,700	500
Henry	County Training School (McDonough)	1920-1921	6	12,500	1,600

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County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Henry	Mt. Carmel School	1926-1927	1	1,400	400
Henry	Red Oak School	1923-1924	2	1,900	700
Henry	Stockbridge School	1930-1931	2	2,700	400
Henry	Teachers' Home Henry County Training School	1922-1923	Teachers' Home	2,100	900
Henry	Unity Grove School	1930-1931	2	2,537	400
Houston	Byron School	1921-1922	3	1,350	900
Houston	Green Grove School	1924-1925	1	1,150	400
Houston	Henderson School	1924-1925	1	1,200	400
Houston	Jerusalem School	1922-1923	2	1,200	700
Houston	King's Chapel School	1920-1921	2	1,335	800

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County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Houston	Mt. Nebo School	1922-1923	2	1,075	700
Houston	Mt. Olive School	1925-1926	1	1,100	400
Houston	Perry School (County Training School)	1925-1926	5	6,900	1,300
Jackson	Commerce School	1930-1931	2	3,000	400
Jackson	Neal School	1928-1929	2	2,850	750
Jasper	County Training School	1921-1922	6	8,000	1,600
Jasper	Midway School	Tuskegee Period	3	1,250	300
Jasper	Monticello School	1920-1921	6	6,400	1,600
Jasper	Teachers' Home at Monticello Training School	1922-1923	Teachers' Home	3,400	900
Jeff Davis	Column Union School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,495	500
Jeff Davis	**Hazlehurst School**	1925-1926	2	3,600	700

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County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Jefferson	Shop at Louisville School	1931-1932	Shop	3,600	500
Jefferson	Wrens School	1928-1929	4	5,675	1,000
Jenkins	Millen School (County Training School)	1926-1927	5	6,300	1,300
Jenkins	Shop at Millen County Training School	1931-1932	Shop	2,850	500
Johnson	Century School	1921-1922	2	2,900	1,200
Johnson	**Dock Kemp School**	1921-1922	4	4,100	1,200
Lamar	Barnesville School	1928-1929	4	5,600	1,000
Lamar	Flint Chapel School	1926-1927	1	1,200	400
Lamar	Flint Chapel School	1925-1926		1,200	400
Lamar	**Sugar Hill School**	1925-1926	2	2,000	700
Laurens	Millville School	1924-1925	3	2,475	900
Lee	Century School	1921-1922	2	2,200	800

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Lee	Leesburg School	1928-1929	4	5,900	1,000
Lee	**Smithville School**	1929-1930	4	8,000	1,000
Liberty	Cross Roads School (County Training School)	1928-1929	4	3,570	1,000
Liberty	Hinesville Shaw School	1930-1931	2	2,300	400
Liberty	Shop at County Training School	1930-1931	Shop	1,800	500
Liberty	Trinity School	1921-1922	1	1,900	500
Lowndes	Mt. Olive School	1917-1918	1	1,025	300
Lowndes	**Mt. Zion School**	Tuskegee Period	4	3,800	1,400
Lowndes	Onsley School	Tuskegee Period	1	745	300
Lowndes	**Valdosta High School**	1928-1929	8	25,355	2,100
Macon	County Training School (Montezuma)	1925-1926	6	18,600	1,500

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Macon	Ogelthorpe School	1921-1922	2	1,600	800
McIntosh	Carnagan School	1920-1921	2	1,900	800
McIntosh	Harris Neck School	1920-1921	3	3,000	1,000
McIntosh	**Sapelo School**	1927-1928	2	3,725	500
McIntosh	Todd-Grant Industrial School	1930-1931	4	4,900	1000
Meriwether	**County Training School (Manchester)**	1928-1929	5	13,600	1,450
Meriwether	Durand School	1928-1929	3	5,350	850
Meriwether	**Eleanor Roosevelt School**	1936	5	N/A	N/A
Meriwether	Luthersville School	1926-1927	3	4,233	900
Meriwether	Wilson Chapel	Tuskegee Period	3	3,540	500
Meriwether	Woodbury School	1927-1928	4	6,300	1,000

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Mitchell	**Camilla School**	1930-1931	6	9,700	2,600
Mitchell	County Training School (Pelham School)	1922-1923	6	1,500	1,500
Mitchell	Sale City School	1930-1931	3	4,550	700
Monroe	A&M Practice School	1928-1929	6	11,200	1,700
Monroe	Job's Chapel School	1930-1931	2	2,500	400
Monroe	**Teachers' Home at A&M (Forsyth)**	1923-1924	Teachers' Home	2,100	900
Monroe	**Teachers' Home at A&M Practice School**	1930-1931	Teachers' Home	4,300	1,375
Montgomery	**Ailey School**	1927-1928	3	3,650	700
Montgomery	Holmes Chapel School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,900	500
Muscogee	Columbus School	1929-1932	16	123,190	20,742
Muscogee	Tabernacle – 1 room added	1929-1932	1	1,505	150
Muscogee	Tabernacle School	1927-1928	1	2,315	200

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Newton	Bentley School	1920-1921	1	2,950	500
Newton	Livingston School	1921-1922	3	2,000	1,000
Newton	Nixon's Chapel School	1926-1927	1	1,325	400
Newton	Oxford School	1921-1922	3	1,300	1,000
Oconee	Watkinsville School	1928-1929	4	5,810	1,500
Paulding	**Hiram School**	1929-1930	2	3,010	750
Peach	**Allen Chapel School**	1923-1924	3	3,218	900
Peach	Byron School	1922-1923	3	2,150	900
Peach	**County Training School (Ft. Valley)**	1927-1928	10	32,600	2,100
Peach	Live Oak School	1926-1927	1	1,500	400
Peach	Mrytle School	1923-1924	2	1,550	700
Peach	Powersville School	1923-1924	3	2,600	900

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Pierce	Patterson School	1928-1929	2	3,050	500
Pike	Central School	Tuskegee Period	1	996	300
Pike	**Concord School**	1929-1930	2	2,650	500
Pike	Zebulon School	1926-1927	2	3,000	700
Polk	Cherokee School	1926-1927	2	2,715	700
Polk	Rockmart School	1920-1921	4	2,500	1,200
Polk	Seney School	1920-1921	3	1,300	1,000
Pulaski	Hawkinsville School	1923-1924	6	7,500	1,500
Randolph	Coleman School	1926-1927	2	2,325	700
Randolph	Coleman School	1925-1926	2	2,325	700
Randolph	**County Training School**	1923-1924	6	11,500	1,500

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Randolph	Shellman School	Tuskegee Period	3	1,585	500
Richmond	Steed School	1928-1929	6	26,850	2,550
Screven	Bascom School	1921-1922	2	2,000	800
Screven	Sylvania High and Inustrial (County Training School)	1930-1931	8	14,000	4,000
Screven	Sylvania School (County Training School)	Tuskegee Period	4	3,300	500
Seminole	Donalsonville School	1930-1931	6	11,950	3,900
Spalding	Griffin School	1928-1929	6	16,500	2,550
Stewart	Kimbrough School	1928-1929	4	4,525	1,000
Stewart	Lumpkin School	1923-1924	4	5,550	1,100
Stewart	**Omaha School**	1926-1927	4	5,000	1,100
Stewart	Richland School	1921-1922	4	4,100	1,300

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Sumter	Gatewood School (Mt. Moriah)	1923-1924	2	2,690	700
Sumter	Mt. Zion School	1922-1923	2	1,200	700
Sumter	New Shady Grove	1921-1922	4	1,200	1,200
Sumter	New Shady Grove (Nunn)	1926-1927	Teachers' Home	2,200	900
Sumter	Shady Grove School	1930-1931	4	4,700	1,000
Sumter	Shipp Industrial County Training School	1925-1926	Room Added	1,000	200
Sumter	Shipp Industrial School	1923-1924	4	5,700	1,100
Sumter	Shop at Nunn Industrial School	1928-1929	Shop	925	200
Sumter	Shop at Nunn Industrial School	1929-1932	1	925	200
Sumter	Teachers' Home at Sumter School (Shipp Ind.)	1923-1924	Teachers' Home	1,900	900
Sumter	Plains School	1923-1924	5	4,000	1,300

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Tattnall	Ebenezer School	1921-1922	2	1,310	700
Tattnall	Manassas School	Tuskegee Period	1	967	400
Tattnall	Manassas School	1921-1922	Addition	600	200
Taylor	Butler School	1923-1924	3	3,900	900
Taylor	Pottersville School	1926-1927	2	2,750	700
Taylor	Reynolds School	1921-1922	4	2,200	1,200
Telfair	Cedar Park School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,450	400
Thomas	County Training School	1925-1926	5	15,000	1,300
Thomas	Oscilla School	1926-1927	3	4,800	900
Thomas	Shop at Oscilla Consolidated School	1929-1930	Shop	1,529	200
Thomas	Thomasville School	1931-1932	Other	39,240	3,850

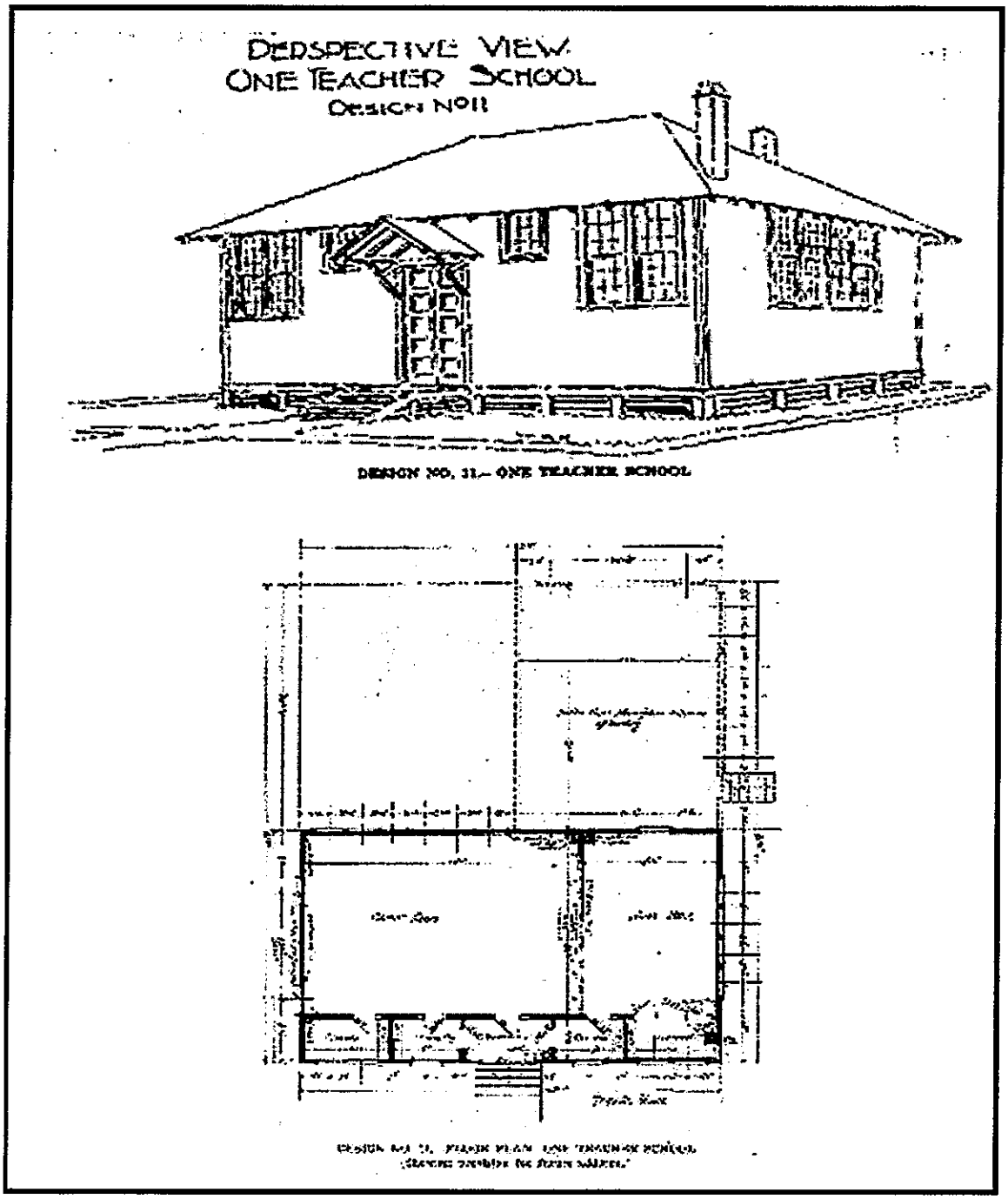
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Tift	Tift School	Tuskegee Period	6	3,800	300
Toombs	Vidalia School	Tuskegee Period	3	2,250	400
Treutlen	Soperton School	1921-1922	2	1,100	500
Treutlen	Soperton School	1931-1932	5	7,750	1,200
Treutlen	Treuntlen School	Tuskegee Period	2	1,600	500
Troup	West Point School	1930-1931	9	24,730	6,750
Walker	Chicamauga School	1931-1932	3	3,489	700
Walker	Dewberry School	1923-1924	1	1,428	400
Walton	Logansville School	1930-1931	2	2,650	400
Walton	Peters School	1930-1931	3	3,550	1,050
Walton	Thompson School	1930-1931	2	2,650	400
Ware	Glenmore School	1921-1922	2	3,445	800

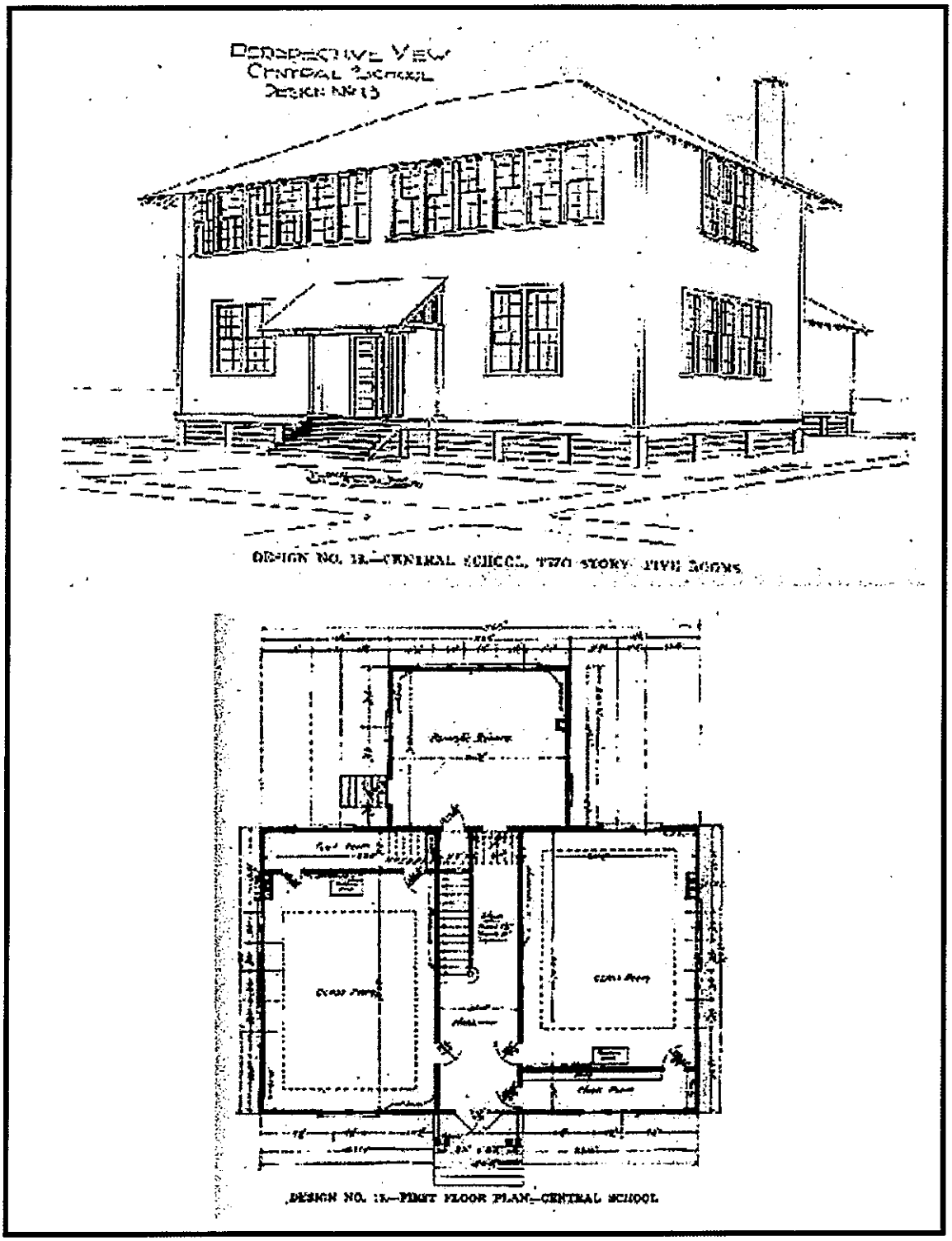
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.

County	School (Bold Faced Equals Extant Historic Resource)	Budget Year	No. Teachers	Total Cost in Dollars	Rosenwald Fund Contribution in Dollars
Washington	Royal School	1927-1928	3	3,400	700
Washington	Tennille School	1922-1923	4	2,000	1,000
Wayne	County Training School	1926-1927	5	13,100	1,300
Wayne	Middle Grove School	Tuskegee Period	1	1,450	400
Wayne	Screven School	1917-1918	1	775	300
Wayne	Screven (Rebuilt) School	1926-1927	3	3,300	900
Webster	Shiloh-Weston School	1926-1927	3	2,975	900
Wilcox	Rochelle School	1930-1931	3	3,998	700
Wilcox	Turner School	1924-1925	4	3,100	1,100
Wilkes	Tignall School	1921	2	2,300	800
Wilkinson	Calvary Hill School	1921-1922	1	1,650	500
Wilkinson	Gordon School	1922-1923	4	3,000	1,000
Wilkinson	Toomsboro	1921	4	1,465	1,200

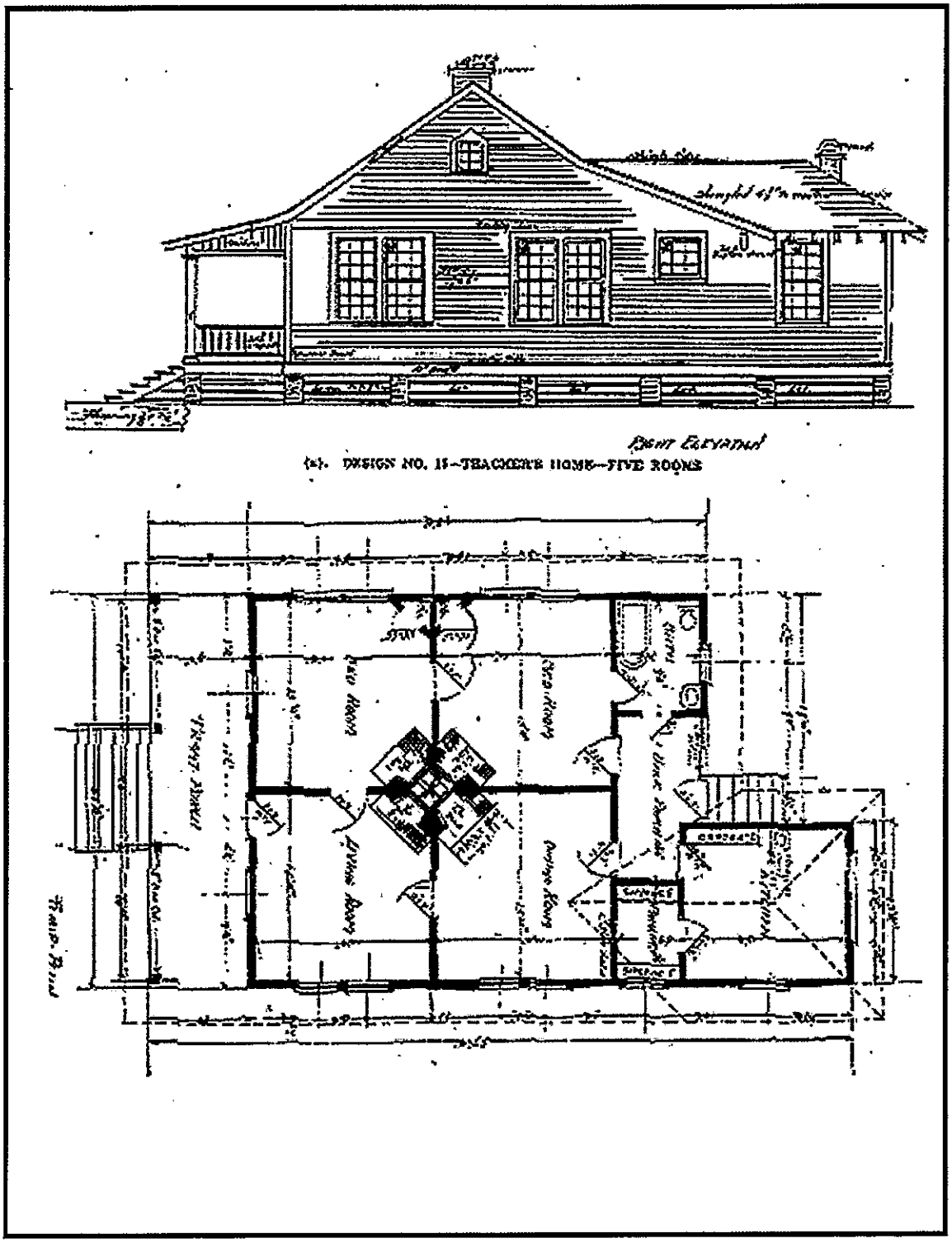
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT ONE: Rosenwald Schools, Teachers' Homes, and Shops Built in Georgia.



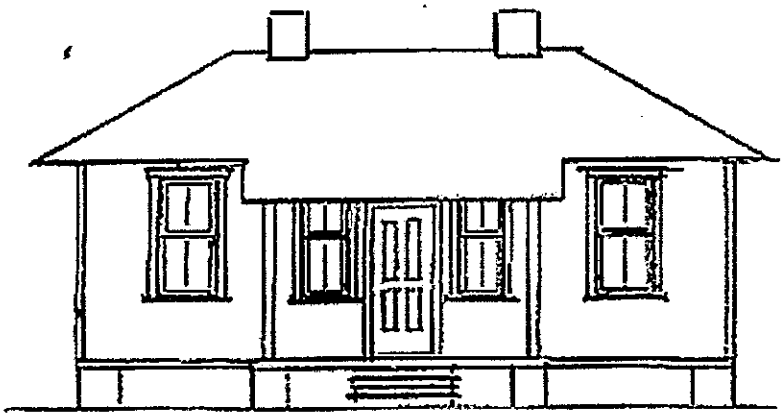
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: One Teacher School, Tuskegee Plan No.11, 1 of 26.



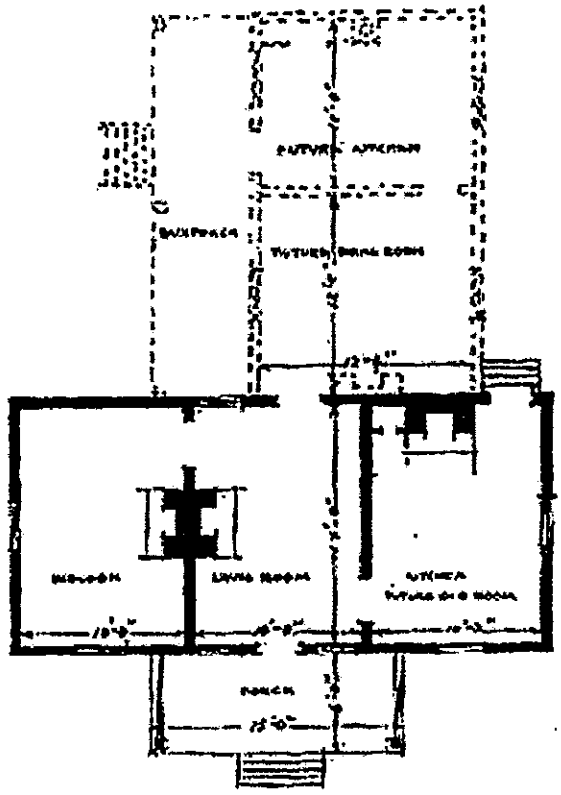
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Five Teacher School, Tuskegee Plan No. 13, 2 of 26.



ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Five Room Teachers' Home, Tuskegee Plan, 3 of 26.



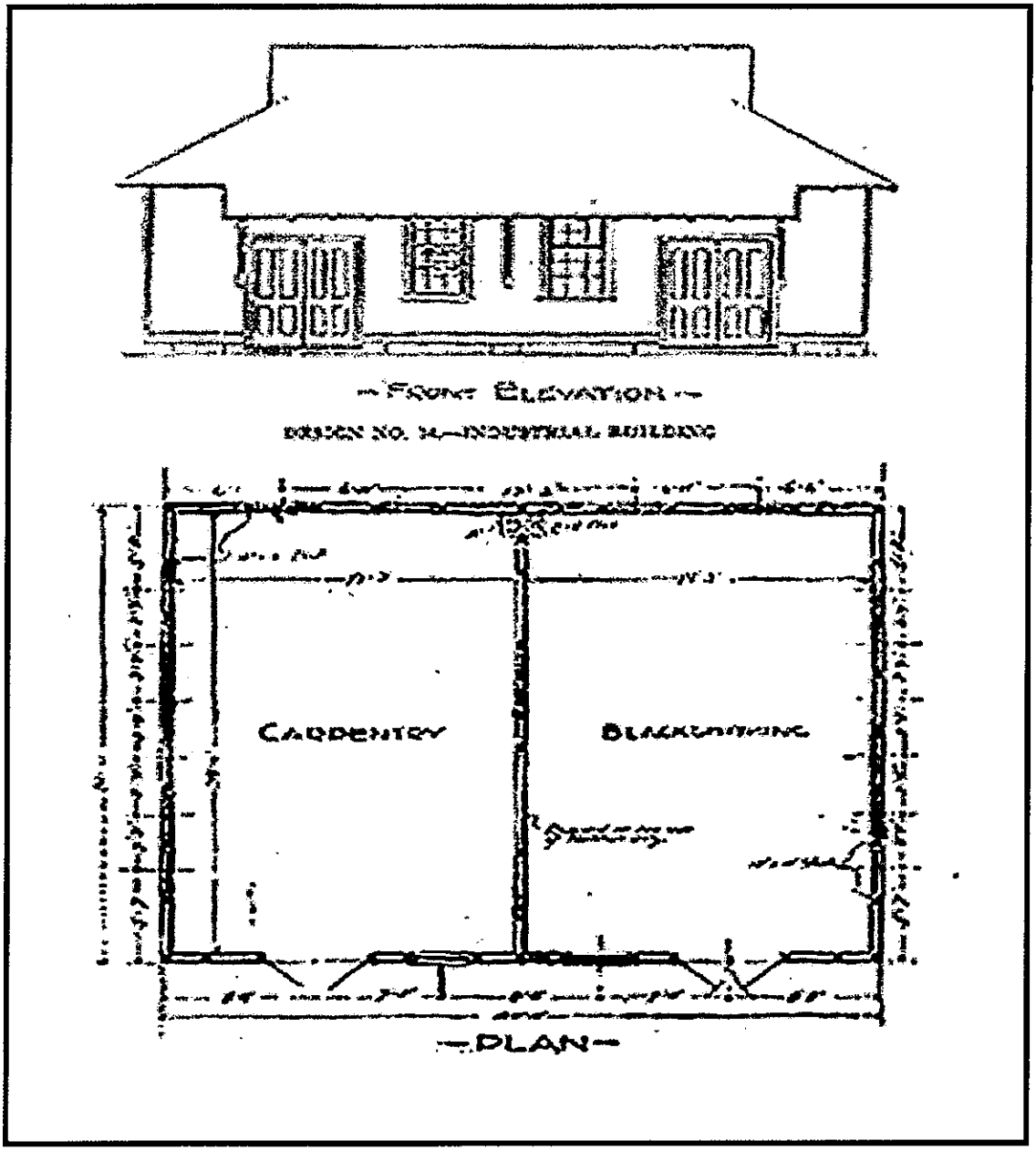
DESIGN NO. 14—TEACHER'S HOME—THREE ROOMS
(Front Elevation)



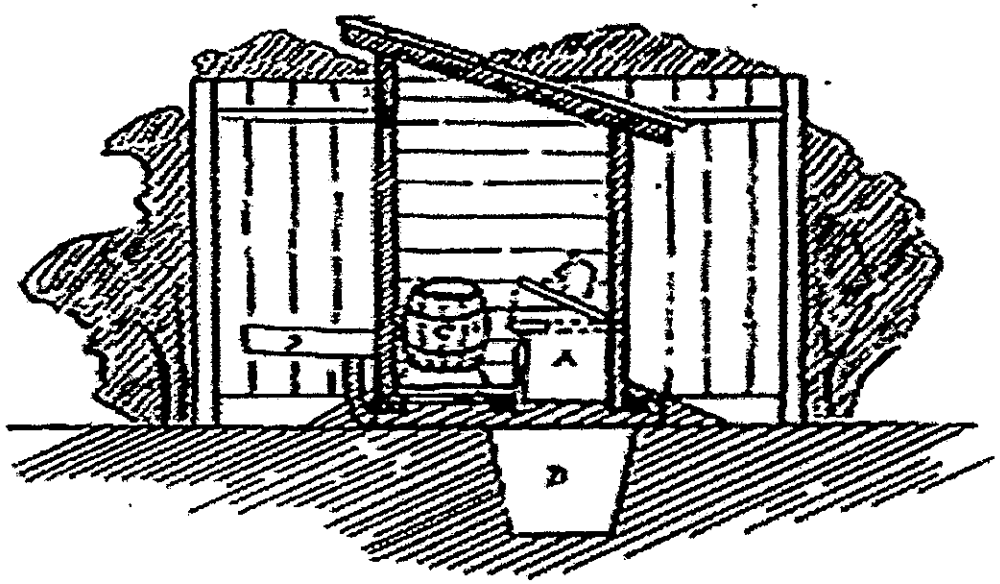
PLAN
THREE ROOM COTTAGE

DESIGN NO. 14—FLOOR PLAN, TEACHER'S HOME—THREE ROOMS

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Three Room Cottage for Teachers, Tuskegee Plan, 4 of 26.

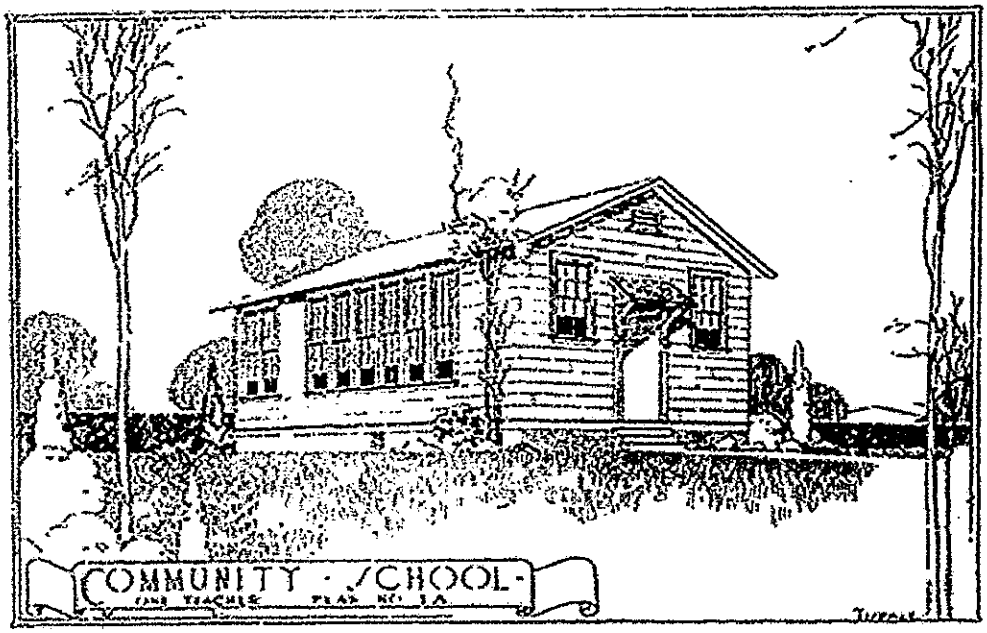


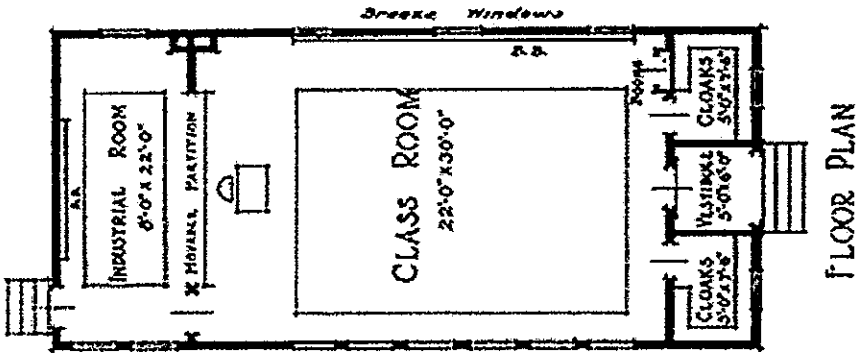
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Industrial Building with Blacksmithing and Carpentry Rooms, Tuskegee Plan, 5 of 26.



SANITARY TOILET USING PIT SYSTEM

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Privy, Tuskegee Plan, 6 of 26.



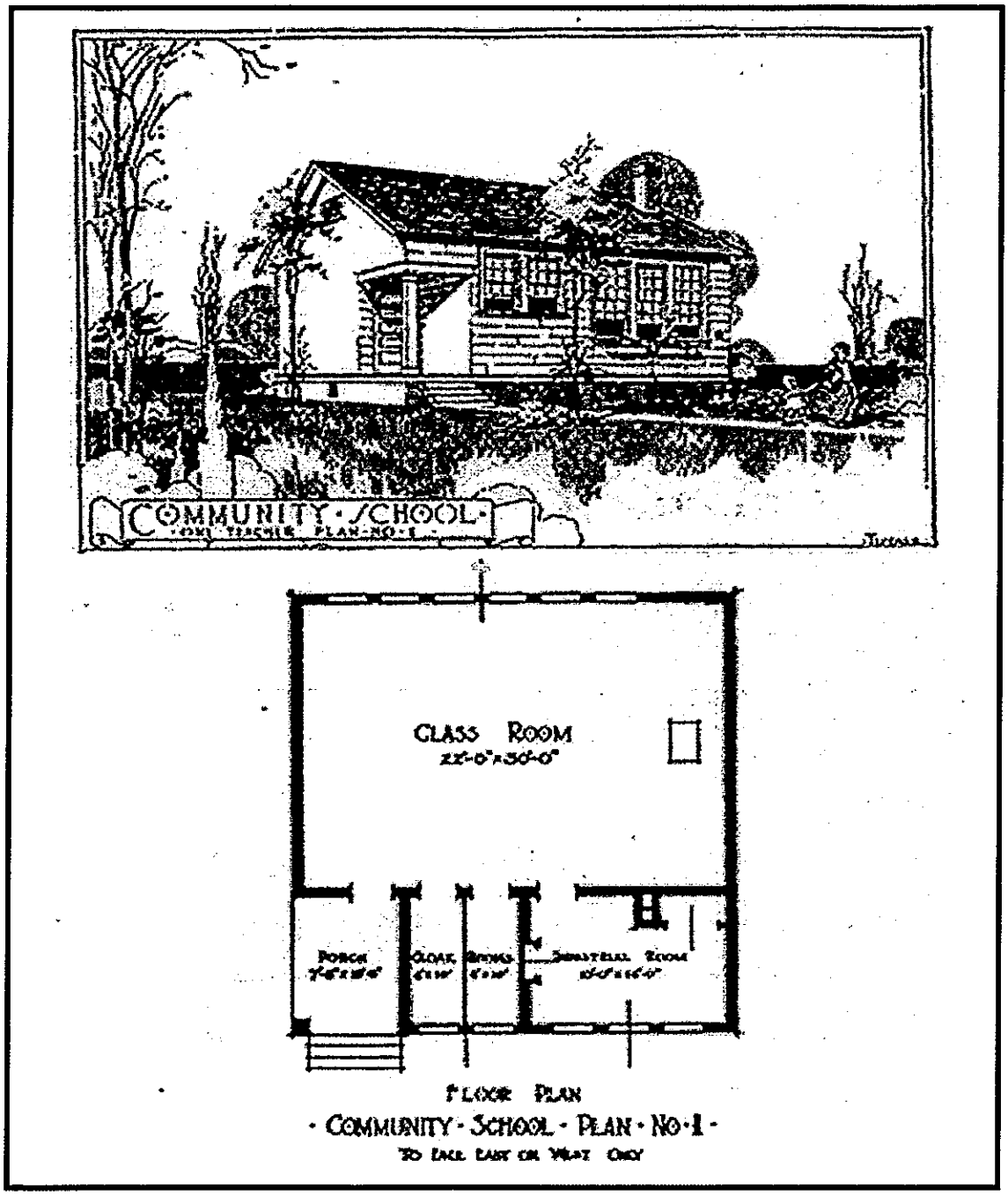


ONE-TEACHER

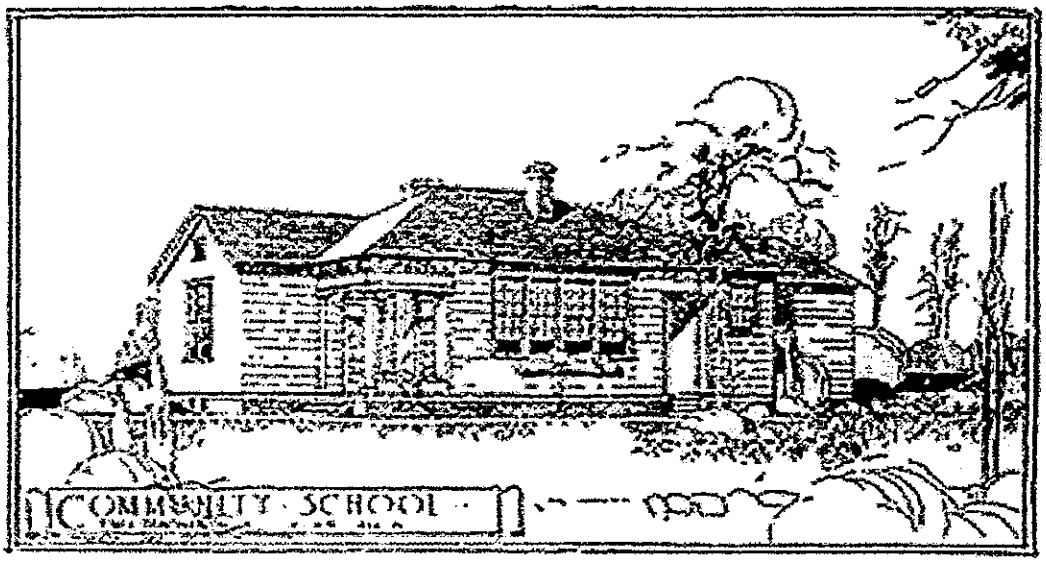
COMMUNITY SCHOOL PLAN NO I-A

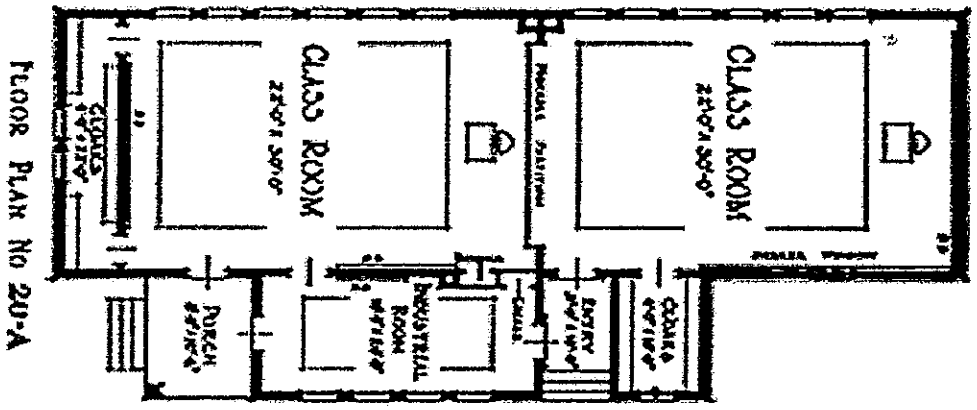
TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: One Teacher School to Face North or South, Community School Plan, 7 of 26.



ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: One Teacher East or West Facing Plan, Community School Plan, 8 of 26.

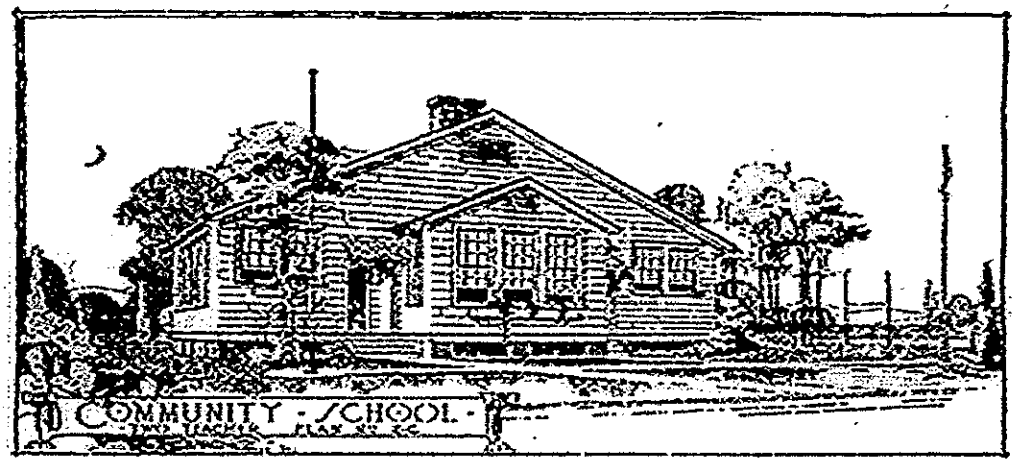


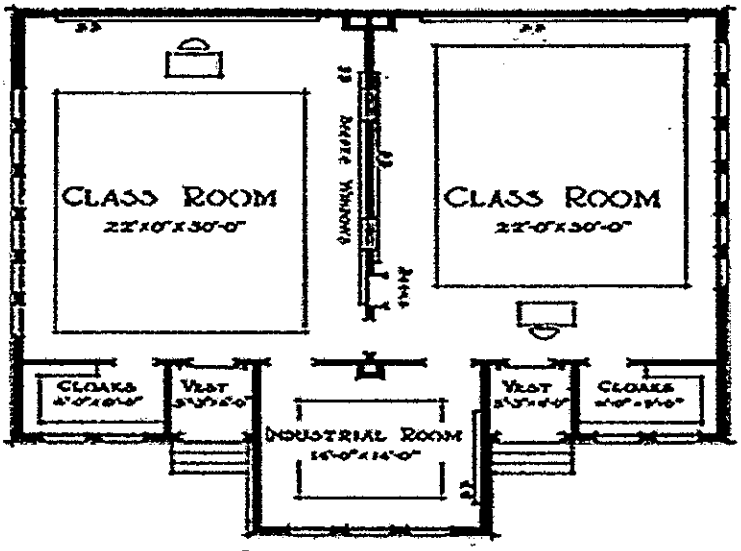


TWO TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Two Teacher Plan to Face North or South, Community School Plan, 9 of 26.



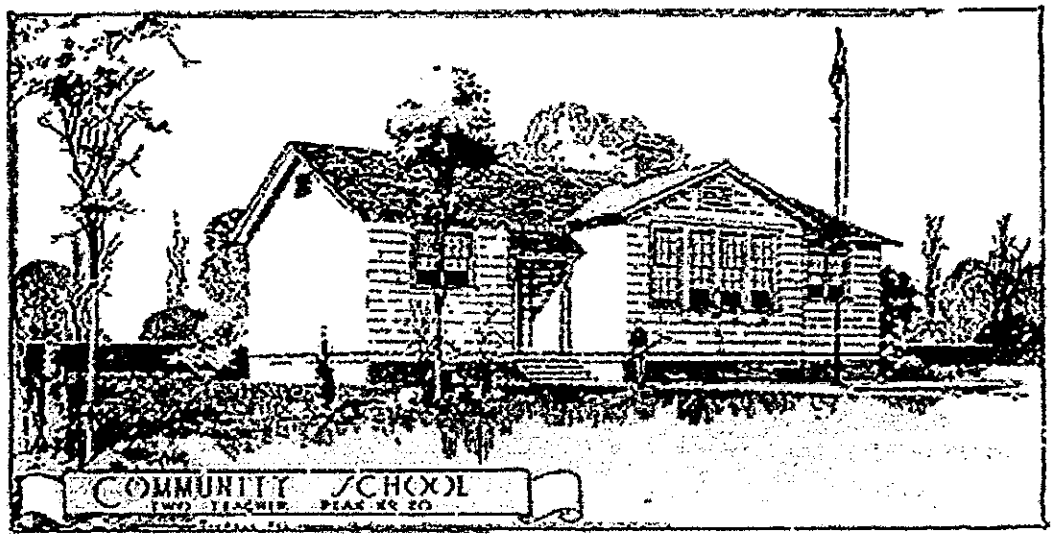


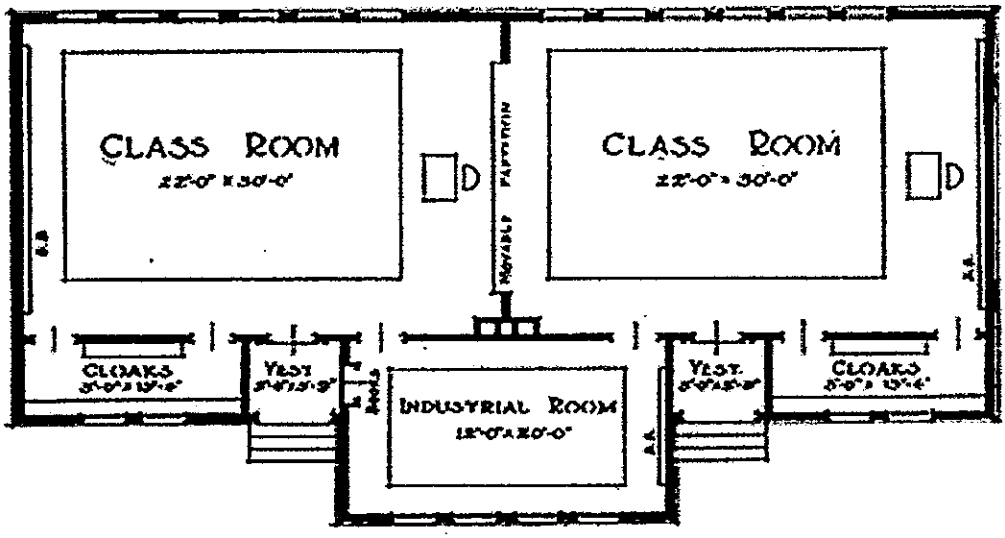
FLOOR PLAN NO 2-C

TWO TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Two Teacher Plan Facing North or South, Community School Plan, 10 of 26.



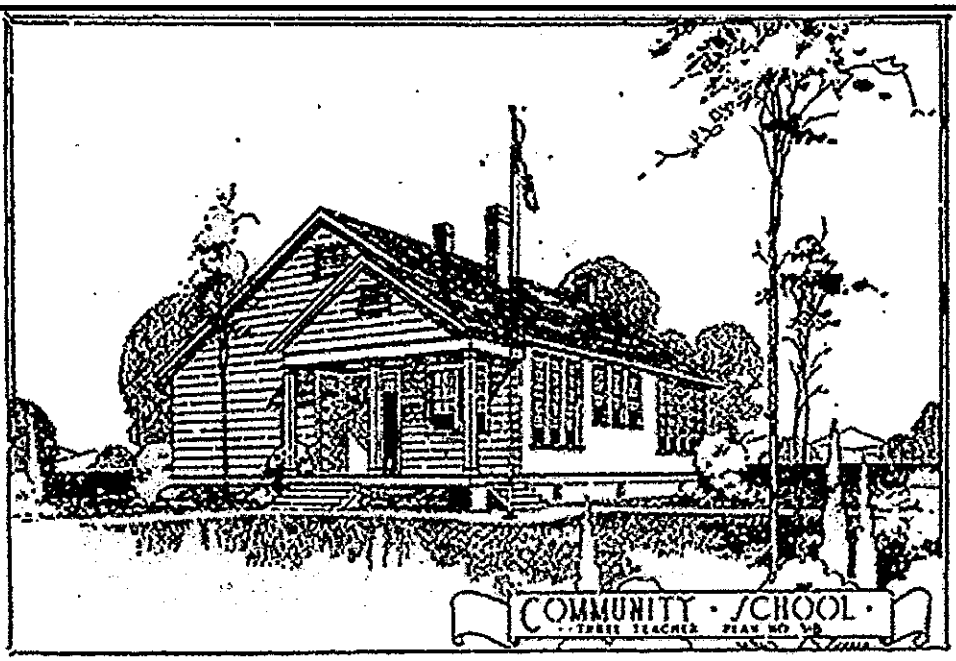


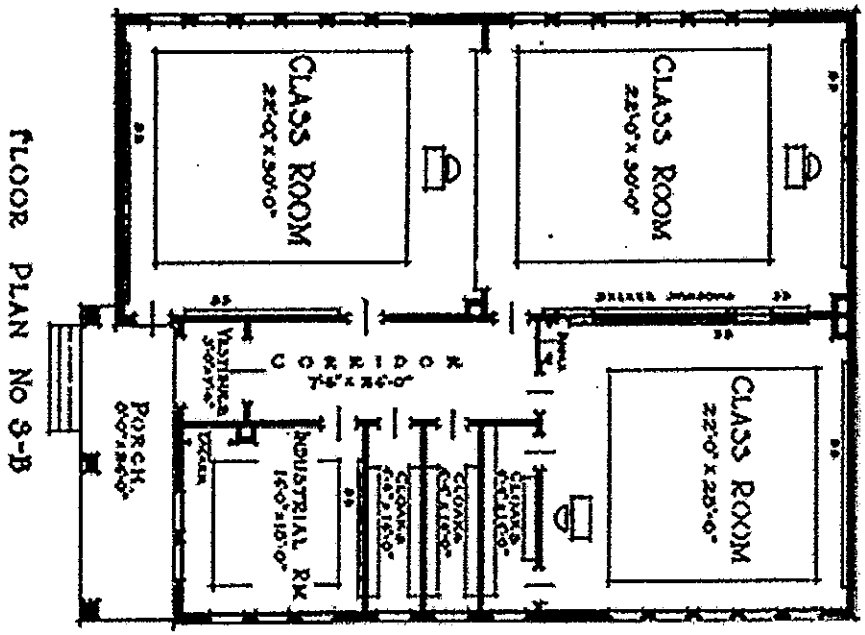
FLOOR PLAN NO 20

TWO TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE EAST OR WEST ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Two Teacher Plan to Face East or West, Community School Plan, 11 of 26.

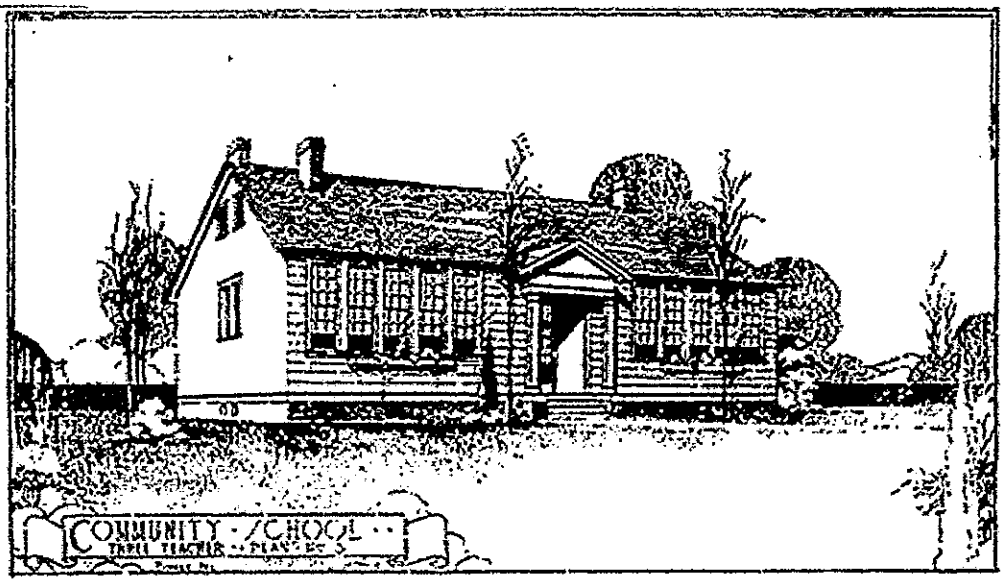


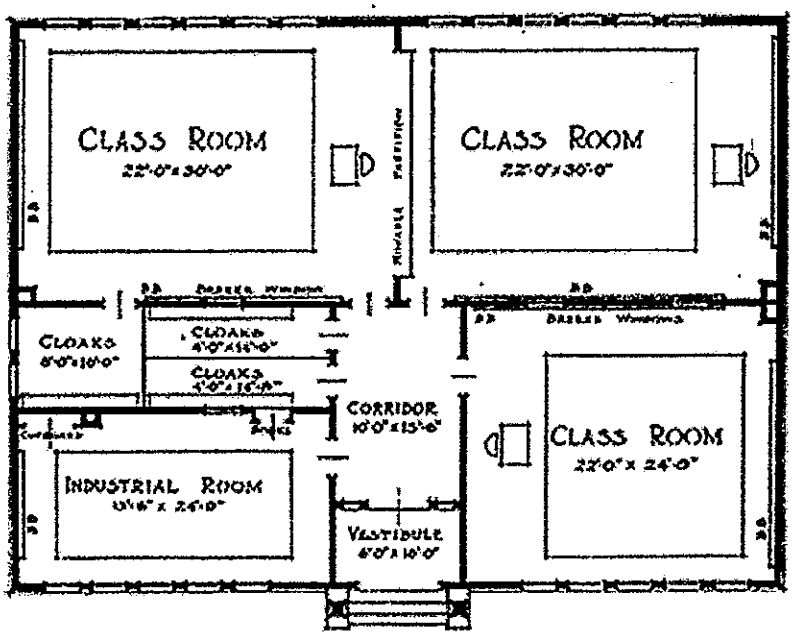


THREE TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

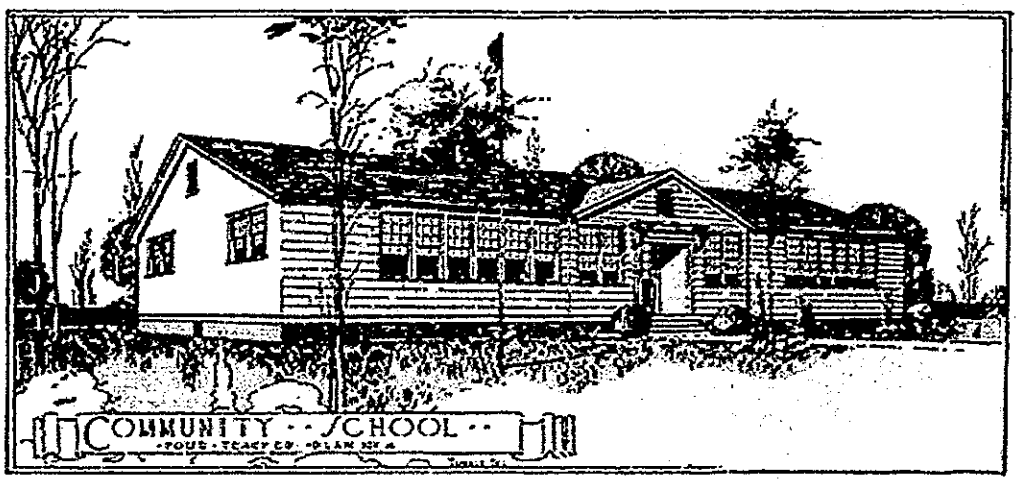
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Three Teacher School to Face North or South, Community School Plan, 12 of 26.

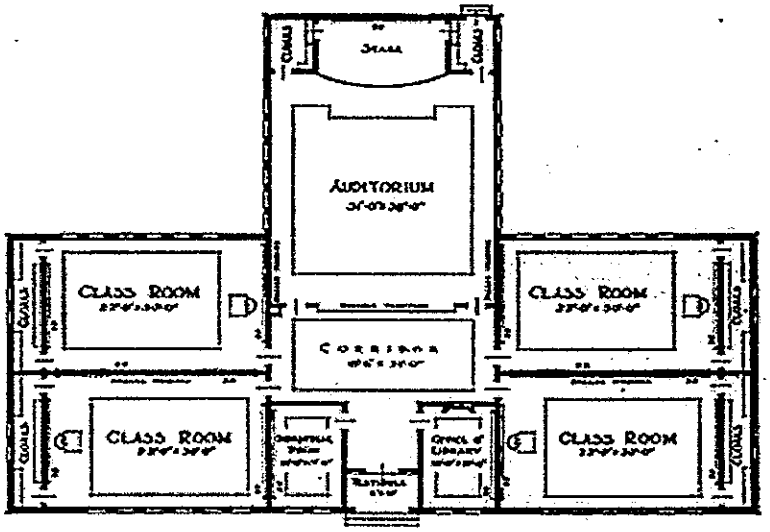




FLOOR PLAN NO 3
THREE TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL
TO FACE EAST OR WEST ONLY

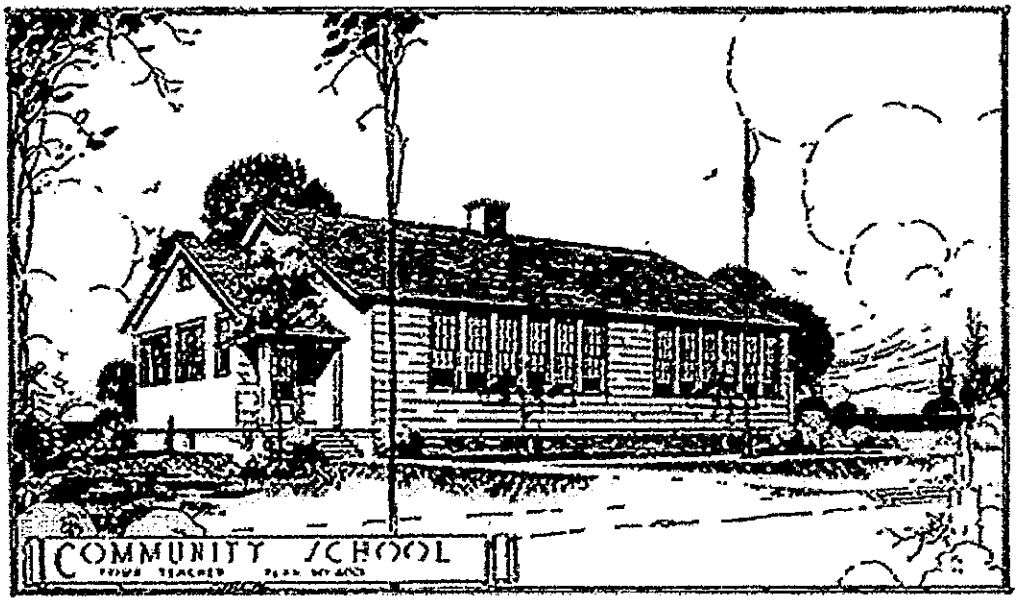
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Three Teacher School to Face East or West, Community School Plan, 13 of 26.

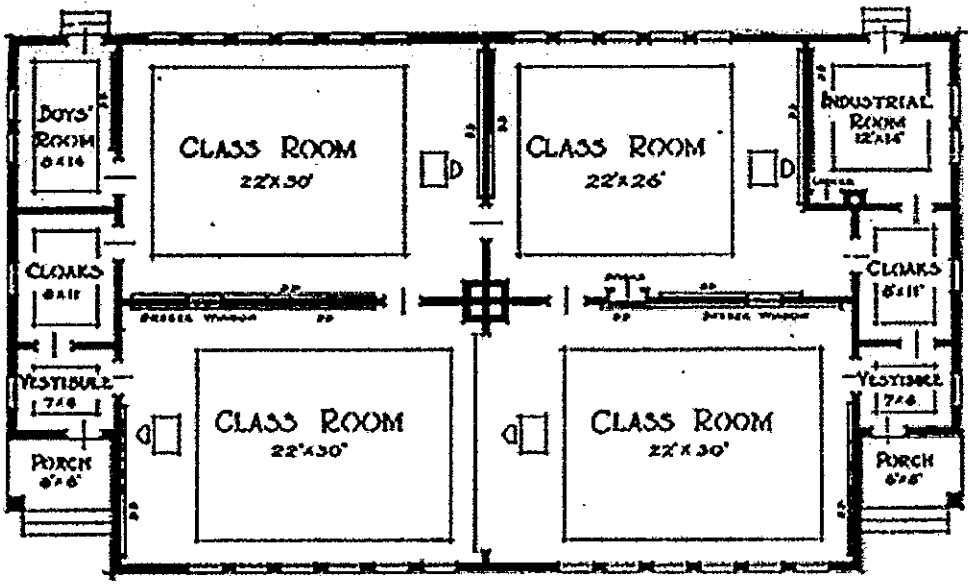




FLOOR PLAN NO 4
FOUR TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

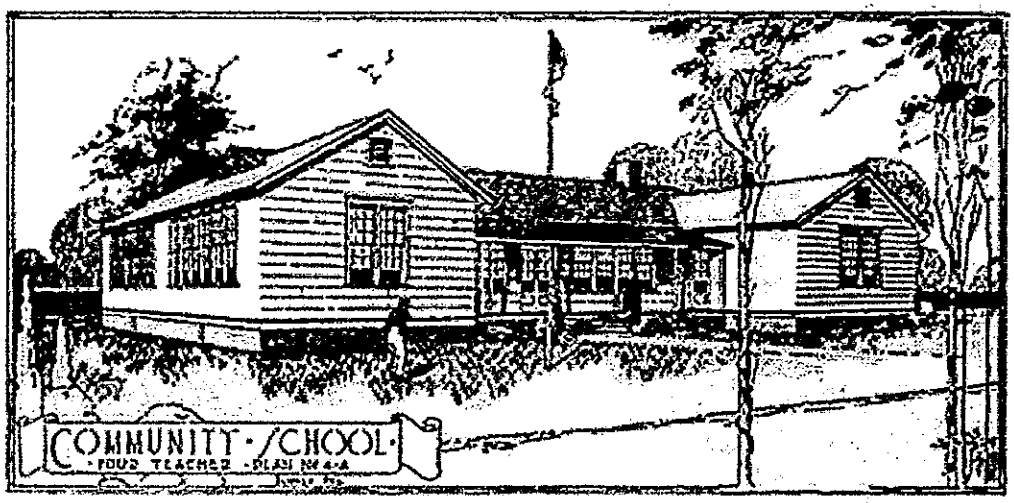
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Four Teacher Plan East/ West with Auditorium, Community School Plan, 14 of 26.

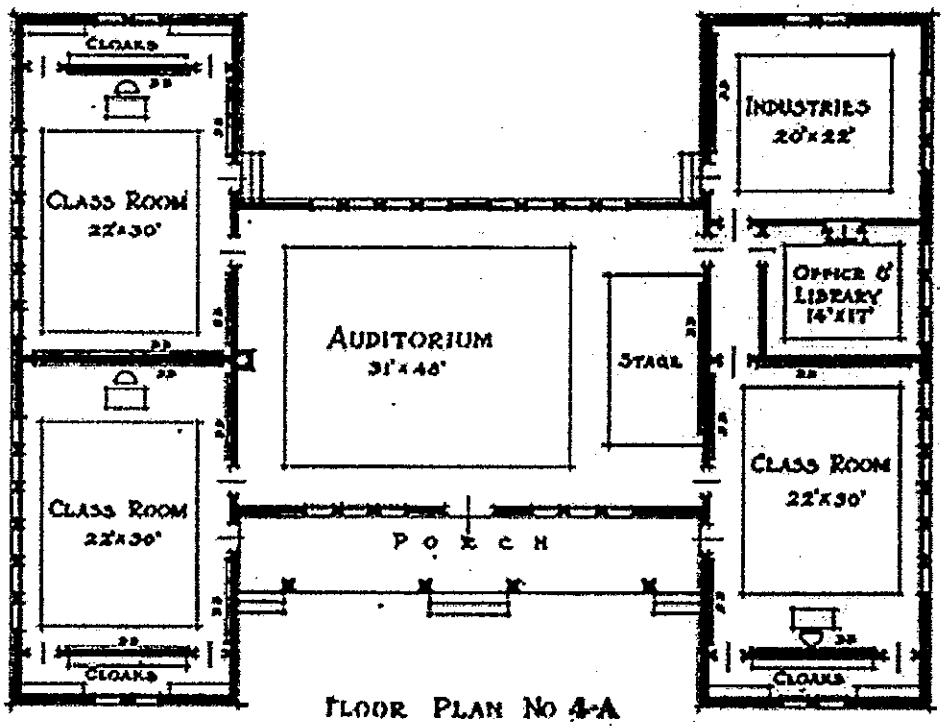




FLOOR PLAN NO 400
FOUR TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL
TO FACE EAST OR WEST ONLY

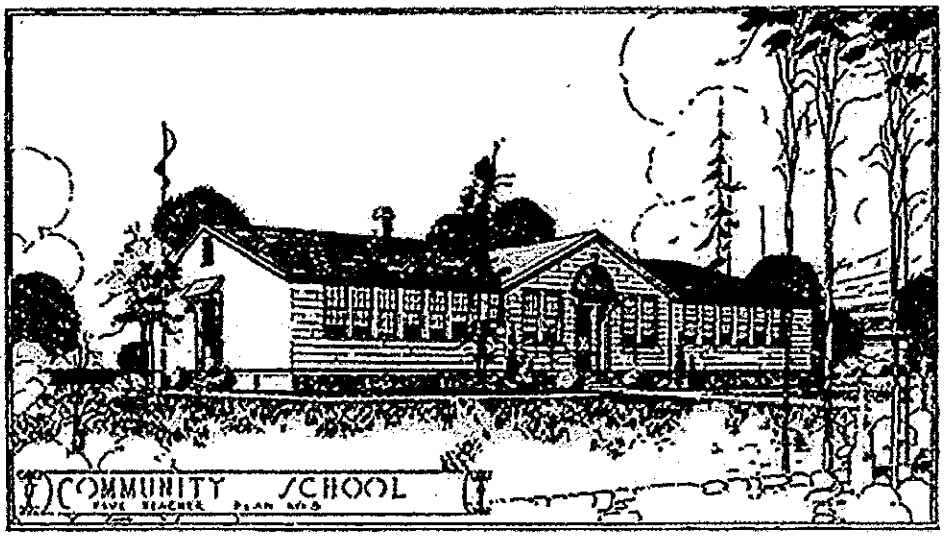
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Four Teacher Plan East or West Facing, Community School Plan, 15 of 26.

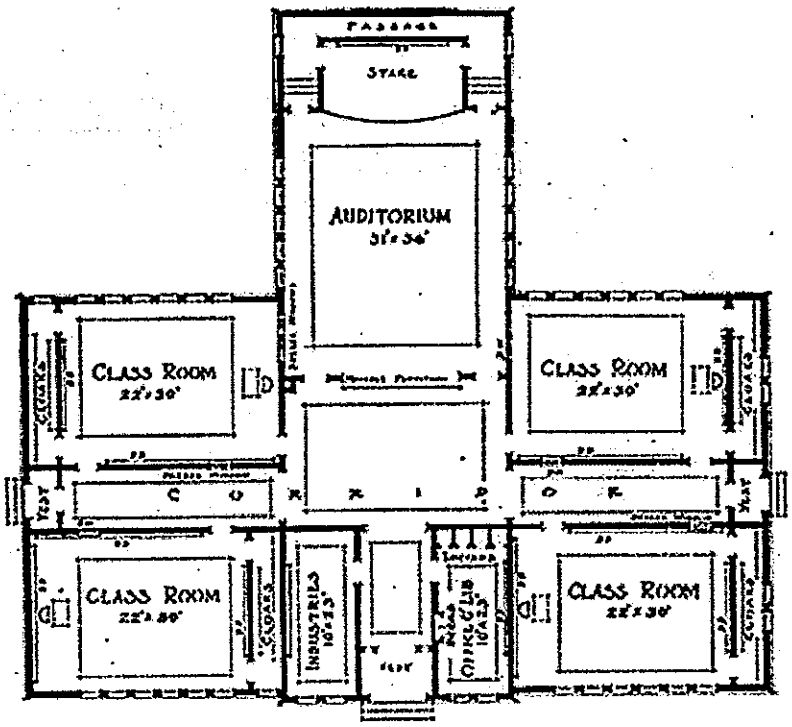




FLOOR PLAN NO 4-A
FOUR TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL
TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

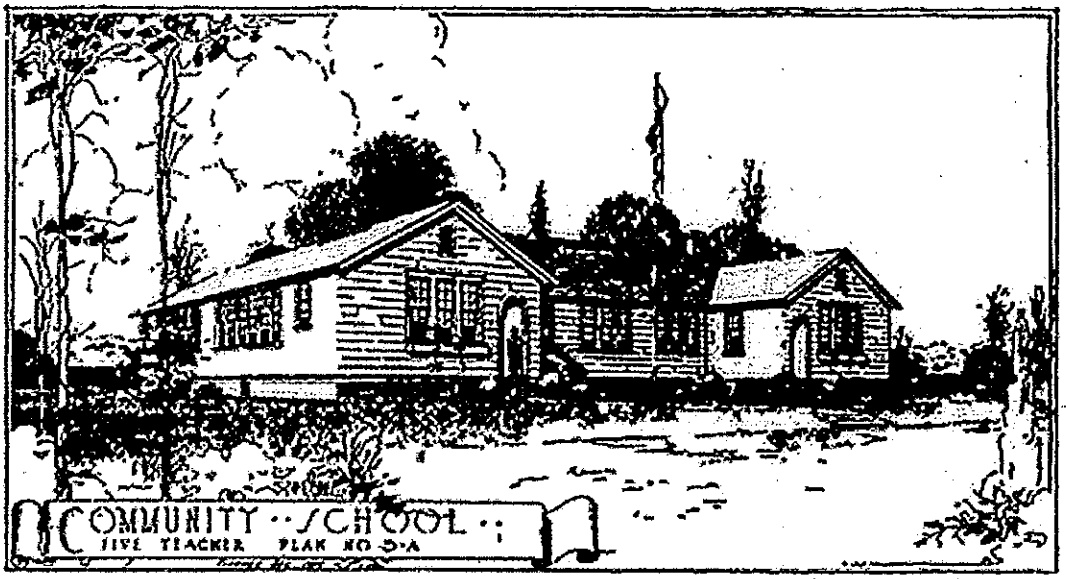
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Four Teacher Plan North/ South with Auditorium, Community School Plan, 16 of 26.

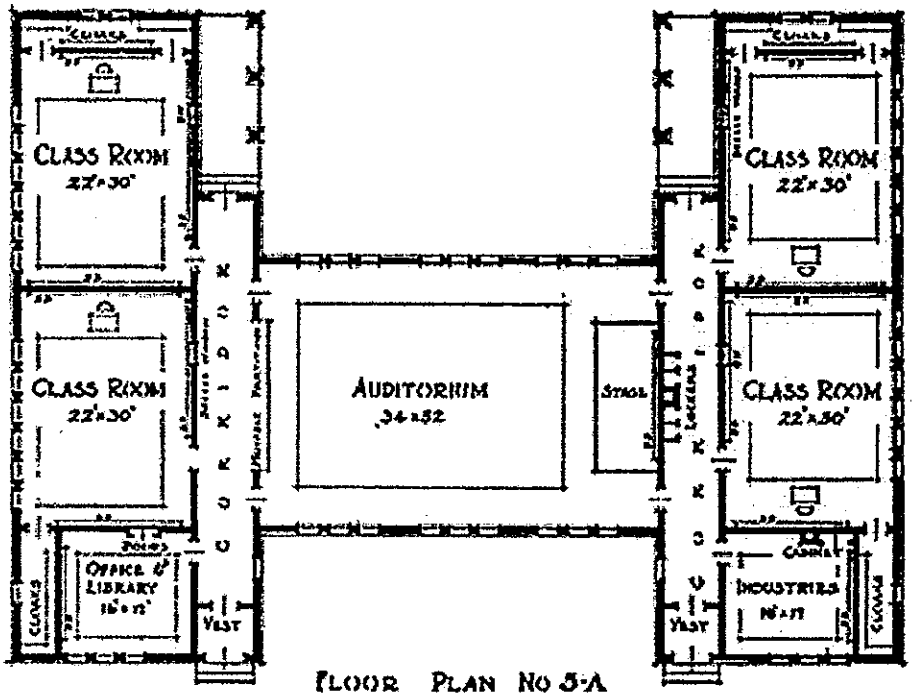




FLOOR PLAN NO 5
FIVE TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL
TO FACE EAST OR WEST ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Five Teacher East or West Facing Plan, Community School Plan, 17 of 26.



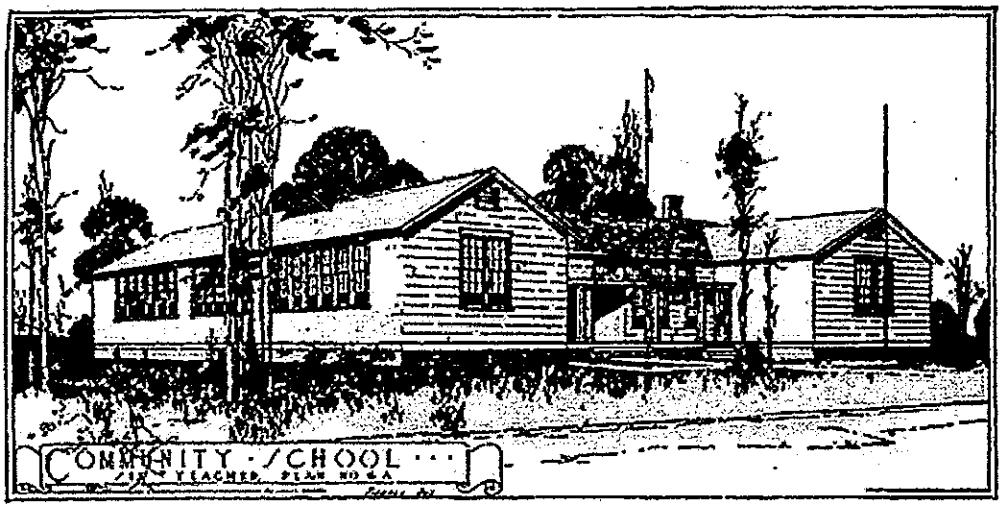


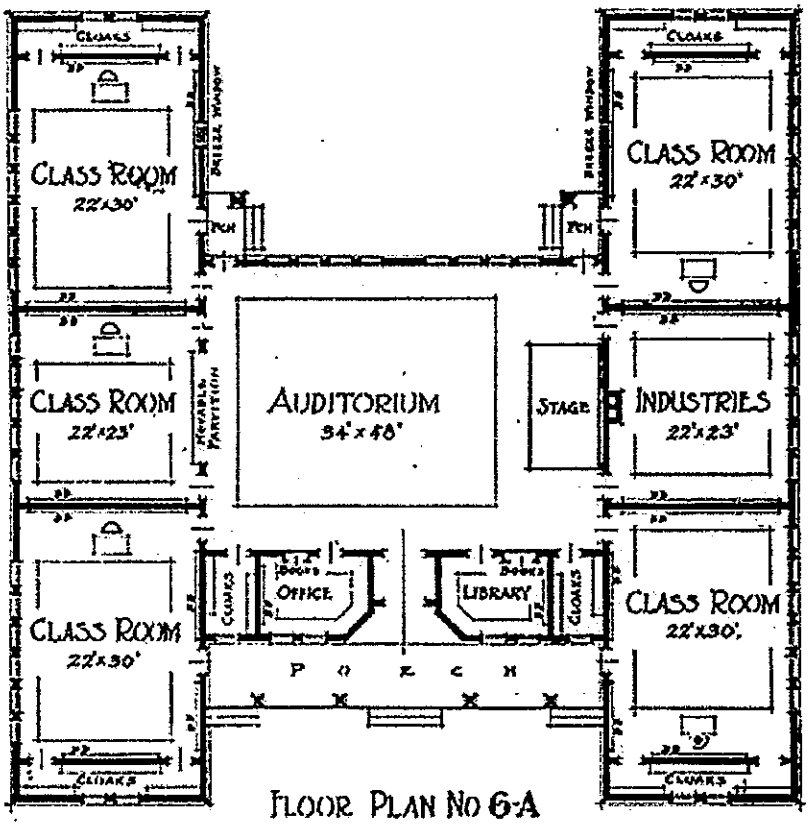
FLOOR PLAN NO 5-A

FIVE TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Five Teacher North or South Facing Plan, Community School Plan, 18 of 26.



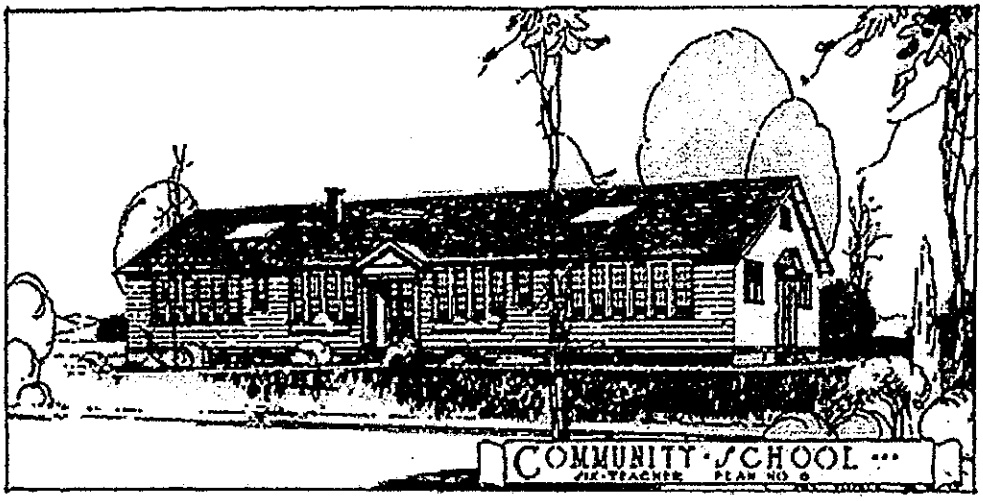


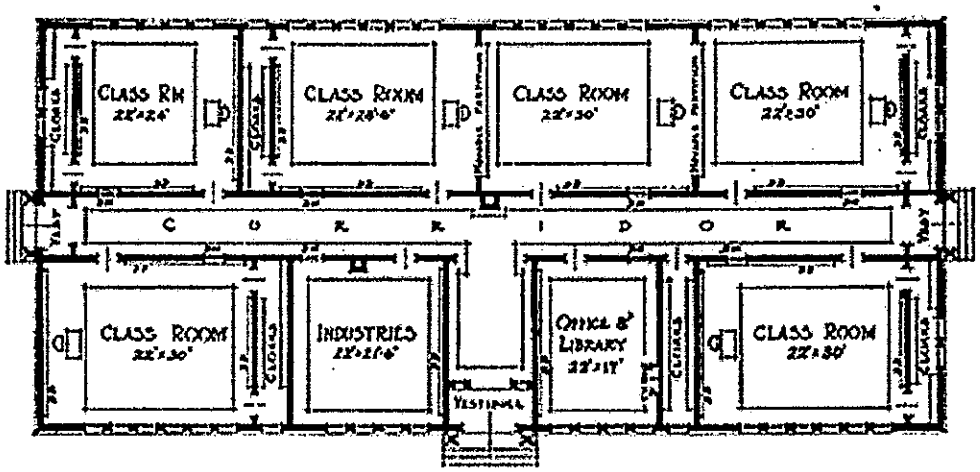
FLOOR PLAN NO 6-A

SIX TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

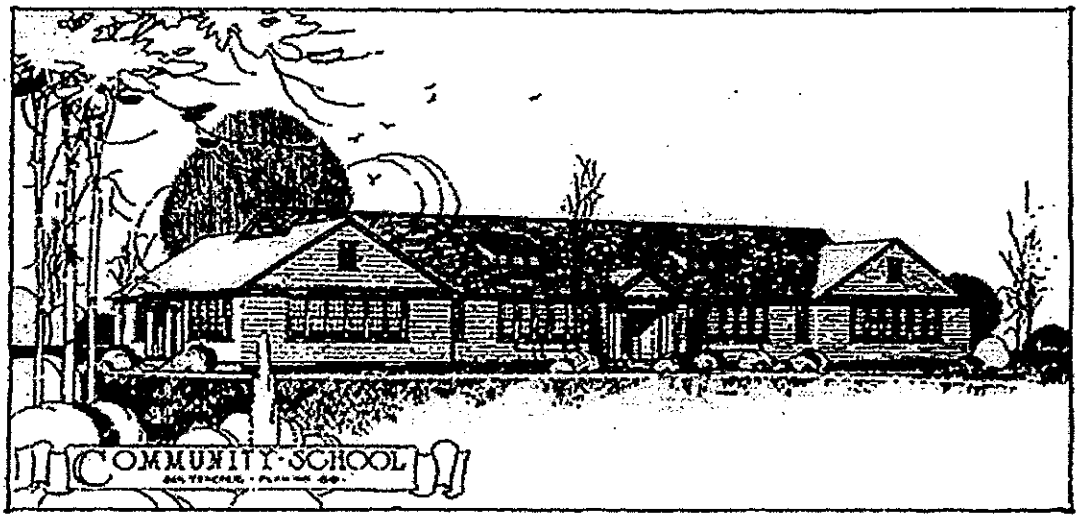
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Six Teacher Plan—North or South Facing, Community School Plan, 19 of 26.

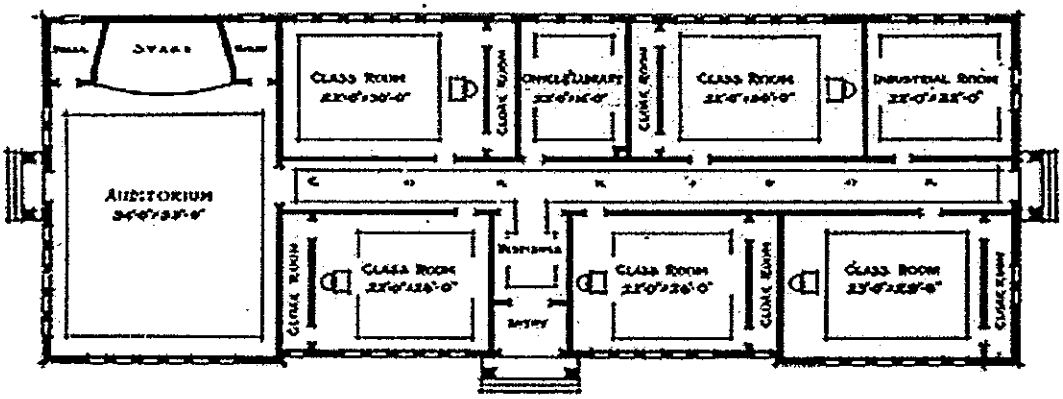




FLOOR PLAN NO 6
SIX TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL
TO FACE EAST OR WEST ONLY

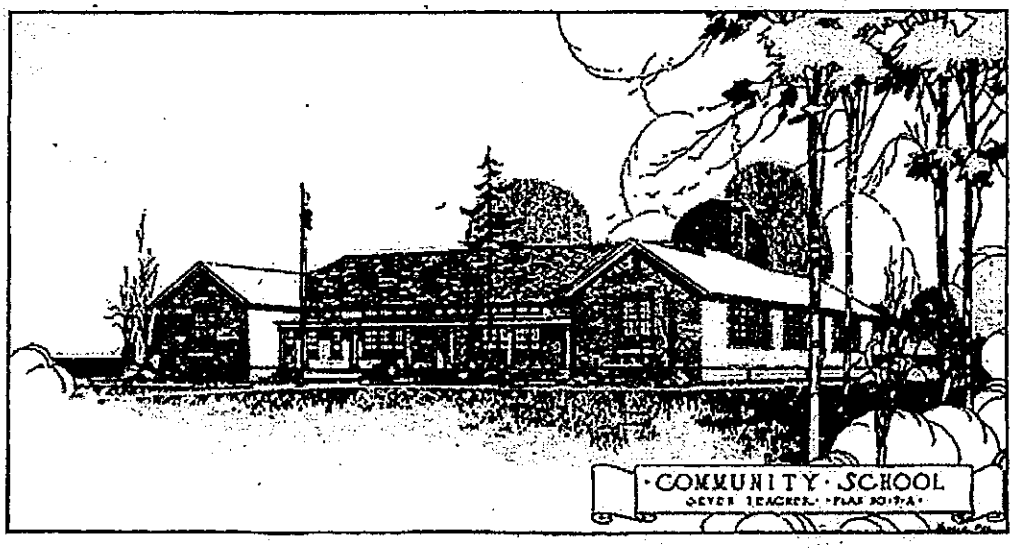
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Six Teacher Plan East or West Facing, Community School Plan, 20 of 26.

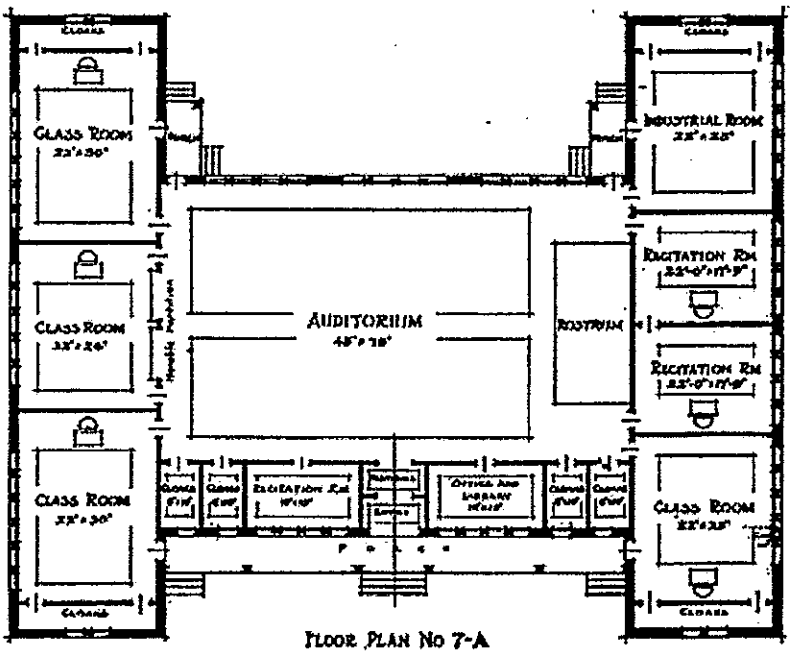




FLOOR PLAN NO 60
SIX TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL
TO FACE EAST OR WEST ONLY

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Six Teacher East or West Facing Plan with Auditorium, Community School Plan, 21 of 26.



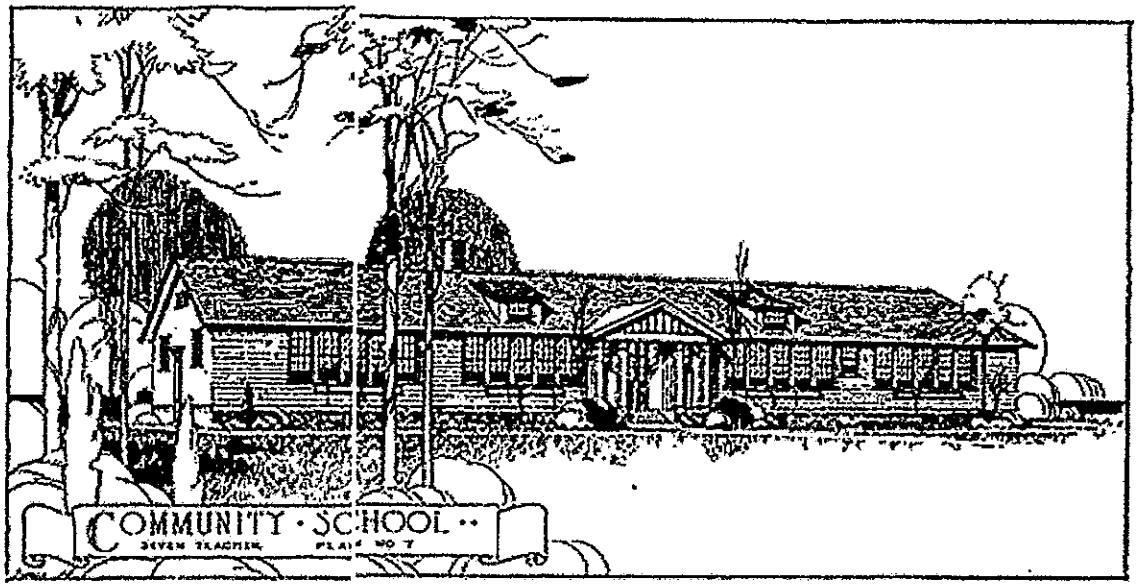


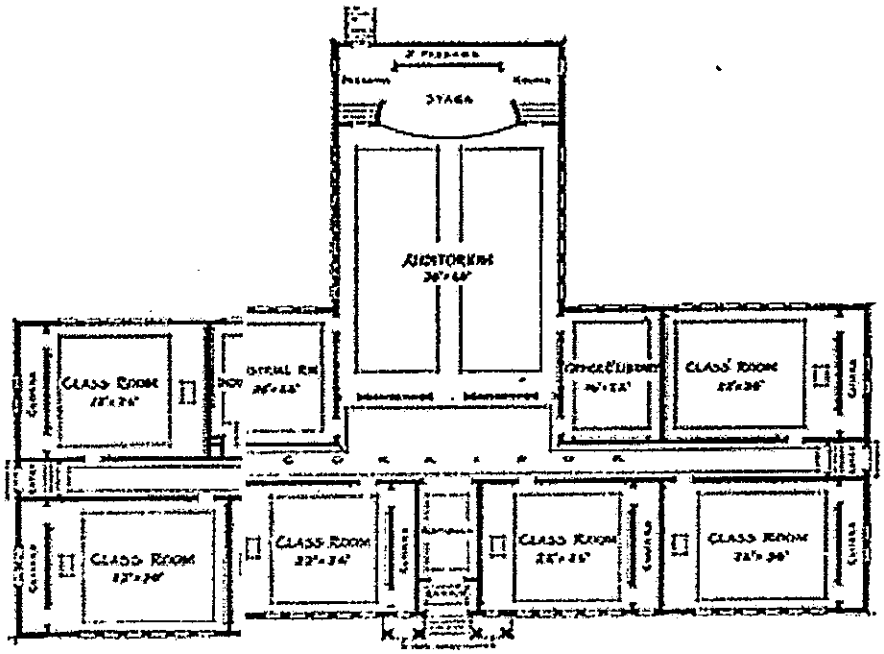
FLOOR PLAN NO 7-A

SEVEN TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

TO FACE NORTH OR SOUTH ONLY

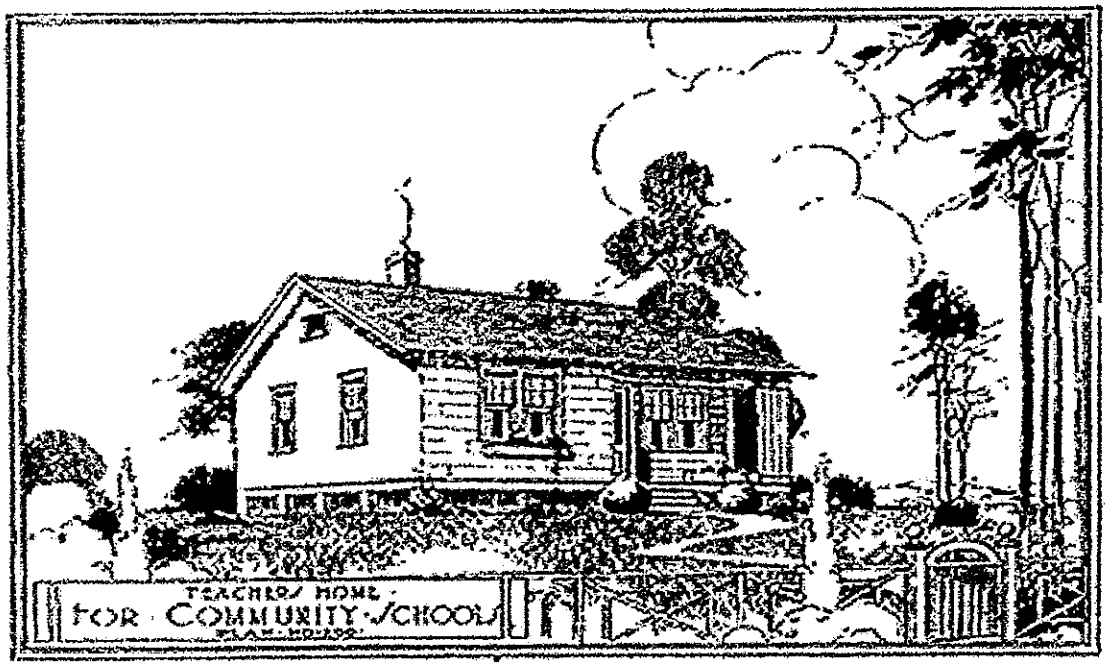
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Seven Teacher School Facing North and South, Community School Plan, 22 of 26.

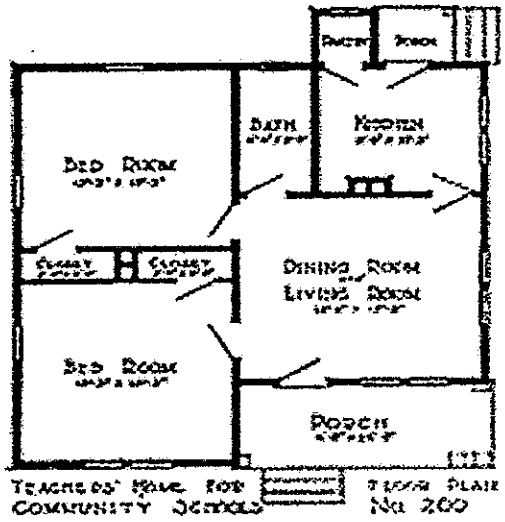




FLOOR PLAN NO 7
SEVEN TEACHER COMMUNITY SCHOOL

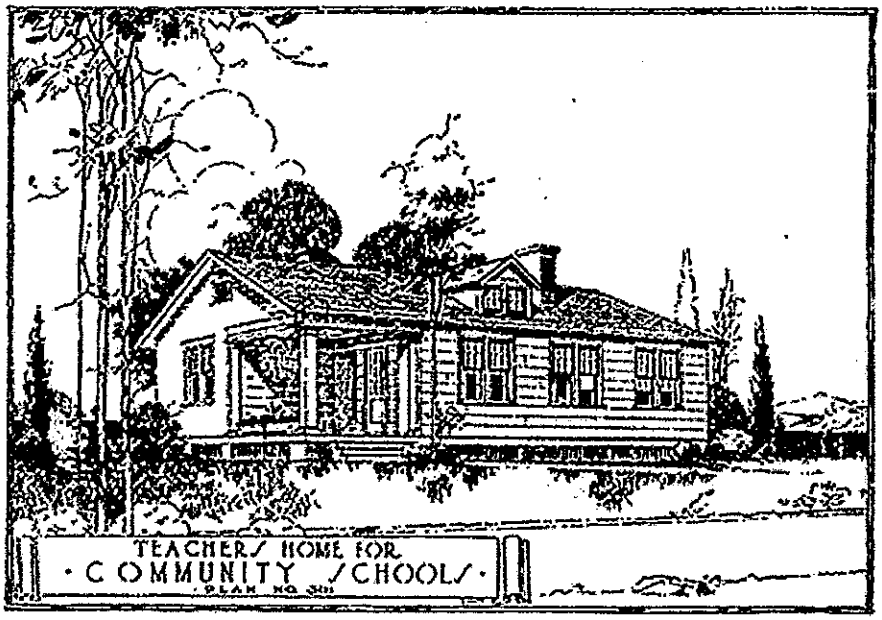
ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Seven Teacher School Facing East or West, Community School Plan, 23 of 26.

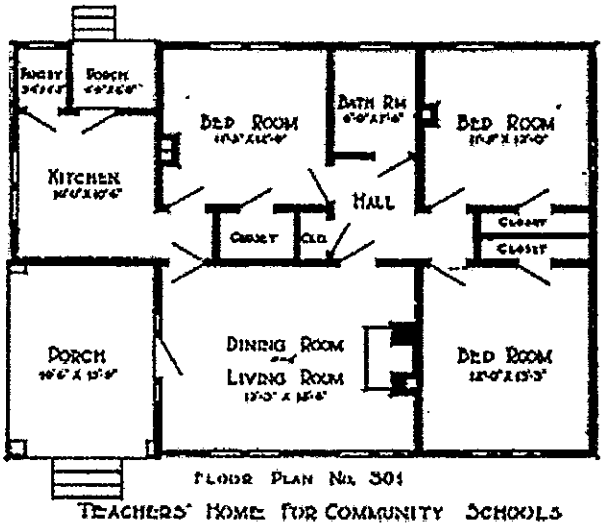




ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Teachers' Home—Two Bedroom, Community School Plan, 24 of 26.

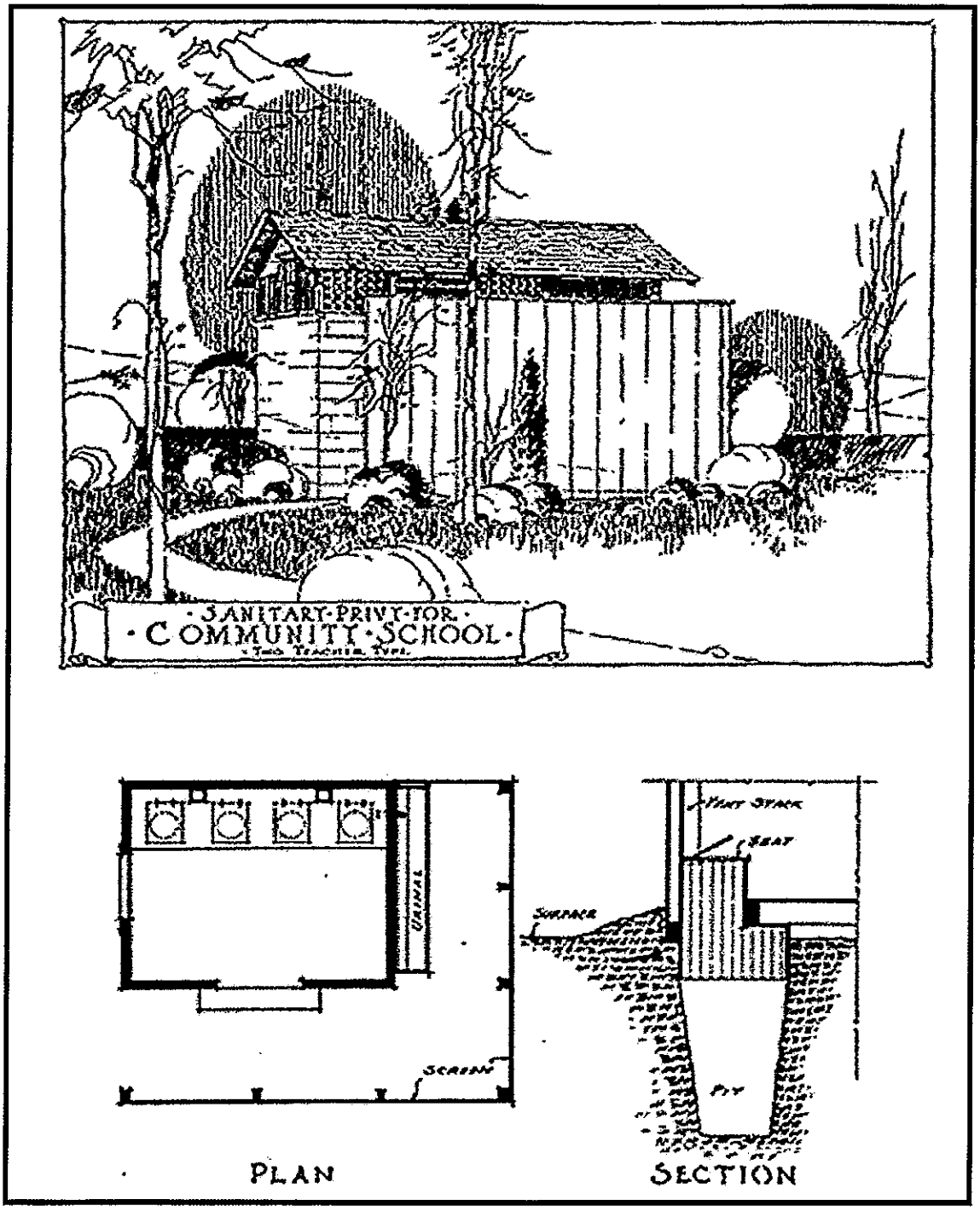
TEACHERS' HOME FOR COMMUNITY SCHOOLS





FLOOR PLAN No. 301
TEACHERS' HOME FOR COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Teachers' Home—Three Bedroom, Community School Plan, 25 of 26.



ROSENWALD SCHOOLS IN GEORGIA, ATTACHMENT TWO: Privy Plans for Two Teacher School, Community School Plan, 26 of 26.