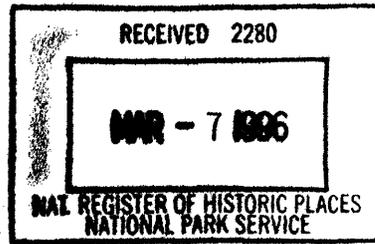


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### National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

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

New Submission     Amended Submission

#### A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

African-American Primary and Secondary Public School Buildings in South Carolina,  
ca. 1895-1954

#### B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

The development of primary and secondary public education for African-Americans  
in South Carolina from ca. 1895 to 1954

#### C. Form Prepared by

name/title Katherine H. Richardson  
organization Heritage Preservation Associates date 26 June 1995  
street & number 26 Harby Ave. telephone (803) 775-6682  
city or town Sumter state S.C. zip code 29150

#### 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 Archeology and Historic Preservation. ( See continuation sheet for additional comments.)  
Mary W. Edmonds 3/1/96  
Signature and title of certifying official Date  
Mary W. Edmonds, Deputy SHPO, S.C. Department of Archives and History, Columbia, S.C.  
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.  
Coral R. Hull 4-15-96  
Signature of the Keeper Date of Action

Name of Multiple Property Listing

State

**Table of Contents for Written Narrative**

Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

	<b>Page Numbers</b>
<b>E. Statement of Historic Contexts</b> (If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)	1
<b>F. Associated Property Types</b> (Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)	18
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<b>H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods</b> (Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.)	21
<b>I. Major Bibliographical References</b> (List major written works and primary location of additional documentation: State Historic Preservation Office, other State agency, Federal agency, local government, university, or other, specifying repository.)	23

**Paperwork Reduction Act Statement:** This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C. 470 *et seq.*).

**Estimated Burden Statement:** Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18.1 hours per response including the time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Chief, Administrative Services Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

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E. Statement of Historic Contexts:

**Background:** The formal education of the African-American in South Carolina began in 1695 under the direction of Rev. Samuel Thomas in Goose Creek Parish and later under the auspices of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. In 1731, the Rev. E. Taylor of St. Andrews Parish was teaching not only religious courses to African-Americans, but also regular courses normally found in an elementary school. A law passed in 1740 prohibited slaves from being taught to read and write, though private attempts at education were doubtless administered by plantation masters, missionaries, and the free persons of color who were educated. In spite of this law the Rev. Alexander Garden opened a school in Charleston in 1743 which was taught by two educated slaves named Harry and Andrew.<sup>1</sup>

The Denmark Vesey insurrection of 1822 led to stricter laws against the education of African-Americans in South Carolina, such as an act of 1835, which threatened fines and imprisonment for those found teaching slaves or free persons of color, at the discretion of the magistrate. This law, however, failed to keep several successful schools for African-Americans from operating in Charleston during the first half of the nineteenth century. Black educators such as Thomas S. Bonneau, William McKinlay, F.K. Sasportas, Mrs. \_\_\_\_\_ Stromer, and Daniel Payne successfully ran schools for persons of color prior to the Civil War. Some white educators were also determined to teach the African-Americans of that city in several schools prior to the war.<sup>2</sup>

During and after the Civil War, education was available to African-Americans through various church denominations as well as charitable societies such as the New England Freedmen's Aid Society, the New York National Freedman's Relief Society, and the Pennsylvania Freedman's Relief Organization, among others. Additionally, funds for the education of the Negro were established by philanthropists such as George Peabody and John F. Slater. The official educational arm of the Federal government was the Bureau of Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Lands, more commonly known as the Freedmen's Bureau, which was established by

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<sup>1</sup>Asa H. Gordon, Sketches of Negro Life and History in South Carolina (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1971), pp. 82-4.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 84-6.

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an act of Congress in 1865 to govern not only education, but abandoned lands and providing rations and supplies for the African-American population. Under the Freedmen's Bureau, a superintendent of schools was appointed for each state. Justus K. Jillson, a white Massachusetts Republican, was appointed superintendent of education of South Carolina in 1868. Additionally, the state constitution of 1868 mandated a system of public schools open to both races. The state passed a school act in 1870 which provided that schools were to be financed by poll taxes, legislative appropriations, and local taxes. These funds were to be administered by boards of county examiners and elected district trustees.<sup>3</sup>

Control of these schools rested, not in the hands of the state superintendent, but rather at the local level with the county commissioners of education. Jillson was never able to assemble a quorum of the State Board of Education which was composed of these commissioners. This gave the state limited control of the progress of public education and greatly enhanced local control of the facilities provided for children of both sides.<sup>4</sup>

Despite these long odds against success, by 1876 the Republican government had successfully established 2,766 schools served by 3,068 teachers. In 1876 Jillson reported 123,085 students enrolled in the public schools, 70,082 of which were African-Americans. In that year there were 1,931 white teachers and 1,087 African-American teachers. The political battles of Redemption during 1876-77 took its toll on the public school system and Superintendent Jillson. This would be his last report, for when the Democrats reclaimed state government, he was barred from entering his office. The superintendent's job was handed to Hugh Smith Thompson, a Democrat.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 87-104; George Brown Tindall, South Carolina Negroes, 1877-1900 (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1952), pp. 209-10; United States Commissioner of Education, Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894-5 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1896), pp. 1377-1383.

<sup>4</sup>Tindall, p. 210.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., pp. 210-11.

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Thompson noted that in 1877 the school population had dropped by 20,000, three-fourths of whom were black students. Of a total of 2,674 teachers in 1877, a mere 949 were African-Americans. He found a strong resistance among the white population toward the public schools because they had been implemented by the Radical Republican government. As well, the whites voiced concern over the money used to finance these schools. The sentiment, "White men's money for white men's children," found in the News and Courier in 1884, hinted that blacks should fund their own schools. Tindall writes, "Although such a system was never adopted formally it was actually put into effect by the process of channelling most of the school funds into the white schools."<sup>6</sup>

Thompson called a committee to form the school law of 1878, which would provide for centralization of the direction of public schools under a state board of examiners consisting of a state superintendent and four members appointed by the governor. These, in turn, elected two members of the county board who served at that level with a popularly-elected local commissioner of education. This still did not ensure equal distribution of funds between the white and African-American schools, nor did it provide efficient oversight of the black schools. The state supervisor of elementary education wrote in 1910:

Frequently, the county superintendent does not know where they [the Negro schools] are located and sometimes the district board cannot tell where the negro school is taught. It is customary for the board of trustees to and allow them to use it as they please. A teacher is employed and no further questions are asked, except concerning enrollment at the end of the session.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>Ibid.

<sup>7</sup>Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Education, 1910, p. 120.

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Public opinion gradually changed in support of public education due to the efforts of Thompson and his successors, Asbury Coward and James H. Rice. From 1877 to 1880, the per capita expenditures for white and Negro schools were almost equal, with perhaps expenditures on the African-American schools being higher. By 1895, however, according to historian George Brown Tindall, "more than twice as much was being spent on white schools as on Negro schools and nearly three times as much per pupil."<sup>8</sup>

Among the Negro schools in the state a vast gap in facilities lay between the rural schools and the city schools. The description of a Pendleton County rural Negro school in the 1880s gives us a glimpse into the classroom:

It was a characteristic Negro schoolhouse built of logs, with one door and one window, the latter having no panes and being closed by a board shutter which swung on leather hinges outward. The house was not larger than a comfortable bedroom and had a "fireplace" opposite the door. The children faced the fireplace, so that the scant light fell through the door on their books. There were no desks; the seats were long board benches with no backs.<sup>9</sup>

In contrast, the Charleston city Negro schools enrolled 3,586 pupils in 1878-9 and spent an amount equal to one-fifth of the expenditures for the entire state system.<sup>10</sup>

In the 1870s and 1880s, there was a shortage of qualified African-American teachers, which led to the establishment of state teaching institutes held on an annual basis in various parts of the state for both white and Negro teachers. Even in this case, inequitable spending was evident; often white teachers had to be hired for African-American schools.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>8</sup>Tindall, p. 216.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 217.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 218.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 220.

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In 1890, Governor Benjamin Ryan Tillman assumed office. There was no doubt where he stood on racial issues. He stated in his inaugural address, "The whites have absolute control of the state government, and we intend at any and all hazards, to retain it." This attitude would carry over into the public educational system, which was one of the first issues he addressed as governor. Of the schools he remarked,

Among the farmers in the country, the good school is the exception, while inferior schools, which run three or four months are the rule. There is just enough effort by the State to paralyze private schools, and there is absolute retrogression in education with corresponding increase in illiteracy. We spend in round numbers for free common schools per annum about five hundred thousand dollars . . . This is fifty-two cents per capita of population and allows less than two dollars to each child of school age.<sup>12</sup>

Tillman suggested that the counties should be divided into school districts of 16 to 36 square miles in proportion to the density of the population and that each district proposed should have one white and one Negro school. He stated that the trustees should be elected by the voters of the district and that they should be empowered to erect suitable school buildings near the center of each district. Tillman also wanted to place a heavier financial responsibility on the African-American population by raising the poll tax from one to three dollars. Tillman's ideas were partially implemented 17 years later in the school law of 1907.<sup>13</sup>

Despite the best efforts to centralize and equalize educational efforts and expenditures, progress in African-American public education was slow from 1865 to 1895. In 1870, only 18,000 African-Americans were students in South Carolina schools; in 1890 in South Carolina there were 301, 262 illiterate African-Americans in the total black population of 470,232.<sup>14</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Yates Snowden, ed., History of South Carolina (Chicago and New York: Lewis Publishing Company, 1920), pp. 1005-6.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 1006.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 106.

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Context: The South Carolina Constitution of 1895 opened a new chapter in the development of public education for African-Americans. Though changes in the constitution were intended to improve the public education system, it did so at the expense of the African-American population, for it legally established a dual system of racially segregated schools at a time when blacks were disenfranchised by Jim Crow laws such as the poll tax and literacy requirements. The changes mandated by the constitution effectively put the control of local school boards and funding for public education almost entirely in the hands of the white population, which led to inequalities in the standards for white schools and those for the Afro-American children.<sup>15</sup>

Conditions for African-American students and teachers remained inadequate from 1895 until the 1960s. For the purposes of this historical context, the year 1954 was chosen as a closing date due to the landmark United States Supreme Court decision in Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, which legally ended de jure segregation in public education in the United States.<sup>16</sup> After 1954, each state struggled with the mandate of desegregated schools in the era of the African-American struggle for civil rights. New schools were built in South Carolina, effectively rendering many of the older African-American schoolhouses obsolete.

The report of the United States Commissioner of Education for the school year 1894-5 stated that in South Carolina only 41% of the Negro children between the ages of 5 and 18 were enrolled in school, as opposed to 60% of white children of the same ages.<sup>17</sup> The South Carolina State Superintendent of Education, W.D. Mayfield, wrote in 1896 that in that the enrollment was the

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<sup>15</sup>South Carolina General Assembly, Constitution of 1895.

<sup>16</sup>Charles Reagan Wilson and William Ferris, eds., Encyclopedia of Southern Culture (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1989), p. 152.

<sup>17</sup>United States Commissioner of Education, Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894-5 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1896), p. 1332.

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largest ever seen in the history of state public education: 109,159 white pupils, an increase of 5,430 over the previous year, and 123,178 African-American students, an increase of 3,886 pupils. This was the first school year under the 1895 school law and Mayfield had found some discrepancies in the legislation that needed to be corrected, but overall thought that things were on the upswing.<sup>18</sup>

In 1895-96, ninety-eight new school houses were constructed in South Carolina. It appears from an assessment of the tables regarding construction that the 1895 mandate that blacks and whites have separate adequate facilities in each county in reality meant that the African-American children inherited the old white schoolhouses. In 1895-96, eighty new schools were erected for white students at a cost of \$7,497.26. In the same year, eighteen new schools were built for blacks at a cost of \$1,285.86. The average construction costs for the white schools was \$20 higher than that for the Negro schools.<sup>19</sup>

The majority of the new schools built in 1895-6 were frame buildings; of the new schools only one black and two white schools were constructed of logs. The table of schoolhouses erected in the state, apparently since the Constitution of 1868, reveals an interesting picture of the physical plant of the public schools in the various South Carolina counties, and indicates a vast gulf between facilities provided for whites and Negroes. The white school facilities were valued at slightly over twice the value of the Negro school buildings. Of all the public school buildings constructed between 1868 and 1895-6, log schoolhouses constituted 25.8% of the facilities for blacks and only 9.5% for white children. 70.8% of the Negro schools were frame buildings as compared to 86.4% for whites. A tiny percentage of buildings for each race were built of stone or brick.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>18</sup>South Carolina Superintendent of Education, 28th Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Education of the State of South Carolina, 1896 (Columbia: Charles A. Calvo, State Printer, 1897), pp. 4-5.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., pp. 196-7.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., pp. 198-9.

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The condition of these buildings as assessed by the superintendent's office reveals an even more startling disparity between facilities for the races. The office ranked the school buildings as good, fair, or bad. The rankings break down as follows according to percentages:

	<u>Good</u>	<u>Fair</u>	<u>Bad</u>
White Schools	63.3%	27.6%	8.29%
Negro Schools	41%	34.9%	20.8% <sup>21</sup>

It appears that they did not rank the school buildings which were rented, allowing for the small percentage unaccounted for in the breakdown.

The "school furniture and apparatus" for 1895-6 were not broken down by race so it is impossible to assess the status of classroom equipment available to African-American students. The account given of a typical classroom in 1880 may have been the norm: stark furnishings and few if any educational tools for the black schools. Teachers' salaries for whites and blacks in the early grades were also unequal, as is evident in the charts for 1895-6:

	<u>1st</u>	<u>2nd</u>	<u>3rd</u>
White Teachers	\$31.58	\$21.56	\$17.36
Negro Teachers	\$24.90	\$19.23	\$14.05 <sup>22</sup>

In 1903, the Progressive movement influenced an effort to improve the rural public schools in South Carolina which was led by D.B. Johnson, president of the State Board of Education; O.B. Martin, State Superintendent of Education; and Miss Mary Nance, President of the State Association for Rural School Improvement. The Association for Rural School Improvement was divided into county and local organizations and was dominated by women. At this time, their mission was to repair and improve the grounds of the rural schools and make them sanitary and aesthetic places for learning.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>21</sup>Ibid.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 203.

<sup>23</sup>Snowdon, vol. 2, p. 1048.

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By 1907, the state's administration of the public schools became stratified and more like the governance of the present day. The school law permitted the division of counties into school districts of not less than nine but not more than forty-nine square miles which were managed by local boards of trustees. The state superintendent of education, an elected official, and the state board of education exercised supervision over all public schools in the state, mandated uniformity in textbooks, and standards of efficiency for teachers. At the next level, the county superintendent apportioned school funds and examined the physical plant of each school under his jurisdiction. The County Superintendent and two persons appointed by the State Board comprised the county board of education, which conducted examinations for teachers, arranged school districts, appointed school trustees, and acted as a court of appeals for the schools in the county.<sup>24</sup>

In 1907, the Handbook of South Carolina, which of course aimed to paint a glowing picture of the public schools and thus did not stress any negative issue, reported that "The public school system now compares favorably with that of any state in the Union in efficiency, method and amount expended. The sources of revenue are the constitutional three-mill tax, the special local tax, the poll tax, the tax on dogs, and in about two-fifths of the counties the Dispensary Tax [on liquor]."<sup>25</sup>

Of the Negro schools, the 1907 handbook is worth quoting verbatim:

It has ever been the policy of the people of South Carolina to treat the Negro right, and especially to give him the advantage of a good common school education. When they were emancipated there were few of their own race able to instruct them. So when the public school law went into operation in 1868 many educated Southern white men and women taught in the negro schools until there was a sufficient

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<sup>24</sup>State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration, Handbook of South Carolina, Resources, Institutions and Industries of the State . . . (Columbia: The State Company, 1907), pp. 169-70.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 170.

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number of their own race prepared to do this work. There are Negro schools in every school district in this State, graded schools for negroes in every town where such schools exist for whites. The negro schools have their own trustees, and, as far as they law will allow, govern their own schools. . . . There are 2,350 negro public schools and 200 negro graded schools. The negro is receiving proper treatment. No people on the face of the earth would act toward him with as much consideration as a Southerner.<sup>26</sup>

In 1907 a High School law was enacted which placed secondary schools under state aid and state supervision. This law was shepherded by the State Board of Education, the Association of City Superintendents, and the State Teacher's Association. The law provided that high schools in the state could receive up to 50% of their income from state revenues but no more than \$1,200 per year. Those accepting state aid were required to enroll at least twenty-five pupils and employ not less than two teachers. By December, 1907, fifty-eight high schools were receiving state aid. The "high school movement" established a link between the state-supported primary schools and state-supported colleges where no link had been before.<sup>27</sup>

Despite these advances in education, South Carolina, by 1910, ranked second-to-last in the illiteracy rate in the country.<sup>28</sup> The legislature, in 1918, passed an act which set aside a fund of \$140,000 to assist public schools, with rural schools as a target, in increasing their yearly terms to seven months. Thirty-three out of forty-six counties took advantage of this fund, though the predominantly white apparently received most of the benefits. In each of the school districts involved in this venture, the benefit levied an 8 mill tax on the dollar. This high local tax impeded the success of the program in the early years. Of the \$100,000 appropriation, only \$46,857 was used in 1918. In 1919, the legislature increased the appropriation by \$25,000, yet only \$58,120 was used. The state

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid., pp. 172-3.

<sup>27</sup>Ibid., p. 1055.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 1086.

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government refused to give up on this concept; by 1920, 600 communities had increased local school taxes. In the long run, this program raised school teachers' salaries and lengthened the school year.<sup>29</sup>

In 1920, 132 high schools in the state qualified for state aid, including black high schools in Beaufort, Columbia, Georgetown, Sumter, and Florence. Though great strides had been made in the first two decades of the 20th century, African-American schools were still not funded as heavily as were white schools. For instance, though the number of Negro and white students in the state were about equal in 1922, State Superintendent of Education J.H. Hope reported that \$1,970,944.20 was spent on the physical plant of the state's white schools and only \$187,033.63 on the Negro schools. \$188,155.02 was spent on furniture and apparatus for the white children, and a mere \$22,983.00 on the black students. Of the total expenditures on the state's schools in that year, the white schools received approximately 90% of the funds.<sup>30</sup>

Professor Asa H. Gordon of the Industrial College of Georgia, an African-American, stated the Negro's point of view regarding South Carolina's educational system in 1929, when he wrote,

While these figures unquestionably show quantitative progress, they are disquieting, not to say alarming, to any lover of true democracy who believes in universal education without regard to race or class. We feel that a history is no place for propoganda however worthy the cause may be, and so we merely state it here as an historical fact that the Negroes of South Carolina do not feel when they read such figures year after year that they are getting what the late Woodrow Wilson was pleased to call "even handed justice" . . . Indeed the figures show that the Negroes of the state would be in a deplorable plight if it were not for assistance rendered by outside

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<sup>29</sup>Ibid., pp. 1094-5.

<sup>30</sup>Ibid., pp. 1094-95; Gordon pp. 106-07.

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agencies of a philanthropic nature and some aid from the federal government.<sup>31</sup>

There were several philanthropic agencies which contributed to South Carolina Negro schools in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The oldest was the Slater Fund, founded in 1882, which donated \$18,500 to South Carolina schools in 1928-28. Between 1930 and 1938, this fund assisted the state's African-American schools with a total of \$61,000. The Jeanes Fund, established in 1890 by Philadelphia Quaker Anna T. Jeanes, only funded black rural schools in the South. This fund assisted by providing visiting teachers and advisors for the rural schools. John D. Rockefeller founded the General Education Board in 1902. his board funded any school regardless of race, but became particularly interested in black schools in 1914, when the Peabody Fund and the Southern Education Board ceased operation. The General Education Board took over their work with the Negro schools in the South.<sup>32</sup>

The Julius Rosenwald Fund, begun in 1917, perhaps had the most creative and successful formula for assisting blacks in their educational goals. It built school buildings and assisted in establishing libraries through requirements that cooperative efforts be made by the Negro population using the school, county, and state officials, and local school district trustees. In 1924 alone, fifty-six buildings containing 212 classrooms were constructed in South Carolina with Rosenwald support. By the 1931-32 school year the Rosenwald Fund had provided 500 new schools statewide and an unknown number of school renovations and teachers' houses. In addition, the Fund led the counties to appropriate increased public funding of their own for African-American schools.<sup>33</sup>

The Rosenwald program helped effect a dramatic increase in spending for the black children of South Carolina. In 1917, the annual average cost of instruction per Negro child wa \$2.86. In 1927, it had risen to \$11.06, an increase of \$8.20 per student.

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<sup>31</sup>Gordon, p. 108.

<sup>32</sup>Sharmila Bhatia, et al., "A Brief History of South Carolina Schools from 1895 to 1945," unpublished report, 1989, Applied History Program, University of South Carolina, Columbia, S.C., pp. 48-49.

<sup>33</sup>Ibid., p. 50.

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In 1917, 3,077 teachers were paid to teach African-American students; by 1927, 4,339 teachers served the Negro population of the state. Teacher's salaries rose during the decade and Negro teachers began to seek higher education.<sup>34</sup>

As the Great Depression deepened in the 1930s, the Rosenwald Fund ceased to aid the educational progress of the state due to the failure of the investments upon which it was based. The state was also unable to keep up the pace it had met in the 1920s. The state superintendent of education stated in 1932, "whenever financial conditions are hard, the colored schools are the first to suffer."<sup>35</sup>

New Deal legislation, beginning in 1933, eased the situation and through the last half of the 1930s the Public Works Administration and Works Progress Administration made improvements to many African-American schools.<sup>36</sup> Politically, the programs of the New Deal galvanized the conservative Democratic white Southerners who resented its appeal to blacks and its economic and social programs. The New Deal's threats to the status quo included a repeal of the poll tax, and the proposed integration of the armed services. Another threat after World War II was President Harry Truman's Fair Deal. The real turning point was the civil rights legislation passed during Truman's administration. Conservative Southern Democrats increasingly lent support to the Republican Party, which opposed the social changes of the times. Robert A. Calvert wrote of these times, "A major goal after 1954, was, increasingly, an integrated society, and the cause of the southern left became first and foremost integration. Conservatives' goals were to prevent it. Racism was used, as against Populism, as a barrier to any economic or social reform."<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>34</sup>Program, "Rosenwald School Day, Friday, March 30, 1928," State Historic Preservation Office files, South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, S.C.

<sup>35</sup>Bhatia, et al., pp. 51-52.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid., pp. 52-53.

<sup>37</sup>Wilson and Ferris, eds., p. 1175.

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The schools suffered during this era. By the late 1940s substandard conditions still plague South Carolina schools. As the theories of early childhood education evolved in the modern era, and as education evolved into a new science, new methods of evaluation were applied to the state's schools. In 1947, a survey for the state's schools was conducted using the Morrison-Ruegsegger Scale for "rating elementary school practice."<sup>38</sup>

This study revealed that teachers were held responsible for some failures of the system. One observer wrote, "Failure, if any, lies . . . in the method of teaching. Many teachers I observed operated on the psychology of the nineteenth century - namely, that the children need only to read, write, and figure. That these children live in a democracy, and need to be healthy, well-adjusted people with skills other than the three-R's was not obvious in too many of the schools I visited. I found the teachers kind and loving but not very skilled in teaching. A reorganization of teacher education in South Carolina certainly seems to be in order."<sup>39</sup>

A lack of administrative leadership was cited. Apparently, many school principals also taught a full load of classes and, in addition, served as athletic coach, leaving them little time to oversee the physical plant and in-service training.

The committee went on to rate the South Carolina schools on the Morrison-Ruegsegger Scale of 1.0 to 1.4 for classrooms failing to meet the needs of the students. These classrooms were described as "formal, dull, uninteresting, and drab. Emphasis in instruction is placed upon the so-called fundamentals subjects, and drill is the most frequently-used teaching technique. In these classrooms there is little or no evidence of experiences in the arts, crafts, music, science, dramatics, and appreciations. Little attention is paid to the individual differences in children. No opportunities are given for planning or participating in democratic practices. On the whole, classrooms rated from 1.0 to 1.4 are not considered places in which children can best learn and grow." Of the 81 white classrooms and 49 Negro classes surveyed, 43% of white classrooms and 55% of

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<sup>38</sup>South Carolina Education Survey Committee, Public Schools of South Carolina (Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948), p. 23.

<sup>39</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

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African-American classes fell within this lowest rating in South Carolina in 1947.<sup>40</sup> Not one African-American classroom scored in the highest ratings of 4.5 to 5.0.

The 1947 description of a classroom rated on the lowest end of the scale sounds very much like the African-American school described in the 1880s:

The schoolhouse is square and undistinguished-looking. A door in the center of the front walls leads directly into a hall. Two rooms, opposite to each other, open into the hall. The front yard is worn and washed to the redmud which clings to one's feet. Tall pines rise behind the little white school house. . . . The classroom housing grades one through three is dark and gloomy. Dampness is everywhere - in the coats of the children to which they cling, and in their hair because many of them had to come running to school in the early morning rain. An unjacketed stove in the front of the room is roaring with fat pine wood . . . There is no evidence anywhere that children work in this room, nor that they try to make it colorful and beautiful. The walls are bare, save for a brown sepia print of George Washington and a magazine print of General MacArthur. there is no evidence of arts and crafts. There are no bulletin boards, no library corner, no science table, no play corner . . . There is plenty of blackboard, but it is too high and the children rarely use it.<sup>41</sup>

South Carolina's school plant as evaluated in 1947 gives a clear picture of the state of many African-American and some white schools at the turn of the mid-20th century. In 1946-7, the school plant of a total of 1,398 white schools was valued at \$55,000,000 with per pupil valuation set at \$221. The 2,096 black schools were valued at \$9,000,000, or \$45 per pupil. In that year nine new schools were built for whites and twenty-six new schools were erected for Negroes.<sup>42</sup>

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<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 23-4.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid., pp. 27-8.

<sup>42</sup>Ibid., p. 192.

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Of the state's schools in 1947, 218 one-teacher schoolhouses served whites. Blacks attended 822 one-teacher schools. The one-teacher schools for African-Americans were described in a survey:

One-teacher schools for Negroes . . . representing an average value per school of about \$820, including site, building, and equipment. The typical Negro one-teacher school is generally comparable to the below-average white school of the same type. Site averages less than one acre. Electricity is rarely provided. Pit privies and surface privies of the most unsanitary type are found.<sup>43</sup>

The following chart sums up conditions for African-American children in South Carolina's schools at mid-century:

Comparison for Certain Items for the  
White and Negro Races, 1946-7

	White Schools	Negro Schools
Value of School plant per pupil	\$ 366.94	\$ 66.77
Expenses per pupil	\$ 88.00	\$ 36.00
Average Teacher Salary	\$ 1,535.00	\$ 1,025.00
% of Children Transported to School	35.7%	1.8% <sup>44</sup>

In 1953-54, on the eve of Brown v. the Board of Education, the South Carolina state superintendent of education's report was very cautious in the selective breakdown of matters by race. Nowhere in the report is comprehensive information by race given on the value of the state's schools or the equipment contained in them, as had been given in years before. The specific information given in the textual section of the report does not give the total number of schools which are included in the discussion, rendering the statistics meaningless. The report

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., pp. 193-94.

<sup>44</sup>Ibid., p. 309.

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does indicate that for the first time great strides had been made in the professionalism of the school administrations, teacher certification and education, and the establishment of school lunch programs, libraries, and specialized educational programs. The country's schools were poised at the edge of an era which would witness sweeping social change in this country and the readjustment of the entire nation's education system.<sup>45</sup>

In summary, the years between 1895 and 1954 were years of emotional struggle for whites and African-Americans. The Negro schools, though, were always at the low end of the spectrum and were kept so by the cumulative effect of politics and racism. The school buildings which remain from these years stand as monuments to the African-American struggle to be educated and escape the conditions which kept them from obtaining skilled jobs and professions. These school buildings speak poignantly of this struggle.

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<sup>45</sup>State Superintendent of Education, Eighty-Sixth Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Education of the State of South Carolina, 1953-1954 (Columbia: State Budget and Control Board, 1954).

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Associated Property Types

The property types associated with this nomination are school buildings constructed between ca. 1895 and 1954 which were originally intended to house African-American primary or secondary public schools or built for white schools and later housed African-American primary or secondary public schools, as well as possible associated outbuildings, structures, objects, and archaeological sites.

In South Carolina, these buildings fall within a wide range of styles and designs. As late as the mid-20th century, there were log school buildings in use. The majority of the buildings associated with this multiple property submission will be frame schoolhouses of the one-, two-, or three-room type, with a variety of architectural detailing. There were a few brick and stone schools which could be associated with this nomination as well.

In 1910 the state commissioned Rudolph E. Lee, a Clemson College engineering professor, to develop a set of standardized plans for schoolhouses, but there was no requirement that all school district use Lee's standard plans. School districts using Lee's plans did receive some bonus money from the state. Lee published these plans in a series of pamphlets entitled Rural School Buildings. Another work of rural school buildings published in 1917, S.A. Challman's Rural School Plant, underscores the movement toward the construction of "modern," efficient, and sanitary schools. The Rosenwald Fund may have had a series of standard plans available for prospective recipients; the South Carolina Rosenwald schools for which images are available state that they are "One-teacher type," "two-teacher type," or "three-teacher type." The Rosenwald schools for which photographs are extant are varied in design and massing, so there was some choice in design involved on the part of the school district.<sup>46</sup>

To be eligible for inclusion in this multiple property submission the school buildings must be documented through the historic records and must retain their architectural integrity.

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<sup>46</sup>David G. Blick, "Preservation and Interpretation of the Rural African-American Schoolhouses of Richland County, South Carolina, 1895-1954," M.A. thesis, Applied History Program, University of South Carolina, 1995; Rosters of Rosenwald Schools in South Carolina and check disbursements, Ca. 1924-1928

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These properties can provide invaluable physical information on the black school experience in South Carolina in a way that the printed word cannot convey. However small, primitive, or limited in beauty these schoolhouses were to school inspectors, they were important places in the life of the black community, both in an educational and a social sense. Their documentation, listing in the National Register, and preservation will underscore this important part of the African-American experience in South Carolina.

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Geographical Data

The boundaries of this multiple property submission are the geographical limits of the State of South Carolina.

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H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods: The properties included in this nomination were, in part, identified by a historic building survey of Lower Richland County conducted by the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office of the South Carolina Department of Archives and History and the Historic Columbia Foundation. This survey was conducted according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards. Those known properties outside the boundaries of the Lower Richland County survey were identified by research utilizing, among other source, historical maps, oral history interviews, and press releases intended to bring public input regarding the location of the cultural resources relating to this nomination.

Historical research was conducted by a University of South Carolina graduate student in the Applied History Program, David Blick, in the course of completing his master's thesis on African-American schools in Richland County, South Carolina. His research, in part, contributed to the general historical research for this multiple property submission. Further research was conducted in the records and publications of the State Superintendent of Education from 1895 to 1954 during the research and writing phases of this nomination, as well as in secondary sources not utilized in prior research.

The significant property types are based upon function and the historical time period from ca. 1895 to 1954. The nominations presently included under this multiple property submission are for the first two documented African-American schoolhouses in the first county surveyed for extent properties relating to this area and period of significance. The multiple property submission was written to include the entire state of South Carolina in order to encourage and facilitate future nominations of African-American schools from the other 45 counties, for valuable examples of such properties remain in virtually every county in the state.

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African-American Primary and Secondary Public School Buildings in S.C., ca.  
1895-1954 already listed in the National Register of Historic Places and Related  
to this Multiple Property Submission

	Date Listed
<b>BEAUFORT COUNTY</b>	
Daufuskie Island Historic District	6/2/82
Janie Hamilton School	
One-Room School	
Mary Field School	
Daufuskie School	
<b>CHARLESTON COUNTY</b>	
Seaside School	6/17/94
<b>CLARENDON COUNTY</b>	
Summerton High School	8/26/94
<b>HAMPTON COUNTY</b>	
Hampton Colored School	2/28/91

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