N.S. form 10-900-b
(June 1991)

OMB Approval No. 1024-0018

RECEIVED 2280
FEB 11 1999
NAT. REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
NATIONAL PARK SERVICE

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

cover

National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

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

_X_New Submission ___Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Indiana's Public Common and High Schools

B. Associated Historic Contexts

Indiana's Public Common and High Schools, 1816-1945.

C. Form Prepared By

name/title:	Paul C. Diebold, Architectural Historian		
organization:	Indiana Division of Historic Preservation and Archaeology	**date:**	12-15-98
street and number:	402 W. Washington St., Room 274	**telephone:**	317-232-1646
city or town:	Indianapolis **state:** IN	**zip code:**	46204

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 Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation. (_X_ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Signature and title of certifying official — Date: 2-1-99

Indiana Department of Natural Resources
State or Federal agency and bureau

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.

Edson H. Beall
Signature of the Keeper — Date: 3/12/99

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

Discuss each historic context listed in Section B.

See continuation sheets

F. Associated Property Types

I. Name of Property Type: *See continuation sheets*

II. Description

III. Significance

IV. Registration Requirements

See continuation sheets for additional property types.

G. Geographical Data

See continuation sheets.

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.

See continuation sheets.

I. Major Bibliographical References

See continuation sheets.

Primary location of additional documentation:

X	state historic preservation office	__	local government
__	other state agency	__	university
__	Federal agency	__	other

specify repository: _____

Section E - Statement of Historic Contexts

Context - Indiana's Public Common and High Schools, 1816-1945.

The development of a free public education system was among the most significant events in Hoosier politics and social history during the 19th century. Indiana was a curious blend of Yankee, upland South, French colonist and immigrant settler in the early 1800s, and the bringing together of such diverse groups to form a successful system reflects the temperament and changing attitudes of the average Indiana resident of the times. The development of the common schools also reflects how technology changed the average man's outlook on the role of education in daily life. This context study is focused on districts, buildings, and sites related to those levels of education provided free of charge by the state between the years 1816 - 1945. High schools, graded schools, and common schools, are the targeted property types of this paper. Colleges, universities, deaf, blind, or insane facilities, normal schools, or other post-high school facilities sponsored or funded by the state are not germane to this study, worthy as they are of further research. The types of properties associated with the two contexts presented here include the archetypal "one-room schoolhouse," graded elementary schools of two or more main rooms, and high schools, usually multi-room buildings. More discussion of property types follows the contexts.

The Land Ordinance of 1785 had set aside one section (16) in each surveyed township which could be used for educational purposes, or it could be sold and the funds used for education. "Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged," were the bold words of Article 3 of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, yet Indiana and her fledgling neighbors found the road to a systematic and free public education arduous. The framers of the State Constitution of 1816 followed in the footsteps of Northwest Ordinance. The 1816 document mandated a state wide common school system and a university which would be free to all, however; no time constraint was placed on this lofty goal. In the meantime, disinterest on the part of citizens and misuse of the funds available through the sale of the section 16 lands, among other things, thwarted the development of free public schools (Batchelder, 3). Citizens and administrators in Union Township, Vanderburgh County, were an exception to the rule. They have rented the fertile lands set aside for section 16 to local farmers for over 160 years. The proceeds still go toward education as intended; for building schools and awarding scholarships.

The 1816 Constitution called for a complete educational system, with common schools, seminaries, and a state university for higher learning. A number of common schools were created by citizens, and many counties created seminaries. The common schools struggled under a lack of funding, standards, and supervision. The seminaries were forced to charge tuition in spite of the spirit of the constitutional provision which called for the system to be free to all. In terms of physical resources of this time period, the seminary buildings are the best reminder of this early phase of public education in Indiana. Virtually no one-room schools or state university buildings remain from the pre-1852 time period.

The General Assembly passed an act in 1824 to encourage public schools in Indiana. The act provided for school districts, the right to establish schools, and the election of school district representatives to the township trustees (Esarey, 290). The act established the basic district school system, yet it provided no funding. The "subscription" method of funding, whereby parents of students paid a yearly fee of about $1.25 per pupil was the only technique to fund schools until the late 1840s and 1850s. Black children were left with nothing in the way of opportunity from these proposals. Although some communities may have accepted blacks into public schools, it was not until 1869 that the General Assembly specifically mandated that Hoosiers provide blacks with free public schools.

Progressive minded educators, or, schoolmen, as they were called, were annoyed at Indiana's lack of progress in the early 1800s. They pointed to the fact that the 1840 census showed that one of seven Hoosiers was illiterate (highest of all in the former Northwest Territory); that less than 18% of eligible children attended school; and that the rate of illiteracy was below three slave-holding states. In 1840, the state reported that some 48, 189 students were receiving some degree of education in the state's 1521 schools, well below one-third of the 273,784 persons ages 5 -20 who were eligible to attend (Superintendent's *Report*).

The schoolmen began to press for reform. Governor Noah Noble co-chaired the first of a series of meetings held by the "Friends of Common Education" in 1837. They proposed adoption of many aspects of the Prussian school system, including a Board of Public Instruction, examinations for teachers by local authorities, and a common curriculum of reading, writing, English, geography and arithmetic.

The so-called schoolmen were a minority at the time. These well-educated and often Yankee-born men were convinced that Indiana needed a free education to inculcate not only the benefits of knowledge and reason, but sound morals and proper behavior as well. Several authors note that those most likely to resist state-sponsored education were often raised in the ways of the South. The South had few if any tradition of state-sponsored schools, instead, local government or private institutions filled the niche. Many transplanted Southerners or descendants of Southerners therefore distrusted a state-controlled and funded system. The overall feeling was not that education was frivolous per se, but that carving a state from the wilderness took precedent. Farmers, who constituted the majority of the population, often saw little benefit in making education a necessity, since schooling seemed to train youth for a future in commercial enterprises rather than farming. Cayton and Onuf cite the spread of industrialism and railroads, which slowly changed the economy from subsistence farming to a surplus, mercantile based one as a major factor in changing public opinion (Cayton and Onuf, 59-60). In other words, the more common folk realized the monetary advantages of "school smarts," and that a state-funded system was the best way to accomplish that goal, they were won to the cause.

The schoolmen had to win over the Indiana General Assembly, which then as now, proved to be a formidable task. The Assembly at first took no action but recommended to Mills and the schoolmen that they hold an education convention. A meeting was held in 1847 and elected Calvin Fletcher, Amory Kinney, and O.H. Smith to present an education bill to the Assembly. Fletcher was a shrewd banker and land holder in the early capitol city, living on the near southside of town. Caleb Mills was a New

Hampshire born, Dartmouth graduate who had settled in Crawfordsville to teach at the new Wabash College in 1833. He is often cited as the most prominent schoolman of 19th century Indiana. Mills wrote a series of addresses to the General Assembly in the 1840s, pressing for reform and funding.

The General Assembly did pass an act in 1843 authorizing county circuit courts to appoint persons to test local school teachers. The same act created a State Superintendent of Common Schools, the duties of which were performed by the State Treasurer. The new Superintendent prepared annual reports to the Assembly, maintained the school fund, and was to work for improvement of the common schools. The 1843 law paid much attention to the management of school funds and sale of section 16 lands. Legislators and citizens often complained about mismanagement of the school fund at this time.

The long planned redrafting of the Indiana Constitution in 1851 provided an opportunity for educational reformers to assert their ideas on free public education. Following an 1848 state referendum that had favored free schools, the General Assembly passed an 1849 school law that mandated a state and local tax-supported educational system for Indiana, on a county by county basis.

Framers of the 1851 Constitution did heed some of the cries of the school activists. The new Constitution repeated the strong words of the original 1816 Constitution, and called for a free common school system. However, the new Constitution backed away from providing state funded high schools or colleges, providing for only a common school system. Following the mandate of the new Constitution, officials established a State Superintendent of Public Instruction and State Board of Education. Both entities were to oversee the certification of teachers, and system of civil township trustees to inspect schools and manage funds for improvements and teacher salaries. Mills and the educators pushed for more changes, and the General Assembly did pass the "school law" in 1852 which promoted further the township school system and provided some limited funding. Richard Boone notes that a number of schoolhouses were built soon after 1852, but it was not until after the Civil War that Indiana had a uniform, free, rural district school system in place, according to Madison (114).

In the eyes of the schoolmen, some progress was made after the passing of the 1852 school code, between 1852-1857. Batchelder cites the fact that over 2,700 district schools were built, and that only fifteen percent of the state's 7,000 districts were without schools (Batchelder, p. 20, also see generally, *Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction* for 1858). Caleb Mills, then the State Superintendent in the early 1850s, called for at least 3, 500 new schools in 1853. School attendance did rise statewide in the 1850s, from 161, 536 in 1855 to 297, 882 in 1858. Indiana was growing, and interest in the free schools was outstripping the available resources. But Mills was not to receive the amount of new school districts he coveted.

The focus of the debate in developing a free statewide school system was often funding and local control of raising taxes for funding schools. The 1852 school law allowed local governmental units to tax private property for school buildings and to lengthen the school year beyond what the State would provide for salaries and expenses. While incorporated villages, towns, and cities clearly had this power, extending it to the rural townships was new and untried. Rural and urban property owners sued for relief from taxes

almost immediately. The new State Constitution, they argued, called for a "uniform" school system, and the fact that some areas were extending more benefits than others violated the Constitution. In *Greencastle Township in Putnam County and Kerchval, County Treasurer et. al. v. Black,* the 1854 State Supreme Court was left with the task of deciding if the new system met the challenge. In their decision the Justices stated:

> The inhabitants of one county or township should not be compelled to bear greater burdens than are borne by all. Again: if the provisions of section 130 are to be regarded as constitutional, the uniformity of the common school system would be at once destroyed. (5 Ind Porter 563-564)

The Black ruling left rural school districts with only State funding for tuition and school buildings. Township administrators did what they could with the funds, ordering log or simple wood frame buildings for districts, and holding limited school years.

Once again, in 1857, in *City of Lafayette and Martin, County Treasurer v. Jennings*, the State Supreme Court was appealed to reverse lower court decisions against school funding. In this case, the court decided that cities or towns do have the right to assess taxes for school buildings, but they do not have the right to tax for school tuition (and therefore for additional teachers):

> It may be observed that the constitutional restraint applies only to moneys raised for tuition. Municipal corporations may be authorized to raise money by taxation to build school-houses, &c.; but perhaps, the assessment should only be for the specific object. Money cannot be raised to pay the salary of teachers. (10 Ind Tanner 73)

Therefore, on the one hand, rural schools were limited to using only state funds, while Indiana's burgeoning cities could build schools, yet could not hire teachers via taxes to staff them. In light of this, cities were limited in providing a free education to their citizens. Some cities did without schools for a few years. William P Heath of Lafayette, writing to his brother in 1858, stated that "Our public schools has (sic) been stopped for want of a tax to carry them." (William P. Heath Collection, Indiana Historical Society, also see Batchelder, p.23). Lafayette and other school districts had to charge pupils tuition, which obviously left many out of a public system. Private schools filled a significant gap during this time in the 19th century, but, they could not educate Indiana's exponentially increasing population. Much of that increasing population, especially in the 1850s, were immigrants from Germany. They were accustomed to state supported free education.

In the meantime, the nation was facing a Civil War. School progress was hampered as Hoosiers bickered over how much to support the Union cause. In 1861, most public schools were in session for only forty-five days, and one-fourth of the districts in the state had no free schools. Despite the lack of funding, Hoosiers managed to build 600 new schools in 1862 (*Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction*, 1882, p. 11). Indiana's strong "Copperhead" contingent held the Statehouse hostage, blocking votes of financial support for the war. Governor Morton and other supporters pledged personal funds to back many Indiana

regiments. Morgan's Raid of southern Indiana turned many away from the Confederate cause. In short, the war helped unite public opinion in Indiana. Furthermore, Indiana emerged with strong industries and prospering farms.

Indiana had entered the Union cause during the Civil War, yet, the average Euro-American Hoosier was not always receptive to the rights of African-Americans. The General Assembly had attempted to limit the numbers of blacks entering and settling in Indiana before the war, and had passed a fugitive slave act allowing slave holders to cross into Indiana after runaway slaves. Harboring a slave was an offense as well. Existence, much less education, was difficult for Indiana's blacks during the 19th century. Some communities tolerated African-Americans in their schools. Typically, these were found where a strong Quaker presence allowed greater freedom. Richmond, parts of Rush County, and other areas of eastern Indiana were Quaker strongholds. It was not until 1869, however, that the Indiana General Assembly recognized the need to provide black neighborhoods and communities with public free schools of their own. At that, the mandate was more to separate blacks from whites than to provide schools per se. The act stated that trustees are encouraged to create separate schools from one or more district areas if "sufficient numbers" of African-Americans resided together. If not, "other means" of education could be used. In the 1875-76 *Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction*, officials noticed that this could mean tuition at a private school, or simply providing books.

Despite a system with plenty of room for misuse, African-Americans seemed to be conscientious about educating their young. Within five years of the law, 6,651 black students were enrolled in Indiana's public common schools, 68% of the number eligible to attend. Several known African-American schools are found in Corydon in Harrison County (Leora Brown School); Carthage in Rush County, Booker T. Washington School in Rushville, Rush County (NR, 1990); another school of the same name in Rockville; Lyles Station School in Gibson County; and several in Indianapolis. As time unfolded, concerns of racial interaction spurred Euro-Americans to seek separate facilities for blacks. Especially during the time of the Ku Klux Klan's power in Indiana in the 1920s, communities either pressured blacks into separate schools or defined district boundaries so as to do so.

African-American schools reflected the close-knit communities that developed around them. Teachers were drawn from the community and tended to stay with the school for long periods of time. The buildings often became meeting places for African-American clubs, groups, or other activities, including church services.

After the Civil War, the schoolmen pressed the General Assembly for school progress. In 1865, the General Assembly passed an act that specifically reworded the authority of rural school districts and municipalities to tax for educational purposes. In 1867, another act allowed for longer terms under tax support. While these laws were challenged far and wide, this time, public opinion had turned the tables. Most lower courts upheld the constitutionality of the 1867 law. An 1873 law broadened the scope of local officials to collect taxes for old debts and doubled funding for schools.

When the Supreme Court finally herd a challenging case in 1885 (*Robinson, Treasurer v. Schenck*, 102 Ind Kern 307-321), the justices' opinion reflected the will of a majority of Hoosiers. The opinion hints that

public sentiment favors free education and they concluded: "An interpretation of the Constitution which frustrates one of its great and fundamental purposes can not be a sound one." They reaffirmed the authority of municipalities and rural school districts to tax for both tuition and school buildings. Furthermore, they assessed the great strides education made in just under two decades: "...the (present) system which has prevailed for eighteen years has carried our schools to a high state of prosperity and usefulness..."

Indeed, it had. By the late 1870s, some 500,000 pupils annually were enrolled in Indiana's common school system. In 1882 alone, Hoosiers staffed, equipped and built 499 new schoolhouses. Although more were built in the year 1862, these 1882 schools were brick buildings with three times the value (average cost in the 1870s for a schoolhouse was $1,500.00 as compared to $500.00 in the 1860s). By the 1880s, rural and urban schools in Indiana were sources of pride. Township trustees had builders inscribe their names on cornerstones or tablets of these new brick schools. The younger counties in Northern Indiana were quick to embrace the free school system.

Districts were administered by trustees for each civil township, who in turn reported to a county superintendent. Each county superintendent reported to the state superintendent of public instruction. Teachers and superintendents were required to pass periodic examinations. The cornerstone of the system was the district school, which created a decentralized network of schools. The system brought education to where the people lived. Township trustees were given the task of choosing school locations that provided rural areas with the most access to the system. Well-respected citizens were often eager to serve as a township trustee. Being a conscientious trustee was hard work. Lewis Mullin, trustee of Rock Creek Township in Carroll County, kept detailed accounts of his travels to inspect area schools, amounts spent on buying building materials for new schools, and the sale of old frame schoolhouses after new buildings were constructed (Mullin). Poor roads and lack of other means of transportation meant that schools had to be within about mile of the pupils they served, often on lands donated by local farmers.

From uncertain beginnings in the early 1800s, the school system progressed rapidly in the late decades of the nineteenth century. As William Lynch states, public attention was focused on education in Indiana and vast strides allowed a complete educational system to be established in the brief span of 1870-1890. Lynch called the period 'The Great Awakening" in the history of public education in Indiana.

By the time Lynch penned these words, the district school system was already being changed. Educators called for school consolidation in the 1890s, and some areas of Indiana were responding. The north central, east and northern counties of Indiana were the first to respond to the idea of consolidation. Southern Indiana citizens, who were the most opposed to the creation of free state funded schools, clung hard and fast to their rural, ungraded schools right up to the eve of World War II in some cases. Perhaps this harkens to the reasons their great grandparents gave in opposition to free schools. Free schools at first threatened their control over spending and education. Once used to the amount of local control that the one-room, district school inherently had, they did not wish to give them up. Economics no doubt played a role in some rural southern Indiana communities, where falling farm prices in the 1900s were exasperated by marginal farming conditions to begin with. Trustees must have found that raising local taxes for new

schools was difficult under the circumstances. In Morgan County, a number of rural one-room schools were in use during the 1920s and 30s. In Jefferson County near Madison, a stone one room school built in 1869 was closed only when the Federal authorities forced the issue by purchasing the land for Jefferson Proving Ground in 1941. Oakdale School (NR, 1993), as it was named, might have served through the war years had it not been bought along with thousands of acres.

Once abandoned, the smaller district schools took on new lives as residences, farm storage buildings, or churches. Many remain to illustrate one of Indiana's greatest public debates and greatest public work efforts. As Hoosiers in city and town struggle over the principles of free education into the next century, these buildings and places remain as a silent testament to how past generations grappled with education. Perhaps they still hold many lessons about the values of democracy and public education for us today.

Reading, Writing, and 'rithmatic

The curriculum in the early rural schools was naturally limited to a few subjects. Schools were ungraded; no separation on account of age or years of education was given. Boys and girls were often divided into different halves of the room, in accordance with Victorian social mores. Reading, math, spelling, and grammar were common subjects. Depending on the talents of the teacher, history or other studies might be offered. Chalk and tablets for writing lessons instead of costly paper were the norm. Recitation was a common form of learning; with teachers cuing the class to repeat lessons and readings aloud. McGuffey readers, Webster spellers, and simple math books were used for multiple classes since books were costly.

The early school environment was harsh. Crude desks, inadequate windows, and fireplaces for heat made the school a barren place. The outhouse was a fact of life, with his and hers houses provided behind the building. As time progressed, catalog schoolhouse furniture offered better comfort. Iron stoves could be placed in the center of the room for more uniform heat. Larger windows made lighting better and schoolhouses more comfortable in warm weather. Mass produced maps, charts, and other accessories made lessons more accessible and memorable for pupils.

But by and large, the experience of the pupil in the 1850s was not too different from those of the 1870s. The average length of a school year was 120 days by the late 1870s. Core course work continued to be reading, spelling, writing, English grammar, arithmetic, geography, Physiology, and U.S. History. In Adams County, graded schools were being introduced in rural areas. The same one-room buildings must have been in use, with perhaps pupils grouped by grade. First graders used slates and paper to write lessons, and memorized lessons were repeated daily. The teacher divided his or her time among each of six grades, working about fifty minutes per day directly with each grade, as the other grades focused on reading or written assignments. No mention of the brand name of texts is made in Superintendents Reports, but a series of readers and writing books are mentioned, with up to seven levels for the writing books. Jasper County began grading its rural schools in 1873. Township Superintendent J.H. Snoddy devised a system of four sessions per day to accommodate the differing materials for each grade in the one-room schools. Other student not being directly taught at a given session were to perform written or reading work. His system seemed to include five grades, and Snoddy required all teachers in the county to agree

to use the program as part of their teaching contract.

Recess was part of the daily routine; even rural schoolhouses had yards for play and recreation. Shade trees were sometimes planted as a class exercise, or in northern counties, to form a windbreak or hedgerow.

Attendance was a private concern at first. Ages 5 to 15 were most common; some attended in winter only for several years, others attended beyond age 15.

Schoolhouses often doubled as places of entertainment and social gatherings. Many were used as convenient polling places, as many public schools are today. The spelling bee was a common form of both education and entertainment. At the end of a term, the schoolmaster might hold a bee and invite the public to try their hand as well. In some communities, term examinations were open to public scrutiny.

Teaching was at first a profession for young men. Salaries were meager, frequently room and board were part of the payment. Teachers traveled from district to district to secure better pay or living quarters. Few if any credentials were needed to teach. It was not until 1833 that the state required teachers to be examined for proficiency in core subjects. Even then, uniform application of such exams were sporadic at best, nonexistent in many cases.

Women entered teaching in Indiana by the 1850s, and came to have a significant impact numerically during the late 19th century. Teaching was considered a "proper" profession for young women; in many cases, trustees were willing to hire women since they could pay them less.

During the 1870s and 80s, state and local officials tightened teaching requirements. Local trustees asked for a State Certificate for new teachers. Prospective teachers had to pass an exam covering state school laws, the U.S. Constitution, natural philosophy, writing composition, and morals. Beyond this, the examiner had to determine if the teacher had "good moral character," professional ability, and twenty-seven months of teaching experience, at least nine of which in Indiana. Teachers who also passed another exam in algebra, plane geometry, botany, general history, rhetoric, and zoology received a "first grade" (as is first class) certificate from the State of Indiana. County Teacher's Institutes held by the County Superintendent became required in time. These were five day instruction courses in core subjects along with lectures and discussions on educational issues. By 1875, over 11,000 of Indiana's common school teachers attended these institutes annually.

The founding of normal schools played a significant role in creating professional teachers for Indiana. Normal schools had their roots in this country in the 1839, when the first normal school was established in Massachusetts. Educators realized the need to have uniform (hence "normal") teaching standards and courses. In 1865, the General Assembly funded a normal school for Indiana. Abraham Shortridge, superintendent of Indianapolis Public Schools, and chairman of the executive committee for the State Teacher's Association, had petitioned the Assembly for a normal school. The city that could offer $50,000.00 in support of such a school would be selected as the site, and Terre Haute won the bid. A

building was complete by 1870, and Indiana Normal School was established. The name was changed several times until in 1965, the trustees of the college chose Indiana Central University. The sole purpose of Indiana Normal was to train young men and women for teaching in Indiana's common schools.

The emphasis was on the fundamentals: writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, history and natural science. Once completely through the program, student received a certificate to teach in Indiana, and not a degree. Indiana Normal did not confer degrees until the 1920s. Enrollment at Indiana Normal was 70 in 1872, but increased to 400 annually in the 1880s and 90s. Students at Indiana Normal learned by doing, teaching at a "model school" on campus. In 1918, the current Ball State University became the Eastern Division of the Indiana Normal School. Enrollment pushed into the range of 1,000 annually by the 1920s. The effect of the normal schools both in Indiana and in other states from which Indiana teachers came, created a highly professional corps of teachers. It improved standards of teaching in rural schools.

Consolidation, Graded Schools and High Schools

While Indiana's district system stood complete at the turn of the century, educational leaders had already realized that changes were needed. Teachers realized that to increase the potential for learning, children needed to be separated by ability. To grade school children properly required larger classes in order to justify having one teacher per grade, or at least one for several grades. The one-room school districts had to be consolidated in order to provide graded schools. State Superintendent David Geeting officially called for consolidation and the closing of one-room schools in 1898 (Report, 1897-98, p. 35). Geeting cited graded schools, improved buildings, and long term cost reductions to local districts as the advantages. Graded schools were permitted under the flurry of legislation passed in the 1870s, but local trustees and citizens were not always receptive to the idea. Some had just completed schools and opened districts a decade before. Consolidation could mean losing local control and some feared the greater costs. Two other factors favored consolidation: Indiana's population was becoming more urban than rural; by 1920, Indiana was officially a state of predominantly city dwellers. Improved transportation made greater travel times to schools feasible. Better bridges and graveled roads made the shiny black school hack a common sight in rural Indiana. The General Assembly gave funds to local districts for transportation of students starting in 1899.

Geeting's remarks may have been the first official call to consolidation, but forty of Indiana's 92 counties had already begun some degree of consolidation. Wabash County, for example, was well under way with creating four to six room buildings that consolidated about five one-room schools. Between 1890 and 1900, half of the 8,000 one-room district schools were eliminated by consolidation. Educators lobbied the Indiana General Assembly for more uniform school attendance, and in 1897, the Assembly passed a compulsory education law requiring all children ages 6 to 14 to attend public or private schools. This legislation increased enrollment significantly, contributing to the need for larger joint township schools and high schools.

The final blow to the one-room school came in 1907, when the General Assembly gave the State Superintendent the means to close districts where attendance was under 12 pupils. Compulsory education

was extended to age 16 in 1913, providing more need for local high schools. School consolidation was a significant factor in the history of Indiana. It signaled the population decline of rural Indiana as well as the maturity and growing homogenous character of the state. The trend of consolidation was never fully abandoned, as today, rural Indiana school districts cover multiple townships and clamor for even larger facilities to handle the need.

The locations of rural consolidated schools were carefully considered. If at all possible, the state recommended small towns or villages as school sites, due to the greater educational opportunities they offered. In other cases, selecting a central location within easy travel of the other to-be-closed district one-room schools was the answer. Consolidated schools reflected the concept of grading, with multiple rooms and usually at least two floors. Trustees could build substantial masonry buildings because the funding of several former districts were now at their disposal. Consolidation also permitted urban school districts to expand into suburban areas.

As Indiana's cities grew, officials struggled to meet the needs of the people. Gary, Indiana for example, was established in 1907 and became a city of thousands overnight. Yet Gary had a relatively complete school system with large elementary schools and a high school before World War I. Gary school officials created special programs to "Americanize" the largely immigrant work force settling there, including remedial English and American History. By 1910, prominent educator William Wirt created a "platoon" system for Gary's schools that took full advantage of each building by allowing half the students of a school to be in physical education or technical training while the other half were in regular classes. Wirt's platoon system was widely praised. Other Indiana cities had their own ideas of progress. Indianapolis and South Bend had manual labor (skilled trades) programs, for example, and special rooms or schools for them. All of Indiana's major cities had fully graded elementary schools before 1914.

School consolidation was nearly complete in Indiana by 1918, though as mentioned, some rural areas retained their one room schools. Even in 1900, Daviess County still had 161 one-room schools, a few remained even in the 'teens. The 1920s were prosperous times for Indiana, and many older 1890s consolidated schools were closed for even larger facilities. The next wave of school consolidation would not come until federal intervention in the mid 1930s. Work Progress Administration funds permitted many urban school districts to enlarge facilities or build new schools. Not until after World War II would the free public schools in Indiana grow to the extent that they had from 1890 to 1930.

Aside from consolidated elementary level schools, joint districting greatly encouraged high schools. Training beyond the one-room school's confines in early to mid 19th century Indiana typically meant going to the county seminary. The seminaries were mandated as part of the 1816 Indiana Constitution and were reinforced by the 1824 school act. The seminaries were a general type of secondary education before the 1852 school act changed the public education system. Funding was established through the state and local authorities could collect fines assessed under penal laws and under fines for refusing military service. Local officials were ambivalent about collecting the fines. The public funding never proved fully adequate to create a complete network of seminaries.

However, seventy-one counties built seminaries before 1852. Marion County Seminary was located on the grounds of present day University Park, for example. Brookville has an 1828 seminary building that later served as an elementary school. Seminaries, like many common schools in antebellum Indiana, often had to charge tuition to students. The seminary system was hampered by a lack of organization and accountability. Each county had its own system for managing and collecting funds, and it was not until 1832 that a uniform course of studies was finalized statewide. The General Assembly's 1832 act established the curriculum and also instated a system of supervision for the seminary funds. Still, the seminaries struggled to equal the private seminaries, who boasted better organization and years of experience. No new public seminaries were being built after 1843, while private schools filled this need. Seminaries did not admit girls, another niche filled by some fourteen private girl's schools before 1851 in Indiana.

In 1852, the state ceased funding for seminaries, effectively ending this early phase of public education in Indiana. Local school districts often assumed control of the seminary buildings and used them for elementary or high schools.

A number of communities established free high schools in the 1870s and 80s. Indianapolis, Shelbyville, and Greenfield established high schools by 1880. Outside of larger urban areas, the need for high school was a hard sell to farming families who needed young men and women during harvest and planting seasons. The state hoped to encourage high schools by commissioning schools. Pupils who graduated from commissioned high schools were accepted without further question at Indiana University or Purdue University. In 1873, the State Board of Public Instruction began to commission high schools. The Indiana University trustees decided to admit graduates of the first twenty-one commissioned high schools. More high schools sought commissioning in the 1880s as both universities were beginning to have sizable enrollments. Goshen had a commissioned high school in 1885, Connersville in 1887, and Liberty, also in 1887. By 1900, over 150 Hoosier school districts - mostly towns and cities - ran commissioned high schools. Only a handful of these existing at the time were commissioned before 1890.

The compulsory laws of 1897 and 1913 dramatically increased the number of high schools. Many communities scrambled to pull together funds to build new schools. New Palestine, for example, had a three year high school in a four room brick building by 1895. But within fifteen years, enrollment doubled to 425 students and the town school trustees built a new multi-room building in 1916.

By the time of the Depression, a high school education was a commonly accepted fact of life anywhere in Indiana. Most townships had their own high school, often located in the biggest village or town within its boundaries. Cities had thriving school districts with high schools to serve various sides of town. In larger towns, segregation was common practice in high schools as in elementary schools. Crispus Attucks High School in Indianapolis, for example, was forced on the black community of the city in 1927. Although a fine facility, eligible black children from all parts of town were removed from their current district and sent to Attucks regardless of their family's wishes. Segregation remained an issue in Hoosier cities until just after World War II, and even then, citizens and officials often thwarted attempts at desegregation. It remains a bone of contention today in major urban areas in Indiana.

High School Days

Course of studies in Indiana's high schools were ill-defined in the 19th century. With so few in existence and more effort focusing on elementary level education, trustees or teachers were left to define course work. The coming of the compulsory education laws changed this. In 1900, state officials outlined a curriculum for rural and urban high schools. A two year course of studies was recommended for rural high schools with few resources (the compulsory law was good up through age 14 at the time). Urban pupils needed to earn 32 credits to graduate over a four year program, with 5 3/5 credits in language, 5 3/5 in math, 7 1/5 in English, 4 in science, 5 3/5 in history, and 4 elective credits. Recitations were still part of the curriculum, but only to a small degree.

Fassett Cotton was the State Superintendent of Public Instruction from 1903-1909. He aggressively pursued consolidation and was equally interested in secondary education. Under Cotton's leadership, the number of high schools in Indiana expanded to 507 by 1908. Though Latin and Greek were often a part of the curriculum in Indiana high schools, Cotton reflected the tenants of educational philosopher John Dewey, who called for practical teachings in high schools. Cotton stated:

> The high school must be thought of in relation to the community and not in relation to the college...it is the finishing school for a very large majority of the people who go beyond the common school branches; in other words, it is the people's college. (Cotton).

During the 1920s, the state required would-be high school graduates to pass an exit examination to receive a diploma. In addition to basic language and math skills, the test required problem solving. One question required students to calculate the number of eggs a farmer needed to sell to turn a profit, granted certain expenses and a certain percentage damaged in shipping. Another required the student to prepare a short resume and a letter outlining their personal skills to a prospective employer, a railroad depot manager.

Hoosier Hysteria

A peculiar institution to Indiana's educational scene developed hand-in-hand with the establishment of high schools. The Indiana State High School Athletic Association created the Indiana high school basketball championship tournament in 1911. Called "Hoosier Hysteria," it quickly became an Indiana obsession. Most states had similar tournaments, but in Indiana, the competition was fierce and tournaments became major social events. The tournament was statewide and open to all regular white high schools.

The appeal of basketball was undeniable in Indiana, where dark and drab winters encouraged indoor games. Basketball was inexpensive to equip, and a five man team could be fielded by the smallest of schools. It appealed to the American love of the underdog; because the smallest school stood an even chance to win.

Having a high school became not only a mark of progress, it became a source of free entertainment and an economic boon to small towns from visitors during tournaments. Bitter rivalries among neighboring

towns fueled the fever. Hoosier Hysteria probably did more to gain local acceptance of high schools than any state official ever could.

Gymnasia became essential parts of high schools. Championship team Martinsville High School drew crowds so large, that in 1923, the school board funded a new 5,000 person capacity gym. The first gyms were barn-like wood frame affairs, but by the 'teens, school boards were hiring architects to design basketball palaces. Even elementary schools began to incorporate gyms into their design after World War I. Schools that could not afford gyms played where ever they could. One school reportedly used a vacant floor of a bank building on the courthouse square, even though it meant that the playing floor was L-shaped. From its construction in 1928, Butler Fieldhouse in Indianapolis (NHL, 1983) became the home to the state championship final game.

In 1943, African-American schools and Catholic schools were finally allowed to participate in Hoosier Hysteria. Eager to achieve, the black high schools quickly earned a formidable reputation. Attucks (Indianapolis) took home the championship in 1951.

Though the state's free public high schools engaged in other sports including football and track, basketball was by far the most popular sport. The Indiana State High School Athletic Association terminated Hoosier Hysteria several years ago in favor of several class-based championships, with a playoff between the finalists.

F. Associated Property Types

1. The One-Room Schoolhouse

Description

Few cultural icons so completely illustrate and embody the historical trend that created them as the one room school. A basic definition of the one-room school is a one story building, made for educational purposes, with only one classroom. Incidental storage rooms were often part of the floor plan. Most existing one-room schools date from the 1852-1910 period and reflect both vernacular and architect-style influences.

One-room schools developed out of the vernacular building traditions of Anglo-American settlers, the same gable roofed, rectangular box with a temple-front orientation was used in for churches, schools, town halls, and other public or semi-public buildings on the frontier. Its origins can be found in the simple proportions of the single-pen house, however, the change in orientation to a front gabled form was likely a functional consideration, allowing the main room to remain a single large volume with uniform window distribution. The symmetrical gable-front box also probably appealed to citizens and builders because it approximated a classical appearance. Even well after the settlement era in Indiana, the gable-front schoolhouse remained a dominant form.

The gable-front school began as a vernacular tradition, but architects latched onto the form by the mid-19th

century and propagated it in building pattern books. The 1853 Superintendent's *Report* for Indiana recommended adaptations of Gothic or Italian for schools. The author (possibly Caleb Mills) also called for schools to emulate the simple bracketed cottages of A.J. Downing. Samuel Sloan published a design for a twelve room brick classical gable fronted school in his 1852 *Model Architect.* Sloan's design was a multiplicative expansion of the one-room school. James Johonnot's *School-Houses* of 1871 featured school houses by S.E. Hewes. While despising the one-room schools of previous generations, Hewes recommended updated designs with antechambers for storage and cloakrooms. Several of Hewes' plans were gable-front schools, while others were T-shaped or had other configurations and stylish Gothic or Italianate decoration. The State Superintendent's office did not recommend exterior treatments, other than to say they should be substantial and well built. The 1875 *Report* did include a recommended floor plan, a simple box with ante rooms for the entrance and cloakrooms. This plan conforms to a gable-fronted exterior by way of its window and door placement. The 1875 plan featured a heating stove, along with a discussion of proper ventilation for schools. Large windows were thought to be important not only for light, but for ridding schools of stale (exhaled) air. Stoves often did not pull fresh air from the outside to heat; it was not until the 1890s that schoolhouse designs recommended in Indiana featured a furnace room with duct or vents to draw air from the outside. The earliest designs used cellar grilles to admit air to a basement level furnace.

Siting was a very significant part of planning a schoolhouse. Land near the highest number of intended pupils was essential. Beyond this, builders gave careful planning to window placement in relation to natural light. Flanks of gable-front schools had banks of large double-hung windows, so that lighting typically came from due east or due west. 19th century educators believed that cross lighting was harmful to the eye. Some planners or trustees understood the benefits of steady northern facing natural light and oriented schools to have a bank of windows facing north. Without exception, one-room schools were placed to be square with the cardinal compass points. Unless site constrictions necessitated it, schools were usually set back from the road and provisions were usually made for a playground. Shade trees or a windbreak might be planted along a western property line. Care should be taken in nominating schools to include these elements because they contribute to the setting of the building.

Exteriors of one-room schools were simple. Materials could be log construction, heavy timber with wood clapboard construction, balloon frame with clapboard, or solid masonry. Round log or hewn log schools were the first generation of school buildings in Indiana. None are known to survive with any integrity. Frame schools from the 1850s are rare, but a number survive. The early frame schools partake of the vernacular Greek Revival of the times, builders adding heavy cornice moldings to the exterior. Contractors used a few elaborations on the exterior of brick one-room schools. Segmental arched openings, oculus vents, and simple cornice brackets imitated vernacular Italianate residential details on these brick buildings.

Interiors of one-room schools were simple, vernacular spaces. Later one room schools had cloakrooms or storage closets. The main space was always the classroom. This simple open volume had rows of desks usually facing a blank back wall. Flat plaster walls and ceilings were typical. Ceilings were high, often twelve feet high, sometimes a plaster arched ceiling was installed. Later in the 1890s, pressed metal ceilings were original finish to some new schools. Very simple woodwork surrounded windows, sometimes carpenters installed a wood vertical board wainscot around the classroom. Blackboards were a necessity in

one-room schools since teachers depended on recitation of lessons as a major part of the learning experience. Blackboards often wrapped around part of the classroom's walls. Liquid slate, a form of tinted dense final coat plaster, was a builder's expedient for costly real slate.

In the 1870s and 1880s, builders and educators began to experiment with new forms for the one-room schools. As we have seen, the term "one-room" is a misnomer, only the earliest schools were truly one open room. By the 1860s, planners were making schools larger and placing internal partition walls across one end of the building to create a vestibule with boys and girls cloakrooms. Some school trustees bowed to social considerations by building schools with two front doors, one for each gender. In the later 1800s, the newer T-plan schoolhouses appear. Builders changed the orientation of the school, treating the vestibule/cloakroom as a separate unit, placed to the long side of the school room. On the exterior, the simplest form was two intersecting gabled blocks. Variations in roof form, height, size of the primary room, and other features depended on the builder and local conditions. Turning the orientation in this way allowed for fewer rows of desks, with longer rows. Pupils had an easier time viewing the blackboard, although lighting was a problem in the center of the room.

The one room form remained consistently in use for new schools even as consolidation was closing them in the 1900s. At least one one-room schoolhouse in Delaware County was constructed in the 1890s, only to be closed for a consolidated school within five years. Architects recommended some variation on the one-room plans. William Kaufmann, a Richmond, Indiana architect, published plans for a one-room building in the 1906 Report. Kaufmann's plan had a 25' x 32' classroom, with a bank of five large double -hung windows to the left of where students would sit. A separate foyer and cloakroom area was to the front, and an at-grade level furnace and fuel room was to the rear. The foyer, cloak and class rooms were raised above grade several feet. The furnace room had a chimney and a system of air ducts to draw in fresh air from the classroom and discharge warm air back into the classroom. Kauffman cloaked his design in Romanesque Revival detailing, with a fine broad entry arch and a few rock faced cut stone details. In 1900, Indianapolis architect Louis Gibson published plans for a one-room building commissioned by Owen County. Gibson, well known for his nationally-published house pattern books, Convenient Houses (1889) and Beautiful Houses (1895), gave the exterior of his design a simple Shingle Style appearance with half timbering in the gable ends and shingle wall cladding. Gibson made a continuous bank of windows across one entire wall, and special provisions for a furnace and ducting to spread the heat uniformly. This school apparently no longer survives but several others from around 1910 in Owen County reflect Gibson's ideas. The ideas that architects and state officials had fought for in one room schools were incorporated into consolidated schools.

The One-Room Schoolhouse-significance

Simply put, the one-room schoolhouse is the *sine qua non* of the district school system. It embodies the highly decentralized aspect of 19th century education in the Midwest in general, in Indiana specifically. It was the essential tool by which Hoosier citizens, local government officials and state education officials created a district school system under the 1852 school law and later provisions. The time frame of the significance of a given schoolhouse will vary from building to building, terminating with its closing as a free public school. One-room schools may have other areas of significance beyond education and architecture,

unrelated to this study. For example, a one-room school that was closed for educational purposes, but then served a significant role as a community center would have a period of significance that reflects its later role, if that use meets the National Register criteria. No known pre-1852 one-room schools with any level of integrity are known to survive; if found, they would be of exceptional historical significance in the history of education.

Survey studies have discovered over 700 one-room schools in Indiana (see methodology), the majority of these date from 1865 - 1900. The rate of attrition of one-room schools is evident if one considers that by 1900, over 8,000 one-room schools stood statewide. About one-third of the surviving one-room schools date from 1870-1885, a time of rapid expansion for the district schools statewide.

One-room schoolhouses eligible under the other considerations outlined in this report meet Criterion A for their local association with the history of education. The history of education in rural Indiana was a significant cultural and social trend; the schoolhouse is the single best physical reminder of how, where, and why Hoosiers educated their young.

Architectural significance for one-room schoolhouses is to a certain degree inherent in the building type. The form, materials and plan of the schools reflect significant vernacular traditions. Other schoolhouses may embody distinctive features of high style design. Those reflecting in a significant way state mandates for sanitation, lighting, or ventilation display yet another aspect of architectural significance. The extent to which any particular one-room schoolhouse meets Criterion C will depend on the local rarity of its plan, materials and general building type as a schoolhouse. For high style one-room buildings, significance is often reflected in the rarity of such examples of the style locally. The style-oriented exteriors of later one-class schools demonstrates the rise of the architect and government official as arbiter of taste, shifting away from vernacular and local building traditions.

The One-Room Schoolhouse-Registration Requirements

The nature and history of the one-room school define its registration requirements. The rural district school system focused on bring education to the most people possible. It was a local system to the extent possible and careful consideration was made to secure sites accessible to the most pupils in a given district. Therefore, **location** is a key factor in assessing the integrity of one-room schools. One-room schools should be in their original location to qualify for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Moved schools can only be considered if the school was moved to a site within the area it was intended to serve, and to a site that recreates the original location to greatest extent possible. Moving a schoolhouse from a rural setting to an urban or suburban one disqualifies the structure from listing; moving the building to proximity with other historic or non-historic buildings does not meet the intent of this nomination. The moved building should have been relocated en masse, without disassembling the structure to any great degree. A number of schoolhouses were moved after being replaced in the 19th century or after consolidation in the 20th century. These schools are in a somewhat different category, because their moving was part of school district's activities (disposing of old schools and using the funds for new ones). Moreover, these schools are often older, rarer examples of educational structures. If the school meets other considerations of integrity,

it may qualify if the school can be documented as being from the county in which it resides. County or township recognition is significant since the district system was based on these civil government boundaries.

Design is significant to one-room schools. The single room buildings should retain their massing, form, and pattern of openings to qualify. Because the one-room buildings have not been used for educational purposes for at least 50 years in some cases, closer to a century in other cases, some practical consideration must be applied to registration requirements. For example, it is unreasonable to rule out a school which has been converted to agricultural storage by cutting a large opening into the front or flank wall if the openings could otherwise be recreated and if the building otherwise would meet registration requirements. Windows were an important part of one-room schools, yet, granted the abandonment of rural schools, windows are often deteriorated beyond repair or non-existent. It is more important that the school retain as much of its pattern of openings as possible. Even though one-room schools have been obsolete for decades and some modifications are to be expected, buildings must have basic integrity. A ruin with no roof or a building which is more than 1/3 a reconstruction of a school due to severe deterioration does not qualify. A former educational site with no school does not qualify; playgrounds or other outdoor recreational sites adjacent to buildings should be included within the boundaries.

Interior integrity is a key aspect of schoolhouse design. The one-room schoolhouse must retain its single class space as an undivided volume with no partition walls. Conversion to other uses does not necessarily tarnish the historical significance of a single room school, so long as the class room remains intact. Other evidence of educational use should be intact; cloakrooms, chalkboards, distinctive ventilation devices if applicable all offer the modern-day viewer a chance to experience the past. Other accouterments, such as desks, tables, and stoves are not essential to convey integrity, however, if documented as belonging to the school, they do add to integrity of feeling.

Additions can severely change the simple appearance of one-room schools. Generally, one-room schools with large additions will not qualify for the Register. However, a small addition that does not overwhelm the simple plan of the one-room school may be acceptable.

Materials illustrate the physical construction techniques of schools. Masonry one-room buildings are typical, and the exterior masonry should be intact to qualify. A metal or artificially sided brick school, for example, would not qualify for listing. Frame schools are rare in Indiana, although vinyl or aluminum siding is not to be encouraged, an already sided building can qualify for listing, if it retains its pattern of openings, interior class space, and other considerations enumerated in this document. Offsetting the loss of wall building materials to plain view, window integrity is helpful toward qualification for listing. On the interior, finishes like plaster are likely to be deteriorated or replaced in many cases. The simple woodwork of schools is an important part of their character and should be in evidence.

Association is another key aspect of integrity of one-room schools. To qualify under this study, the school must be documented through professionally recognized research techniques as being a publicly funded, built, and maintained school. Church schools may qualify under other considerations, but unless the school was part of the state-funded district school system, it cannot qualify under this document. Church schools

which doubled as public schools may qualify if the school can be documented as being public (available to all, funded by the state) and the connection to the district system can be documented.

When nominating one-room schools, applicants should provide general background on the development of the district schools within their county and township. If possible, applicants should identify which schools existed in the area, and when the nominated property served its purpose as a free school. Any other trends, such as local school builders or local trustees involved in the construction of the school and others in the area provide historical background to the individual nomination.

2. County Seminaries

Description

The county seminaries were secondary educational buildings under the pre-1852 school mandates. Seminaries were typically brick vernacular buildings. Many resembled I-houses or double-pile houses of the time with internal differences for classrooms. The Franklin County Seminary in Brookville (1828, NR, 1974), is a classic example. It is a two story brick vernacular Federal building. The Franklin County example is also typical in terms of location. Since seminaries were part of the pre-1852 system, very few existed outside of central or southern Indiana. Especially in well-populated and early settled counties in the southeast corner of the state, along the Ohio River, seminaries may be located. Likely fewer than six with any reasonable integrity survive. Seminaries stand in Rockville (Parke County-located in the Rockville Historic District, NR, 1993), in Rushville, altered and enlarged (Rush County, in the Rushville Commercial Historic District, NR, 1993), and in Liberty (Union County).

County Seminaries-Significance

These early educational structures are often the earliest local government-built structures in their community. For their association with the history of free public education, seminaries meet Criterion A. These buildings generally will also meet Criterion C because of their age, rarity and use of vernacular forms for public functions. Seminaries were often better built and more significantly detailed than residential stock of the same era. County seminaries may also meet Criterion A because of their association with the implementation of the district school system. Many were converted to district school use, or because of their location in a town or village, citizens converted them to serve as urban free public schools. These second generation uses usually are a key to understanding the later development of public schools.

County Seminaries-Registration Requirements

Nominators should be able to demonstrate that the building in question was built for seminary educational purposes by using accepted methods of research and documentation. These public academies are rare in Indiana. The most obviously eligible examples will retain integrity of location and exterior appearance. Locational integrity is less crucial than for one-room schools, however, if a seminary has been moved to a setting inappropriate to its original location, or the new setting is artificial in nature (e.g., a recreated village),

the building will not qualify for National Register listing. Interior integrity is likely to be more problematic, due to conversions in use. At least one room should read as a classroom on the interior (regardless of redecoration or furnishings). Masonry buildings covered with siding have lost their original intent, but wood frame buildings covered in a appropriate type of artificial siding can qualify if other considerations are met.

3. Two or More Room Consolidated Rural and Urban Schools

Description

Beginning in the 1880s and 90s, school officials, architects, and builders developed a new generation of educational structures designed to handle the concept of consolidating and grading schools. This property type includes grade and high schools; there was little distinction architecturally between age uses in the school buildings themselves. About 542 of these multi-room school buildings survive in Indiana today. Many are lost each year (see methodology).

These buildings were nearly always solid brick, could be one or two stories in height, and often had architectural elaborations like bell towers with steeples. Architects incorporated educators' new ideas about lighting and ventilation into these often cubical massed buildings. Central furnaces with ducting for fresh air, large banks of double-hung windows, even electrical wiring for artificial light or piping for natural gas lights were part of these new schools. The trend to these multi-room schools continued into the 1920s and 30s, but the architectural forms changed. Schools of the 'teens and twenties were less vertical in plan, tending to have a central entry pavilion and wings extending away on either side. Windows filled entire walls of these later schools.

Wells County, Indiana, was prospering at the turn of the century thanks to the discovery of natural gas and oil. Local trustees embraced school consolidation and hired architects to carry out the means of combining student populations in one building. Local architect Charles Houck created a typical design of the era for the District School #9 or Africa School in 1910 (survey number 25044) for the Liberty Township trustees. The brick and limestone-trimmed building had three or four rooms in a one story section and an entry foyer with large 3 story bell tower above. Houck used a similar Romanesque Revival treatment on several of his Wells County schools. The Superintendent of Public Instruction Report of 1900 included a similar design for imitation by local administrators. Indianapolis architects Vonnegut and Bohn published plans for an eight-room school in the same report. The exterior was vaguely Tudor Revival in style, but the interior is similar to other cube-massed multi-room schools. Hallways were minimal in these early multi-room schools.

In cases where entire townships could be consolidated, a new school type emerged out of the multi-room plans. These were decidedly urban looking, rectangular massed schools with flat or shallow pitched hip roofs. A large entry arch with double doors led to a true internal corridor which led to four or eight rooms. Entries could be a single, centered unit or two symmetrically placed ones. The entry foyer might actually contain a staircase leading to the raised main level, or a split stair leading down to a raised basement level and up to a main level. Such schools appear in the 1890s in urban areas and by the early 1900s in rural locations. Bristol-Washington Township School, in Elkhart County, 1904 (NR, 1991) is a classic early

example. These massed schools with internal corridors were the precursor of the double-loaded corridor, I-shaped plans of the 'teens which remained in use into the mid-1930s.

By the eve of World War I, architects developed a new and pervasive school type, a two classroom deep plan, with the long side of the building oriented to the street. The overall footprint of the building might have a U shape or L shape. Internally it had a double-loaded corridor. Sometimes, these schools had "end caps" or blank wall sections flanking either end of the street facade. These blank wall sections masked either the wall of a class room perpendicular to the front set of rooms, or a vertical run of stairs. William Ittner of St. Louis was a significant school planner in the 'teens. Ittner influenced a number of schools of this type and personally designed a handful of schools in Indiana. Born in St. Louis in 1864, he graduated from Cornell University in 1887. He opened practice in St. Louis in 1888, and became the first Commissioner of School Buildings in St. Louis from 1897 to 1910. Ittner decried the poorly designed schools of St. Louis and set out to design buildings with ample natural light, ventilation, indoor plumbing, reduced class sizes, and wider corridors. Ittner designed a total of 500 schools in 115 different towns and 29 different states. In Indiana, he designed Richmond High School in 1910, Central High School in South Bend, Hope School in Bartholomew County, and five schools in Gary, all of which still stand. His partner on several occasions was Elmer Dunlap, school contractor from Columbus. Dunlap built many schools in the state and likely adopted many of Ittner's ideas.

The influence of the rapidly expanding and well-funded Indianapolis Public School system probably also influenced architects, at least in Central Indiana outside of the capital. In 1919, the Indianapolis board commissioned local architect Adolph Scherrer to design a standard school plan. Scherrer's plan could be built in modules of four, eight, twelve or sixteen classrooms, including a gym, auditorium, principal's office, nurse's office, manual training and domestic science accommodations. Scherrer's expanded plan had the typical blank end wall pavilions with a central entrance pavilion, all capped by a flat roof. Architectural detailing was usually confined to the central bay. Stylistically, the plan worked equally well for Craftsman elements, Tudor Revival, Collegiate Gothic, or Neo-Classical Revival. Masonry exteriors were the standard.

The architectural firm of A.M. Strauss in Fort Wayne designed many schools, both public and private, in northeastern Indiana. Both Catholic and Protestant schools were extremely influential in Fort Wayne and often played the role that public schools played in other larger cities in Indiana. The Strauss firm's designs were typical and well-executed for the 'teens and 1920s. South Side School, 1921, on South Calhoun Street in Fort Wayne was a typical grand Neo-Classical high school building designed by Strauss, with classical stone portico ornamenting an otherwise straight-forward Ittner-esque school plan. The effect is not unlike Indianapolis' Shortridge High School of 1928 (NR, 1983). A similar type of school was designed for the other side of town in 1927 by Charles Weatherhogg, called North Side High School.

Interior finishes on early consolidated schools were decidedly "domestic;" not terribly different from finer homes of the day. Plaster walls, stained woodwork, wood floors, provisions for cloak rooms were common. Indoor plumbing was rare. After the turn of the century, larger schools and high schools often had glazed brick wainscoting, terrazzo floors, electric service for lights, indoor plumbing, and other durable finishes. Woodwork was often confined to doors or window moldings. Metal sash hopper type windows might be

used in place of large wood double hung units.

Two or More Room Consolidated Rural and Urban Schools-Significance

Development of the district system in Indiana led to the consolidation of schools, in order to realize the goals that citizens and officials placed on the system. Two or more room consolidated schools from the time period of c.1870 to 1945 that meet general National Register guidelines and those specified in this document will meet Criterion A. These larger schools played a significant role in the expansion of the public school system in rural and urban Indiana. Consolidation is one of several historic trends that reflect the transformation of Indiana from an agrarian to an urban society.

Architecturally, two or more room schools were often the grandest public buildings in their immediate environment. School boards or trustees created monuments of civic and community pride by funding these well-built schools. Prominent local architects were often employed to design these third generation schools, very often, they proved to be among their most significant and enduring works. Innovations in sanitation, plan, and organization of schools are often embodied in these later school buildings. Public schools that have these characteristics will meet Criterion C.

Two or More Room Consolidated Rural and Urban Schools-Registration Requirements

By and large, the same registration requirements for one-room schools apply for multi-room public schools. Location remains a significant factor in eligibility since as with one-room schools, since officials sought sites - even in urban school districts - closest to the intended population base. In the case of rural early consolidated schools, location is more critical than with urban schools. Furthermore, due to the larger size of multi-room schools, one expects that moving them is typically not feasible. In the event a moved multi-room school is being considered, it should reside within the civil township which it served in order to qualify for the Register. Boundaries should include the parcel acquired for the school's construction if possible. Playgrounds and other outdoor recreation areas should be described and included.

Consolidated schools typically have more elaborate architectural elements than one-room schools. Schools should have their integrity of **design**; massing, form, and pattern of openings intact to qualify. For buildings qualifying under Criterion C, a high level of integrity is expected. Some consideration can be made for first generation consolidated schools (c.1870-c.1900) due their rarity. As with one-room buildings, abandonment or conversion to storage uses does not necessarily nullify eligibility. Emphasis on structural integrity and retention of plan, massing, and the opening patterns on facades is a better basis for determining eligibility. In cases of window replacement, the most significant aspect of the design is the opening dimensions. One would expect that schools of more recent (c.1930-1945) vintage would retain better integrity than earlier schools. As with one-room schools, a ruin of a multi-room school is not eligible, nor are former school sites.

Exterior additions are frequently made to schools that remained in service past World War II. Additions to multi-room schools can disqualify a building from listing, if the additions obscure the main elevation,

or if they obscure most of the side elevations. The best case for schools with large additions will be those where the additions connect to the rear or to one side only of the original historic structure.

Interiors of multi-room schools should read as historic spaces. Evidence of educational use, chalkboards, cloak rooms or ventilation systems should be in evidence in at least several rooms of the school. Corridors and other circulation areas should be easily read as such. Suspended ceilings and new finishes can compromise the feeling of a multi-room school. The volumes of the classrooms and halls should still read as intended if such systems are present. Removal of non-historic partition walls or other finishing systems can render a building eligible if done under SHPO guidance. The SHPO may determine what constitutes SHPO guidance in such cases.

Materials were typically more durable in multi-room schools than in one-room buildings. Most multi-room buildings that survive are masonry; the exterior masonry must survive intact and exposed for the building to be considered. For frame examples, schools should retain integrity of design. Sided frame buildings can meet Criterion A if all other considerations are met. The siding cannot obscure character-defining elements of the plan or window opening pattern. Interior elements like woodwork, flooring, and other finishes give schools their character and illustrate their purpose. Enough interior materials need to be visible for the interior to read as historic.

Multi-room schools need to be associated with the development of free public schools in a given civil school district. Private schools do not qualify under this context. Eligible buildings under this study should have been made for public education purposes before 1945. Applicants should be able to document the association with accepted research materials and techniques. A building purchased and converted to public educational purposes can qualify if 1) the association is significant, lengthy and within the pre-1945 period or 2) if the building was altered in a significant way to accommodate educational uses within the pre-1945 time frame. An example of property that meets these considerations is Arsenal Technical High School in Indianapolis, originally built as a Civil War era armory, converted to high school use after 1900.

Applicants should provide background on the development of school district or township in which the multi-room school stands. For urban schools, a background of the city school district is essential to the nomination. Applicants should identify other historic resources associated with the history of the school system, especially those which still stand. Other trends, such as changes in school types or various architects involved locally in school construction should be included.

4. Gymnasia

Description

Shortly after 1900, Indiana school board trustees began to incorporate gyms into plans for schools. High schools especially were targeted for fieldhouses, thanks to the new statewide basketball championship. This property type covers gyms that were built apart from schools, as free standing buildings. When first hired to build a lofty, open structure that could seat hundreds and be as free of posts internally as possible,

local contractors turned to a familiar model - barns. The first fieldhouses were essentially large wooden barn-like structures of the proper regulation size. These were often placed away from the school because of their flammable wood construction. In Wingate, in Montgomery County, the local high school barn-like gym constructed in 1915 still stands. The Chili Gym, 1925, in Miami County (home of the Chili Polar Bears) is very similar to the Wingate version, essentially a wooden, transverse-framed barn with side aisles for seating. By 1920, prosperous school districts were building brick and stone trimmed structures. By this time, most architects were making gyms part of school buildings. However, a number of communities lacked gyms until the 1930s or 40s, when WPA projects brought free-standing gyms to some communities. Some twenty-seven-odd Indiana gyms were built via WPA or PWA (Public Works Adminstration) funding. These gyms were often built to serve a number of local schools who lacked athletic facilities. The first gyms were simple inside. Bleachers on one or two sides, and very simple finishes were characteristic. With the later gyms of the 1920s and 30s, steel truss technology could be brought to bear on the problem of posts and line of sight. Seating could be arranged on all sides.

Gymnasia - Significance

Gyms were a very significant part of public school education. In the most base sense, athletics helped spread acceptance of public schools and especially high schools. Local sports teams gave small towns or rural high schools a rallying point that never existed before. Building a gym was thought of as a community service rather than a burden. The purely Indiana phenomenon of "Hoosier Hysteria" was a significant social event in small town and big city alike, it was an integral part of the public school experience. The significance of basketball events and gyms to Indiana educational history can be measured by size, if no other way. Gyms built fifty to sixty years ago in Indiana still rank among the top capacity high school gyms in the nation. Martinsville's 1923 gym with a capacity of 5,100 is still the 35th largest gym in the United States; Jeffersonville's Depression era gym ranks 32nd (source: *Hoosier Temples*). The enduring appeal of Hoosier Hysteria is evident today as only three of the top twenty capacity high school gyms are located outside of Indiana (all of relatively recent construction).

Gyms that are associated with the high school basketball tournament and otherwise meet registration requirements will meet Criterion A. Gyms eligible under this study generally will meet Criterion C. Many of these structures reflect significant advances in engineering and construction to accommodate the increases in audience and unobstructed spaces needed in basketball courts. Others often have a high level of architectural detailing befitting their status in the community. Gyms eligible under this study generally date from 1910 to no later than 1945.

Gymnasia - Registration Requirements

Gyms should have their basic identity to qualify for National Register listing. Exterior massing, form, and materials should be present. Some changes to interiors might be expected; schools were eager to modernize their basketball palaces. Changes to scoreboards, seating, and goals may not disqualify a building, however, the more evidence of past use, the better. Changes to court orientation, large additions, or buildings with interiors that have no trace of historic materials will not qualify. Moved gyms are not

likely to be an issue due to size considerations. In any case, the gym must remain in close proximity to its original setting in order to qualify. Once moved out of its intended community, the gym loses its historical significance. Gyms connected to other historic or non-historic buildings with any above ground, visible, enclosed structure intended for human use must be nominated as part of that attached building.

Association is key to gyms under this context. The gym in question must have been built for public school use or clearly intended as a home to a public school team. The association to public education must be clear and documented and fall within the pre-1945 time frame. Nominators should provide a synopsis of the development of public education in the community, as well as information about which public schools used the gym and during what time periods.

G. Geographical Data

The boundaries of this multiple property study include the entire State of Indiana. However, nothing in this study supersedes the previously approved Public School Buildings in Indianapolis Built Before 1940 MPDF (1995). The Indianapolis study relates to properties within the old (pre-Unigov) city limits. Other buildings in outlying areas of Marion County *are* germane to this statewide MPDF.

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

This study relies on several bodies of information about the resources themselves. First, the existing public schools listed on the National Register of Historic Places in Indiana provided some background and local historical data. Second, the Indiana Historic Sites and Structures Inventory, the DHPA's ongoing statewide, county-by-county survey of historic resources, provided background on 68 of Indiana's 92 counties. While not providing total coverage, certainly the survey provided more than ample data for analysis and study. Virtually all of the largest cities and therefore largest historic school districts (Gary, Fort Wayne, Evansville, South Bend, Terre Haute, Lafayette and Bloomington, to name a few) have all been covered by the survey. The survey allowed for locating trends in regions of Indiana, for example, the trend toward greater consolidation in north central Indiana is readily seen in the number of multi-room schools found in that area.

Using statistics from field reconnaissance and the Indiana Historic Sites and Structures Inventory, roughly 723 one-room district schoolhouses have been identified. Due to demolition, neglect, and arson, likely at least 20 of these are lost per year. The registration requirements will likely allow perhaps half of these one-room schools to qualify for National Register listing. The DHPA estimates that the other half will not qualify due to alterations, additions, or severe deterioration. Each of Indiana's 92 counties should have at least one example of an intact one-room school to nominate. Ten one-room schools are current listed on the National Register of Historic Places in Indiana. Multi-room buildings seem to have fared better. Survey estimates show that about 542 of these survive. As with one-room schools, demolition, arson, and indifferent school administrators are claiming their toll. Perhaps as many as a dozen of these larger buildings are lost each year. Due to continued use, more multi-room schools are likely to survive longer. Due to the permanent nature of multi-room schools, more are likely to meet the registration requirements.

Two-thirds of those identified would likely qualify under the guidelines presented in this document. Twenty-two multi-room schools are listed individually on the National Register of Historic Places. Six of these are Indianapolis Public Schools, two are Terre Haute schools, and others represent medium size towns. Three are rural or village schools. Historic districts include a number of public schools, such as Lincoln School in Columbus, within the Columbus Historic District.

Written documentation provided significant insight into where schools were located, which districts adopted consolidation first, and when districts were active in building new schools or replacing old ones. The Superintendent of Public Instruction Reports were crucial in providing this level of data which could be correlated against survey results or in the field. Literature on the history of Indiana's public schools also clearly provided the two major historical trends that provided the resource types. Clearly, the earliest schools were developed under the district system, which necessitated that the buildings be small, modest structures - the one-room schoolhouse. Consolidation was the other major trend in education in Indiana. Consolidation embodied changes in teaching techniques and philosophies that in turn changed the architecture and placement of schools. This ongoing trend began in the 1870s in some parts of Indiana but was fully accepted by 1900. Multi-room schools in strategic locations were part of the plan of consolidation. Architectural style, per se, did not influence the forms of the buildings, instead, the details reflected styles that suited the times, and the larger formats of the buildings. Therefore, both in historical periods and in property types, division by number of rooms per building was judged to be the crucial factor. For gymnasia, several recent publications have thoroughly cataloged and identified Indiana gyms past and present.

This MPDF covers those schools that were publicly funded and free to all citizens of Indiana, according to state policy. For the most part, this was defined as including what we today call elementary schools and high schools. At one point, universities were to be part of the free public system, but they were never made fully free schools. Therefore, only elementary schools and high schools were considered under this study.

The purpose of this application was to provide a framework for the growing number of schoolhouse and school building applications entering the Indiana SHPO's paper stream. No intention of providing a total history of public schools and their historical impact in Indiana should be inferred. Instead, this document provides a framework for assessment and nomination of school buildings to the National Register of Historic Places for hoosiers. Each nomination will provide further insight into local school districts as outlined above. Together, the individual National Register nominations and this MPDF will become a significant preservation tool with time.

Registration requirements were judged on the basis of field experience, past nominations, and on the potential for future nominations. Since these property types include perhaps thousands of possible candidates, the standards are set to include the best possible examples in each community. Rural schools are a vulnerable and vanishing resource type. Registration requirements attempt to accommodate this fact while setting a reasonable standard of integrity. The differing nature of urban and multi-room schools is acknowledged by requirements reflecting evolving use.

I. Major Bibliographical References

Batchelder, Laura. "The Growth of Indiana's Public School System," graduate research paper for Prof. Gray, I.U., December 1, 1994.

Baer, M. Teresa. "Education and the Perception of Equality: Defining Equality Through the Establishment of Public School Systems in Indiana and Ontario, 1787-1852." M.A. Thesis, I.U. at Indianapolis, 1998.

Barhard, John D., Ph.D and Donald F. Carmody, Ph.D. *Indiana, From Frontier to Industrial Commonwealth.* New York: Lewis Historical Publishing Company, 1954.

Boone, Richard G. *A History of Education in Indiana.* New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1892.

Carmody, Donald F, Ph.D. *Indiana, 1816-1850: The Pioneer Era.* Indianapolis: Indiana Historical Bureau and Indiana Historical Society, 1998.

Cayton, Andrew R.L. and Peter S. Onuf. *The Midwest and the Nation, Rethinking the History of an American Region.* Bloomington, IN: I.U. Press, 1990.

City of Lafayette and Martin, County Treasurer v. Jenners. 10 Ind Tanner 70-81.

Cohen, Ronald D. *Children of the Mill: Schooling and Society in Gary, Indiana, 1906-1960.* Bloomington, IN: I.U. Press, 1990.

Cohen, Ronald D. and Raymond A. Mohl. *The Paradox of Progressive Education: The Gary Plan and Urban Schooling.* Port Washington, NY: National University Press, 1979.

Cotton, Fassett. *Education in Indiana, 1793 to 1934.* Bluffton, IN, Progress Publishing Co., 1934.

_____. "The Township High School in Indiana," *The School Review*, Vol. XII, No. 4, April, 1904.

Diebold, Paul. "A Structure for Education," *Outdoor Indiana*, Vol. 54, No. 1, February, 1989, pp. 29-31.

Esarey, Logan. *History of Indiana.* Indianapolis: Hoosier Heritage Press, Inc. (1970 reprint of 1918 original).

Fuller, Wayne. *The Old Country School: The Story of Rural Education in the Middle West.* Chicago: University Press of Chicago, 1982.

Glenn, Dale. *The History of the Indiana High School Athletic Association.* Greenfield, IN: Mitchell-Fleming Printing, Inc., 1975.

Greiff, Glory June and Suzanne Rollins (Stanis). National Register of Historic Places, MPDF, *Public School Buildings in Indianapolis Built Before 1940*, 1995.

Gulliford, Andrew. *America's Country Schools.* Washington, D. C.: Preservation Press, 1991.

Greencastle Twp. in Putnam County and Kercheval, County Treasurer & C., v. Black. 5 Ind Porter 557-577.

Hamilton, Donald E. *Hoosier Temples, A Pictorial History of Indiana High School Basketball Gyms.* St. Louis: G. Bradley Publishing, 1993.

Hill, Cynthia Longwisch. National Register of Historic Places, MPDF, *St. Louis, Missouri Public Schools of William B. Ittner,* 1990.

Indiana Historic Sites and Structures Inventory. Interim Reports for: Fort Wayne, South Bend, Kokomo, New Albany and the following counties: Bartholomew, Boone, Brown, Carroll, Cass, Clark, Clay, Clinton, Daviess, Dearborn, Delaware, Dubois, Elkhart, Fayette, Floyd, Fountain, Franklin, Fulton, Gibson, Grant, Hamilton, Hancock, Harrison, Hendricks, Henry, Huntington, Jackson, Jay, Jefferson, Jennings, Johnson, Knox, Kosciusko, Lake, LaPorte, Lawrence, Madison, Marshall, Miami, Monroe, Noble, Ohio, Owen, Parke, Perry, Porter, Posey, Putnam, Randolph, Ripley, Rush, St. Joseph, Shelby, Switzerland, Tippecanoe, Vanderburgh, Vigo, Wabash, Warrick, Wayne, Wells, and White Counties. Reports for Pike/Lawrence, Warren, Decatur/Perry/Franklin, and Wayne Townships, Marion County. Various dates of publication.

Johonnot, James. *School-Houses.* New York: J.W. Shermerhorn & Co., 1871.

Lynch, William O. "The Great Awakening." *Indiana Magazine of History* XLI (1945), pp. 109-130.

Madison, James. *The Indiana Way, A State History.* Bloomington, IN: I.U. Press, 1986.

Mullin, Lewis. *Account Books, c.1874.* Unpublished manuscript, collection of Lewis N. Mullin, Carroll County, Indiana.

Reese, William J. *Hoosier Schools, Past and Present.* Bloomington, IN: I.U. Press, 1998.

Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. State of Indiana: Various publishers, 1852-1945.

Stuttgen, Joanne Raetz. 1994. *One-Room and Two-Room Country Schools of Morgan County, Indiana.* Unpublished manuscript. (Funded by an Indiana Heritage Research Grant, a joint effort of the Indiana Historical Society and the Indiana Humanities Council.)

Taylor, Robert et. al. *Indiana, A New Historical Guide.* Indianapolis: Indiana Historical Society, 1989.

Thomas, John Hardin, A.M. "The Academies of Indiana," *Indiana Magazine of History*, December 1914, Vol. X, No. 4, pp. 331-350.

Wakefield, Walter Jackson, A.B. "County Seminaries in Indiana," *Indiana Magazine of History*, June 1915, Vol. XI, pp. 148-161.