

ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY
OF
CHARLESTON COUNTY'S SCHOOL
EQUALIZATION PROGRAM
1951-1955



Prepared by
Rebekah Dobrasko
University of South Carolina
Public History Program

April 2005

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures	3
Project Summary	5
Project Objectives	5
Survey Methodology	6
Historical Overview	7
Properties Listed in the National Register within the Survey Area	21
Evaluation of Properties Recorded During Survey	21
Compiled Inventory of Properties	50
Recommendations	51
Appendix: Schools Receiving Equalization Funding	52
Bibliography	55

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Map of schools surveyed	5
2. Ladson Elementary School	7
3. Statewide distribution of schools	15
4. Charleston County school districts	17
5. Map of Charleston Old and Historic District	21
6. Haut Gap High and Elementary	24
7. Murray-Lasaine Elementary	25
8. Burke Vocational High	26
9. Memminger Elementary	27
10. East Bay Elementary	27
11. Map of Morningside Elementary	29
12. Map of North Charleston Graded	30
13. Map of Dorchester Terrace Elementary	30
14. Map of Six Mile Elementary	31
15. Map of Chicora Elementary	32
16. Chicora Elementary addition	32
17. Map of Columbus Street Elementary, Courtenay Elementary, Buist Elementary.....	33
18. Map of East Bay Elementary	34
19. Map of Memminger Elementary	35
20. Memminger Elementary	35
21. Map of Cut Bridge Elementary	36
22. Map of James Island Elementary and James Island High	37

23. Map of W. Gresham Meggett High and Elementary	38
24. Map of St. Andrews Elementary	39
25. Map of Stono Park Elementary	39
26. Stono Park Elementary	40
27. Map of Wallace Elementary and High	41
28. Map of Haut Gap High	41
29. Haut Gap High	42
30. Map of Rockville Elementary	42
31. Map of Miley Hill Elementary	43
32. Map of Baptist Hill High and Baptist Hill Elementary	43
33. Baptist Hill High	44
34. Map of Central Elementary	44
35. Map of Moultrie High	45
36. Map of Sullivan’s Island Elementary	46
37. Map of Laing High	46
38. Laing High	47
39. Map of Jennie Moore Elementary	47
40. Jennie Moore Elementary	48
41. Map of Lincoln High and Elementary	48
42. Map of Albemarle Elementary	49

I. Project Summary

The Architectural Survey of Charleston County's School Equalization Program, 1951-1955 surveyed a total of thirty-one schools and recorded a total of twenty-eight schools. These schools were constructed or renovated between 1951 and 1955 as part of a statewide effort to equalize black and white public school facilities to maintain segregation. The schools are found throughout Charleston County. Rebekah Dobrasko conducted the archival research and architectural survey between January and March 2005 as a project for the Charleston Field School (HIST 692) class.

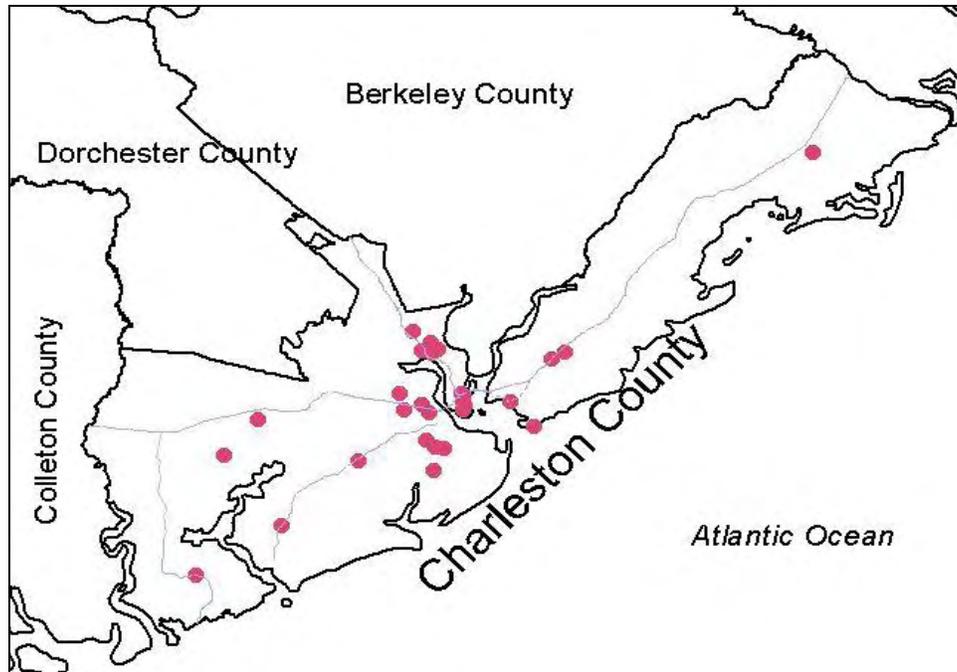


Figure 1. Location of schools surveyed in Charleston County.

II. Project Objectives

The purpose of the project is to record and photograph all new schools constructed in Charleston County as part of the statewide school equalization program. Several schools included in the project had significant additions constructed as part of the program. The survey compares white and black schools to evaluate the effects of equalization as new schools were similar in construction, design, and setting and makes recommendations for each school's eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

III. Survey Methodology

To identify the schools constructed in Charleston County as part of the school equalization program, the archives of the Charleston County School District, the records of the State Department of Education, the records of Governor James F. Byrnes, and historic newspapers were consulted. The Governor James F. Byrnes papers at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History provided the records of the State Educational Finance Commission, the state agency responsible for oversight of the equalization program. The records of the Charleston County School District provided information on construction dates, architects, and builders as well as blueprints and historic photographs of the schools. Although approximately forty-five schools in Charleston County received funding for renovations, new construction, and educational equipment as part of the equalization program, the survey only encompasses the new schools constructed as well as several schools with significant additions constructed as part of the program.

The properties surveyed for this project are evaluated under National Register Criterion A and Criterion C. Criterion A properties are associated with either a specific event marking an important moment in American prehistory or history or a pattern of events or a historic trend that made a significant contribution to the development of a community, a State, or the nation. Criterion C properties either embody distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; or represent the work of a master; or possess high artistic value; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction.¹

¹ United States Department of the Interior, *National Register Bulletin: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington, DC: Department of the Interior, 1997): 12, 17.

IV. Historical Overview

South Carolina's 1895 constitution established separate public schools for white and black children.² Although education in white schools was relatively poor, black schools were continually underfunded and ignored by both state and local governments. The black community was forced to raise money to support their children's education and teachers in the public schools. Parents in Charleston County relied on missionary societies and churches for educational purposes. Black teachers taught in overcrowded classrooms for small salaries, especially as compared to white teachers. In the rural areas of Charleston County, the school board crowded black students into small one- and two-teacher schools while white children attended larger schools.³



Figure 2. Ladson Elementary School, Charleston County, photograph c. 1920.⁴

The public school system in the city of Charleston shortchanged black students as well. As late as 1939, Charleston only had two state-accredited black high schools: Avery Normal Institute and Immaculate Conception. Both these schools were private and required black students to pay tuition to attend and receive a recognized high school diploma. The publicly-funded Burke Vocational was not accredited by the state. Elementary schools in the city continued to be overcrowded. In 1936, the city school board constructed the Henry P. Archer Elementary school for black students. Archer

² Pauli Murray, ed., *States' Laws on Race and Color*, Studies in the Legal History of the South, eds. Paul Finkelman and Kermit L. Hall (Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 1997), 406.

³ Septima Poinsette Clark, *Echo in My Soul* (New York: E.P. Dutton & Co., 1962), 36-37.

⁴ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Elementary was the last black school constructed until the 1950s.⁵ In 1942, Buist Elementary accommodated 1,073 black students although its classrooms were intended to hold only 420 students. Charleston's school board did not maintain its black schools and many of the buildings were deteriorating.⁶ The magnitude of problems in Charleston's black schools developed over decades of neglect and was indicative of conditions in black schools throughout South Carolina. School officials paid little attention to black education and disparities between the state's white and black public schools widened throughout the years.

The discrimination of black students led to a burgeoning black challenge to the Jim Crow system. The end of World War II brought economic, social, and racial changes to the state. Black soldiers returned from World War II with a determination to secure the democratic freedoms they had fought to defend abroad. The black civil rights movement accelerated during World War II and challenged voter restrictions, unequal teacher salaries, segregation in public transportation, and segregation in higher education. Through several victories in court, blacks gained the right to vote in state primaries, desegregated seating on interstate transportation, and equal salaries for black and white teachers in many states. Southern whites fought these court decisions and devised other ways to maintain white supremacy.⁷

In the late 1940s, the NAACP implemented and supported lawsuits in several Southern states demanding racial equalization in higher education facilities and in teacher salaries as a way to improve black education. White politicians and school officials kept a wary eye on the results of these court cases. Several Southern states, including Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina, began to make superficial attempts to equalize black and white schools. Upon the recommendation of a Mississippi legislative committee appointed to study the state's school system in 1946, Governor Thomas Bailey and the legislature approved \$3 million to build public schools throughout the state. The Mississippi legislature supposedly intended the funds to be spent on black school construction, but most of the money went to white schools. Georgia's 1949 legislative session included a bill changing state appropriations for teacher salaries and school construction. The bill did not provide any new funding, but required equalization of state allotments for white and black public schools.⁸

⁵ Burchell Richardson Moore, "A History of the Negro Public Schools of Charleston, South Carolina, 1867-1942," (M.A. thesis, University of South Carolina, 1942), 41.

⁶ Millicent Brown, "Civil Rights Activism in Charleston, South Carolina, 1940-1970," (Ph.D. diss., Florida State University, 1992), 30-32.

⁷ See Patricia Sullivan, *Days of Hope: Race and Democracy in the New Deal Era* (Chapel Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 1996) for a discussion of the emerging civil rights movement during World War II and in the postwar era.

⁸ Thomas Victor O'Brien, "Georgia's Response to *Brown v. Board of Education*: The Rise and Fall of Massive Resistance, 1949-1961" (Ph.D. diss., Emory University, 1992), 57-58; Charles C. Bolton, "Mississippi's School Equalization Program, 1945-1954: 'A Last Gasp to Try to Maintain a Segregated Educational System,'" *Journal of Southern History* 66 (November 2000), 794-795.

Until the NAACP filed lawsuits in a state, the majority of politicians and citizens in the South did not support the efforts by a few whites to minimally equalize black and white schools until the NAACP filed lawsuits in a state. These suits caused many white politicians to attempt change. In 1948, teacher Gladys Noel Bates filed suit against her school district in Jackson, Mississippi demanding equal pay. Although Bates ultimately lost her case, state legislators increasingly began to support equalization measures in Mississippi. Georgia's governor Herman Talmadge gained the public's support for a sales tax funding educational improvements in the state after the NAACP filed an equalization lawsuit in Irwin County in 1949. In 1950, black parents in rural Clarendon County, South Carolina filed a lawsuit demanding equal school facilities for their children, which eventually led to the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision.⁹

State legislators in several Deep South states initiated legislation to appropriate funds for school equalization to preempt a Supreme Court decision ordering desegregation. Local school boards in Birmingham, Alabama and Shreveport, Louisiana issued bonds to equalize schools within their local district.¹⁰ Georgia proposed a sales tax to support an \$81,649,380 appropriation to fund equalization of teacher salaries and educational expenditures for both races. The state sold bonds to help construct new school buildings. However, the legislature disagreed over the best way to distribute the funds, and Georgia's General Assembly adjourned in 1952 without passing the sales tax. Governor Talmadge issued an executive order in 1953 granting state control over the distribution of building funds for one year until the legislators could agree on an equalization bill. The *Brown* decision ended any further attempts on Georgia's part to equalize schools.¹¹ In 1950, Mississippi's legislature appropriated two million dollars exclusively for black school construction in the state. Out of the total state funds approved for school construction by 1953, about half of the funds went to black school construction. Mississippi continued its attempts to equalize black schools after the *Brown* decision in 1954, spending \$67 million between 1954 and 1960 in a failed attempt to keep integration out of the state.¹² South Carolina's equalization program followed the efforts of Georgia and Mississippi, including both a three-cent sales tax and a \$75 million bond issue to pay for new schools.¹³

⁹ O'Brien, "Georgia's Response," 72; Bolton, "Mississippi," 799; Richard Kluger, *Simple Justice: The History of Brown v. Board of Education and Black America's Struggle for Equality* (New York: Vintage Books, 2004), 23.

¹⁰ "Dr. Banks Showered with Questions on Segregation," *Birmingham News*, n.d., Part 3, Series C, reel 1, Papers of the NAACP, Thomas Cooper Library, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC (hereafter NAACP Papers); Adam Fairclough, *Race & Democracy: The Civil Rights Struggle in Louisiana, 1915-1972* (Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press, 1995), 164.

¹¹ O'Brien, "Georgia's Response," 102-105; "Assembly Adjourns, Killing School Bill," no newspaper name, 13 February 1952, Part 3, Series C, reel 9, NAACP Papers.

¹² Bolton, "Mississippi," 801, 813; Jennifer Baughn, "Mississippi's Equalization Plan Building Program, 1946-1961," paper presented at 2004 Southeastern Society of Architectural Historians Annual Meeting, 28 October 2004.

Despite these last-minute efforts on the part of southern politicians, the NAACP continued to fight state funding inequalities in education through persistent lawsuits throughout the South. However, the NAACP shifted tactics in its higher education cases away from equalization. Two NAACP-supported lawsuits, *Sweatt v. Painter* originating in Texas and *McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education*, argued that Texas' and Oklahoma's practices of segregation in higher education did not provide blacks with the educational and professional opportunities as those provided to whites. Deciding in favor of the plaintiffs, the Supreme Court ordered the desegregation of the University of Texas law school and the University of Oklahoma graduate school on 5 June 1950.¹⁴ To white politicians and lawyers, it seemed likely that the NAACP's next target for integration would be the South's elementary and secondary schools.

On the day that the Supreme Court issued its ruling in the Texas and Oklahoma cases, James Byrnes announced his candidacy for governor of South Carolina. As a lawyer and former associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, Byrnes understood the implications of the school equalization and desegregation cases. Byrnes had a long and distinguished political career before campaigning for governor of his home state. Born in 1882 in Charleston, South Carolina, Byrnes studied law, clerked for a district court judge in Aiken, and entered political life as court solicitor in 1908. Byrnes became the United States representative for the Second District of South Carolina in 1910, and later served as United States senator, justice of the Supreme Court, the United States Secretary of State, and Franklin Roosevelt's "assistant president." Byrnes enjoyed a short retirement from public life before he decided to run for governor of South Carolina at the age of sixty-eight.¹⁵

Conscious of the recent Supreme Court decisions in the *Sweatt* and *McLaurin* cases, the poor system of black education in South Carolina, and the implications for future cases involving segregation in elementary schools, Byrnes believed the state needed to improve schools for both black and white students. "We should provide [equal schools] because it is right and not wait until we are forced by the United States courts to provide them." By eliminating inequalities in education, Byrnes hoped to reduce the

¹³ Howard Quint, *Profile in Black and White: A Frank Portrait of South Carolina* (Washington, DC: Public Affairs Press, 1958) provides an overview of the school equalization program and other massive resistance legislation passed in South Carolina to preempt desegregation.

¹⁴ Mark Tushnet, *The NAACP's Legal Strategy Against Segregated Education, 1925-1950* (Chapel Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 1987), 131-136; Richard Kluger, *Simple Justice: The History of Brown v. Board of Education and Black America's Struggle for Equality* (New York: Vintage Books, 2004), 259-268.

¹⁵ See David Robertson, *Sly and Able: A Political Biography of James F. Byrnes* (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 1994). Although many sources cite Byrnes' age as seventy-one when he became governor, Robertson relates that Byrnes' assumed his older sister's birth date, in order to enter the workforce at an earlier age.

rates of adult illiteracy in South Carolina and promised to draft legislation and push for educational reform if South Carolinians elected him governor.¹⁶

Byrnes easily won the election. In his inaugural address in 1951, he detailed his plans to improve education. Acknowledging the disparities in taxes between the rural and urban areas, Byrnes declared, “We will never be able to give the boys and girls in the rural sections of the State the school buildings and equipment to which they are entitled as long as these facilities are furnished only by taxes on the real property of a school district.”¹⁷ Byrnes revealed more details of his educational plan to the General Assembly on 24 January 1951. Governor Byrnes based his recommendations on the 1948 Peabody survey and a 1950 report from the House of Representatives supporting a sales tax to fund educational improvements. Byrnes recommended a three-cent sales tax to fund a statewide school building program. He also recommended a bond issue of \$75 million as a quick fundraiser for the educational program. The General Assembly would use the proceeds from the sales tax to pay the interest and principal on these bonds.¹⁸ While a sales tax and bond issue would lessen the disparities between black and white schools and improve education, the General Assembly had not supported sales taxes in the past. Byrnes’ educational improvements could stall without the approval of the legislators.

Byrnes attempted to use the 1950 Supreme Court decisions in the Texas and Oklahoma cases and his political stature to convince legislators to pass his school equalization package before a court decision forced the state to equalize its schools. Yet Byrnes received the General Assembly’s support for his three-cent school tax after a direct threat to South Carolina’s racially segregated schools. In 1949, encouraged by the leadership of Reverend J.A. DeLaine and the support of the NAACP, black parents in the Summerton area of Clarendon County filed a petition with the local school district. This petition requested equal school facilities and equipment for black children in Summerton. The petitioners insisted on their right to equal educational opportunities, although many suffered harsh economic reprisals implemented by whites in the Summerton area. On 17 May 1950, undeterred by the white response in Clarendon, the NAACP filed the school

¹⁶ Speech announcing candidacy for governor, 5 June 1950; James F. Byrnes, Re: Supreme Court Decisions, n.d., folder 4, box 12, Special Collections, Clemson University Libraries, Clemson, SC (hereafter CSC); Address by James F. Byrnes, 12 June 1950, folder 13, box 11, CSC; James F. Byrnes Radio Speech, 26 June 1950, folder 16, box 11, CSC.

¹⁷ Inaugural Address of James F. Byrnes as Governor of South Carolina in Columbia, South Carolina, January 16, 1951, Speeches and Press Releases, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAAH.

¹⁸ Address of the Honorable James F. Byrnes, Governor of South Carolina to the General Assembly, Columbia, SC, Wednesday, January 24, 1951; Address of James F. Byrnes, Governor of South Carolina, to the South Carolina Education Association in Annual Meeting in Township Auditorium at Columbia, S.C., at 8 p.m., March 16, 1951, Speeches and Press Releases, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAAH.

equalization case known as *Briggs v. Elliott* in the federal district court in Charleston, South Carolina.¹⁹

The case, as originally filed, accused white Clarendon County school officials of refusing to uphold the law requiring that segregated facilities be equal. Judge J. Waites Waring, the federal district court judge assigned to *Briggs v. Elliott*, conferred with attorney Thurgood Marshall after Marshall filed the suit. Waring believed that Marshall and the NAACP should challenge the system of segregation itself, and encouraged Marshall to refile the case to reflect an attack on segregation. After debate within the NAACP over the chances of winning the case based on segregation as opposed to equalization, Marshall refiled *Briggs v. Elliott* and went to trial on 28 May 1951 before a three-judge panel.²⁰ Whites in Clarendon County needed Byrnes' school equalization program to support the judicial precedent of "separate but equal" to maintain segregated schools.

South Carolina's white politicians scrambled to put Byrnes' proposed legislation in place to bolster their defense of segregation. Attorney Robert McCormick Figg, counsel for the Clarendon County school district in the lawsuit, relied heavily on the promise of increased funding for black schools in preparing his defense before the federal district court. To counter the plaintiffs' key point of unequal school facilities, Figg needed to prove to the court that the state was committed to equalizing black and white schools. Figg pressured Byrnes to pass the equalization bond issue and sales tax before the *Briggs* case went to trial. The bill became law one month before the trial began, and the State Educational Finance Commission, created to administer the equalization funds, began meeting only three weeks before Figg had to argue his case before the district court.²¹

The members of the Educational Finance Commission included the governor as ex-officio chairman, the state superintendent of education as ex-officio member, and five additional members appointed by the governor. Governor Byrnes, as chairman, appointed businessman Elliott White Springs of Lancaster, bank president Dewey H. Johnson of Greenwood, attorney David W. Robinson of Columbia, attorney J.C. Long of Charleston, and Dr. Lawrence Peter Hollis, retired superintendent of schools in Greenville as the first members of the commission. The Educational Finance Commission had the power to approve school construction plans and district

¹⁹ Kluger, *Simple Justice*, 18-25; Benjamin F. Hornsby, *Stepping Stone to the Supreme Court: Clarendon County, South Carolina* (Columbia, SC: South Carolina Department of Archives and History, 1992), 7.

²⁰ David W. Southern, "Beyond Jim Crow Liberalism: Judge Waring's Fight Against Segregation in South Carolina, 1942-52," *The Journal of Negro History* 66 (Autumn 1981): 219-220; Kluger, *Simple Justice*, 72-73.

²¹ Kluger, *Simple Justice*, 344-345.

consolidation and to implement and oversee the new transportation program controlled by the state.²²

The new law required all revenue from the tax be spent on equalizing educational facilities. Each school district would receive fifteen dollars per year per pupil in average daily attendance for twenty years, until 1971. However, as Byrnes explained, “instead of spreading it out over [twenty years], we issued bonds in order to make possible at an earlier date the equalization of facilities as between races.”²³ Counties could borrow money from the state for current projects based on the projection of the total amount of money the county would receive over twenty years. For example, Charleston County had 27,728 students in average daily attendance for the 1949-1950 school year. With the allotment of fifteen dollars per child for the next twenty years, Charleston County would receive \$6,238,800 to spend on equalization projects throughout the county. Money distributed to local school boards through this program could only be used for “establishing and maintaining adequate physical facilities for the public school system, and/or the payment of existing debt therefore, and for no other purpose.”²⁴

To assist counties in preparing applications for funds, the Educational Finance Commission established criteria for school consolidation. The commission required that elementary schools have at least one teacher for each grade, while high schools must have an enrollment of at least eighty-three students in each grade. Based on the advice of the state Attorney General and the results of previous equalization cases decided by the Supreme Court, the commission required that districts must operate one high school for each race. If a district had more than one high school for each race, the commission encouraged consolidation. In an effort to recognize the importance of schools to communities, the commission encouraged counties to disregard county lines for certain communities that sent students to a school in an adjoining county.²⁵ The Educational Finance Commission distributed state funds to school districts with the intent of equalizing facilities between the races, and gave districts with obvious disparities in black school buildings priority in receiving funding.²⁶

²² “Excerpts from General Appropriations Act,” Publications; Press-radio release, 22 April 1951, Speeches and Press Releases, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH.

²³ James F. Byrnes to L. Marion Gressette, 29 January 1954, *Briggs v. Elliott*, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH

²⁴ “Excerpts from General Appropriations Act,” Publications; “Estimate of State Apportionment of Building Funds Under Proposed Building Program (Based on Average Daily Attendance for 1949-50), General Subjects, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH.

²⁵ Untitled, undated, typewritten sheet, State Agencies, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH.

²⁶ E.R. Crow, director, to County Superintendents of Education, 6 April 1954, Speeches and Press Releases, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH.

The commission also distributed a guide for project architects and administrators applying for funds, as the law required school districts to hire registered architects to draw plans and to hire licensed contractors to complete the work. The commission approved all new school sites before the architect drew plans for a new school building. Plans submitted for approval were required to include topographical plots, plans of all floors of the new school, elevations, furniture layouts that represented specialized classrooms like home economic rooms or science laboratories, and a description of materials planned for the building. Architects submitted preliminary and final plans for approval as well as any plans for the remodeling or rehabilitation for existing school buildings.²⁷ The commission's control over local building plans ensured that schools would be properly planned according to the county's previously-submitted school plant survey.

By the end of 1955, the Educational Finance Commission and many educators believed that black schools were substantially equal to white schools. Every school district in the state had a black high school completed or under construction. The Educational Finance Commission pushed for all approved black high schools to open for the 1955-1956 school year. Because of the *Briggs* case and possible outcomes, the first years of the program ensured black elementary and high school projects had precedence over other needed construction. As districts finished construction and improvement of black schools, the commission funded more white school construction projects. By 1963, the year black Charlestonians won their legal fight to desegregate their public school system, the funds distributed for building projects had relatively equalized between the races. The Educational Finance Commission had approved over \$214 million in building projects since the inception of the program, with 53.9 percent of the total funds appropriated for white schools and 46.1 percent of the funds appropriated for black schools. The state Department of Education assumed the roles and responsibilities of the Educational Finance Commission in 1966.²⁸

²⁷ "A Guide for School Architects and School Administrators Dealing with School Plants," State Agencies, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH.

²⁸ E.R. Crow to County Superintendents of Education, 6 April 1954, Speeches and Press Releases,; Press-radio release, 31 August 1954, Speeches and Press Releases, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH; "Text of Timmerman's Address to General Assembly," *The State*, 27 January 1955; "Building Projects, January 10, 1963," Topical Files, Governor Ernest F. Hollings Papers, SCDAH; Francis Marion Kirk, *South Carolina Education, 1710-1965* (Columbia: South Carolina Department of Education, 1966), 58.

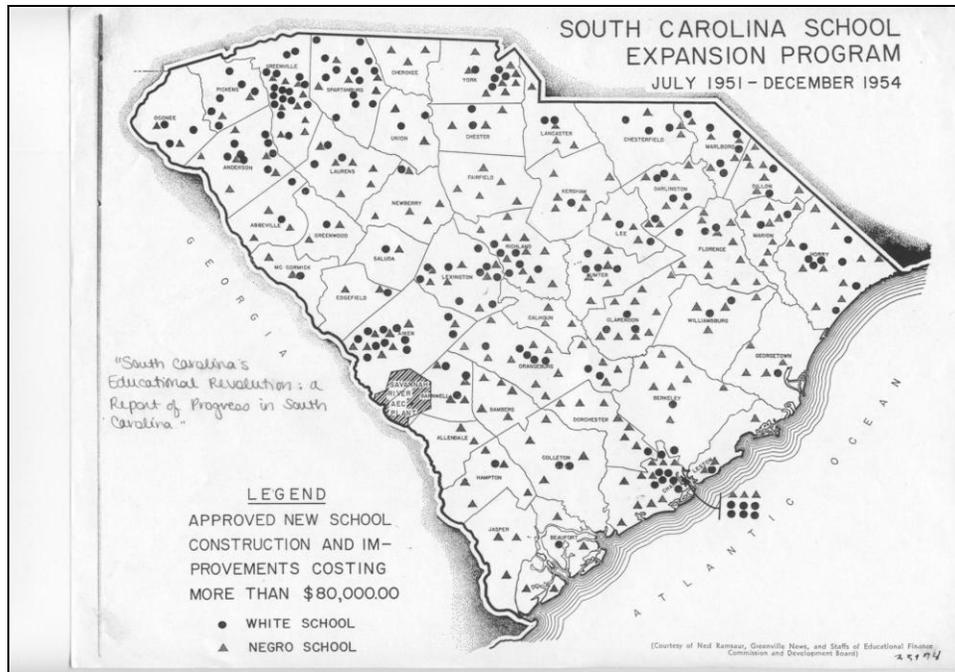


Figure 3. Educational Finance Commission map showing statewide distribution of schools.²⁹

Charleston County provides a case study of the local struggle to implement the state’s school equalization program. The county, with an urban center and rural outlying areas on the coast of South Carolina, is illustrative of the movement throughout the state toward consolidation, racial equalization, and new school design. Charleston school board officials confronted angry black parents over the distribution of the building funds and their lack of attention to deficiencies in black schools. Despite these conflicts, the county’s school equalization and construction program proceeded rapidly and implemented architectural and educational design trends in the new schools.

World War II contributed to a rapid growth in population throughout the county, as the Charleston Naval Base and Shipyard, Naval Weapons Station, and Charleston Air Force Base drew workers to the area.³⁰ The 1950 census reported that out of 164,856 residents of the county, seventy-three percent of these residents lived in the city of Charleston. Forty-one percent of the county’s residents were African American. In 1949, Charleston County had the second-largest number of students attending its public schools. The county school system was sharply divided between the city of Charleston and the outlying rural areas that comprised most of the county. The county school population included twenty-nine white schools with 379 teachers and 10,410 students, while sixty-seven black schools held 9,471 students with 234 teachers. The county school districts only operated three black high schools for students as opposed to seven

²⁹ “South Carolina’s Educational Revolution: A Report of Progress in South Carolina,” (Columbia: State Educational Finance Commission, c. 1955).

³⁰ William D. Smyth, “Segregation in Charleston in the 1950s: A Decade of Transition,” *South Carolina Historical Magazine* 92 (April 1991): 100.

for whites. Charleston County's schools were divided into twenty-three school districts.³¹

In 1948, the city of Charleston's school district voted to conduct a citywide survey of its schools to "evaluate the present school program and to get help with many serious problems." The black population of the peninsula was increasing due to employment opportunities at Charleston's military installations while many white families with school-age children moved out of the city into the suburban areas. This change in population resulted in overcrowding in black schools as many classrooms in white schools went unused. The city district hired a survey team from the George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, the same organization that provided South Carolina with a statewide survey of its public schools. The report recommended closing deteriorated schools, constructing new elementary schools for black students, and acquiring outdoor space for playgrounds and exercise for children attending the schools.³² Charleston's city school officials realized the need for changes in the public schools and began plans to upgrade and construct new schools before the creation of the State Educational Finance Commission in 1951.

Since Charleston's school officials commissioned the survey in 1948, the district had little time to implement the survey's recommendations before funds became available to the district through the 1951 equalization measure. In 1950, George C. Rogers, the superintendent of the Charleston City District, recommended to the board of school commissioners a bond issue to construct new schools to ease overcrowding in the district. The new state education legislation passed before the city could vote on a school building bond, and the city decided to wait for funds to become available to the district before constructing any new schools.³³

As part of the required consolidation and school survey to receive state equalization funds, the county superintendent of education, G. Creighton Frampton, submitted the Peabody College's survey of the Charleston city schools to the Educational Finance Commission. The survey would be used to determine the equalization priorities for the city of Charleston under the new legislation. Dr. Floyd Jordan of Emory University surveyed the county districts' schools and recommended consolidating the county's twenty-three school districts into nine districts. Jordan's survey also called for

³¹ 1950 *United States Census of Population, General Characteristics, South Carolina* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, United States Government Printing Office, 1952); "County School Districts May Be Revamped," *News and Courier*, 20 January 1950, 1; Bryan Collier, "City School System Making Big Strides Toward Racial Parity," *News and Courier*, 24 September 1950, 7-A.

³² "Peabody Survey of City Schools Voted by Board," *News and Courier*, 15 September 1948, 1; "Reports Recommends Sweeping Changes in City School Set-Up," *News and Courier*, 31 May 1949, 1; *Public Schools of Charleston, South Carolina: A Survey Report* (Nashville, TN: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1949).

³³ City Board of School Commissioners, Board Minutes, School District 20, 8 May 1951; Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

consolidation of many rural black schools. The county's consolidated nine school districts still exist today (Figure 3).³⁴

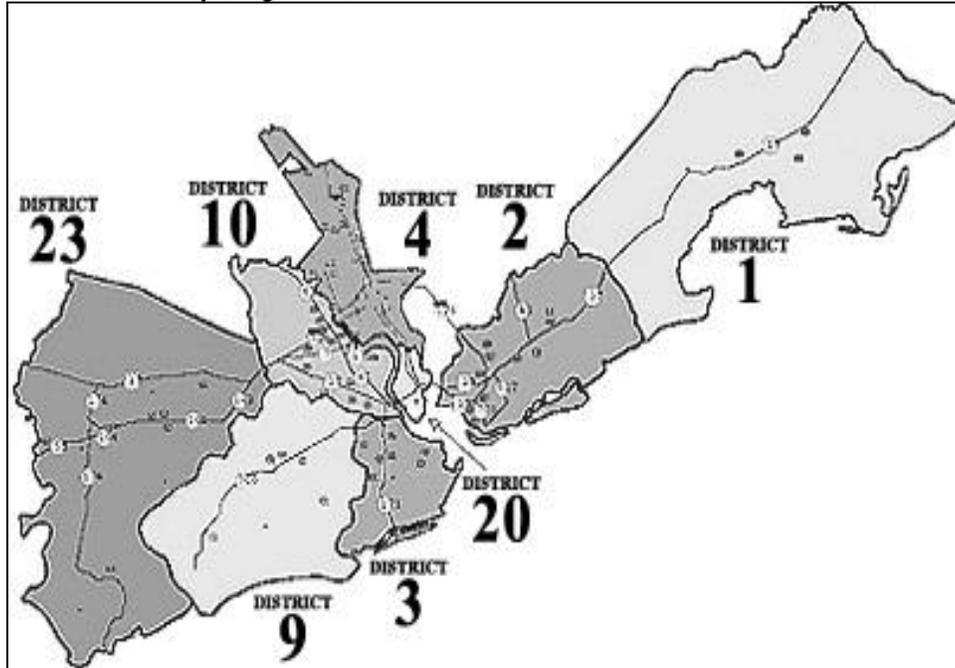


Figure 4. Layout of Charleston County Districts. District 20 encompasses the city of Charleston.³⁵

The Educational Finance Commission approved the county's school survey and reorganization plans in February 1952. The approval meant that the commission would accept architectural drawings, site plans, and requests for funding for the top three construction priorities for equalization within each district. School districts quickly submitted architectural plans for needed schools, and Charleston County's school equalization and consolidation project began.³⁶

The locations of Charleston County's new schools reflect the changes in population distribution. As many white families moved out of the city of Charleston, the white population of West Ashley, the name of the suburb developed west of the Ashley River, increased. Many of the new schools constructed in this area, such as Stono Park Elementary, Albemarle Elementary, and St. Andrews Elementary were for white

³⁴ City Board of School Commissioners, Board Minutes, School District 20, 7 November 1951; Bryan Collier, "Charleston County's New School Plans are Simple, Inexpensive, and Effective," *News and Courier*, 21 October 1951.

³⁵ Map taken from www.ccsdschools.com. The school districts include St. James-Santee District 1, which encompasses the area around McClellanville; Moultrie District 2, which includes Mt. Pleasant; James Island District 3, encompassing James Island; Cooper River District 4, which includes the city of North Charleston; St. John's District 9, including John's Island and Rockville; St. Andrews District 10, encompassing schools west of the Ashley River; Charleston District 20, including the peninsula of Charleston; and St. Paul's District 23, which covers Hollywood, Edisto Island, and Rantowles.

³⁶ "Full State Approval Is Given School Plans," *News and Courier*, 13 February 1952, 6-A.

students. World War II increased jobs in the defense industries located in Charleston, such as the Naval Base and the Naval Weapons Station and many black families found ready employment working for the government. These families settled in the North Charleston area and most of the schools constructed in North Charleston were for black students, such as Bonds-Wilson High, Liberty Hill Elementary, and Bethune Elementary. The rural areas of the county remained predominantly black and W. Gresham Meggett Elementary and High, Lincoln Elementary and High, and Rockville Elementary served rural black students.

Although Charleston County's school equalization program resulted in the construction of materially equal black and white schools, local school officials reluctantly implemented the program. Opposition to constructing black schools emerged in the planning stages for the state's equalization funds. Charleston City District 20 proposed an equal distribution of funds between white and black schools in the city. The 1949 Peabody survey of Charleston's schools identified problems and buildings needs for both black and white schools, and Charleston's white school officials wanted to provide new white schools for the community as well. The city district's proposal in 1952 to distribute funds equally between white and black schools outraged black parents, who historically supplemented black schools with their own money. They wanted to finally receive state funding for black education that would compensate for decades of inequitable distribution of public funds.

The statewide equalization program provided the first opportunity for Charleston's black community to receive new schools and improve the poor state of education in the city. As late as 1939, Charleston only had two state-accredited black high schools: Avery Normal Institute and Immaculate Conception. Both these schools were private and required black students to pay tuition to attend and receive a recognized high school diploma. The publicly-funded Burke Vocational was not accredited by the state. Elementary schools in the city continued to be overcrowded. In 1942, Buist Elementary accommodated 1,073 black students although its classrooms were intended to hold only 420 students. Charleston's school board did not maintain its black schools and many of the buildings were deteriorating.³⁷ The magnitude of problems in Charleston's black schools developed over decades of neglect and the district's proposed equal distribution of state building funds did not address the existing inequalities between black and white schools.

Representatives from the city's leading black organizations, including the Council of City Parent Teacher Associations and the Charleston NAACP, presented a petition to the city's school board demanding that Charleston's officials improve black schools. The four-page petition detailed the existing inequalities among black and white schools in Charleston. The value of the school plants for white students in 1952 was \$1,993,560 while black school values totaled \$1,349,100. While the total value of school plants was relatively equal, the petition demonstrated that 4,574 white students attended Charleston's schools and 6,537 black students attended, bringing the property valuation

³⁷ Brown, "Civil Rights Activism," 30-32.

of the schools to \$435 for every white student and only \$206 for every black student. The petition also discussed the inequalities in curriculum offered in the city, especially between the white vocational school at Murray and the black vocational school at Burke. Black parents argued that equalizing funding would not equalize the schools as promised by the state legislation.³⁸

The city school district quietly abandoned its funding plan, although it did use funds to construct two new white elementary schools in addition to new black school construction. The county school district also struggled with improving black schools over white demands for improvements and the inequalities between white and black schools remained. Black parents in Charleston continued to pressure the city school board for an additional black high school to accommodate students. Burke Vocational was the only public black school in the city. Parents also demanded gymnasiums and auditoriums for the new schools. School officials remained reluctant to provide amenities to black schools. The Moultrie District 2 board deemed a football field for the new black Laing High in Mount Pleasant “not practical.”³⁹

As the school equalization program continued in Charleston County, the *Charleston News and Courier* proudly reported on the progress made throughout the county although many black parents and students remained unsatisfied with the equalization efforts. By 1953, a survey of the school building program by the newspaper reported 25 building projects in the county, exclusive of city schools. Fourteen of the new school buildings or additions were for black students, while 11 of the schools housed white students. Charleston County received over \$6 million for school equalization by 1953 and the county spent over \$4 million on black school construction and renovation in an effort to erase some of the inequalities.⁴⁰ While black students attended new schools throughout Charleston, their schools lacked many of the amenities given to white schools, such as libraries, auditoriums, and athletic fields. White resistance to the building program ensured that true equalization never occurred.

By 1955, Charleston County school districts spent the majority of their appropriations from the equalization funds on black school construction. St. James-Santee District 1 and St. Paul’s District 23, the two least-populated districts in the county, did not spend any money on white school construction during the initial equalization period. St. Andrews District 10, which encompassed the area of West Ashley, gained

³⁸ “To the School Boards of School District #20—City of Charleston and Charleston County,” 1952, box 7, folder 7, J. Arthur Brown Papers, Avery Research Center, Charleston, SC; R. Scott Baker, “Ambiguous Legacies: The NAACP’s Legal Campaign Against Segregation in Charleston, South Carolina, 1935-1975” (Ph.D. diss., Columbia University, 1993), 152.

³⁹ “Minutes of the South Carolina School Committee,” 15 July 1954, State Agencies file, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH; District 2 Board Minute Books, 8 September 1953, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁴⁰ Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

many white families moving to the suburbs from the city of Charleston and was the only district that spent more money constructing white schools than black schools.⁴¹ By 1955, forty-six schools throughout the county received money for new construction, additions, equipment and renovations.⁴²

Despite the millions of dollars spent in Charleston County and throughout South Carolina on school equalization, the state's effort to forestall an adverse court decision failed. On 17 May 1954 the United States Supreme Court ruled segregation in the public schools unconstitutional in *Brown v. Board of Education*, which had incorporated South Carolina's *Briggs v. Elliott* desegregation suit. For South Carolina's black citizens, this decision served as encouragement for the civil rights movement and the fight for equal rights and treatment, especially within the educational system in the state.⁴³ In 1955, fifty-seven black parents in Charleston attempted to enroll their children in white Charleston City District 20 schools. Black parents in Cooper River District 4 also signed a petition to transfer their children to white schools. Even though the Charleston County school districts spent millions of dollars to equalize black school facilities, their efforts did not satisfy the black community. School officials continued to ignore and evade the petitions and requests for transfer until 1963, when a federal circuit court ruled in favor of the plaintiffs in *Millicent F. Brown et al. v. School Board District No. 20*, desegregating Charleston's public school system. Charleston was the first city in South Carolina to integrate its schools as required by a court order.⁴⁴

⁴¹ E.R. Crow to James F. Byrnes, 21 May 1954, State Agencies, Educational Finance Commission, Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH.

⁴² See appendix for listing of schools receiving money from the state.

⁴³ The positive account of Richard Kluger's *Simple Justice: The History of Brown v. Board of Education and Black America's Struggle for Equality* (New York: Vintage Books, 2004) remains the definitive history of the five cases that comprised *Brown*. See also Constance Baker Motley's "The Legacy of *Brown v. Board of Education*," *Teacher's College Record* 96 (Summer 1995): 637-642; Robert L. Carter's "A Reassessment of *Brown v. Board*" in *Shades of Brown: New Perspectives on School Desegregation*, ed. Derrick Bell (New York: Teacher's College Press, 1980): 21-28; and Mark Tushnet's *The NAACP's Legal Strategy Against Segregated Education, 1925-1950* (Chapel Hill, NC: The University of North Carolina Press, 1987). James T. Patterson's *Brown v. Board of Education: A Civil Rights Milestone and Its Troubled Legacy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001) details the historiographical debates over the positive and negative effects of *Brown*.

⁴⁴ Brown, "Civil Rights Activism," 76-77, 88-89.

V. Evaluation of Recorded Properties
a. Properties Listed in the National Register within the Survey Area

None of the schools surveyed as part of the project is individually listed on the National Register. Only four of the schools surveyed fall within a National Register district. Charleston's Old and Historic District and eligible boundary expansion contains four of the schools: Memminger Elementary, Courtenay Elementary, Buist Elementary, and Wilmot Fraser Elementary. The schools are non-contributing to the Old and Historic District because the dates of construction or alteration are outside the dates of significance for the district and boundary extension.

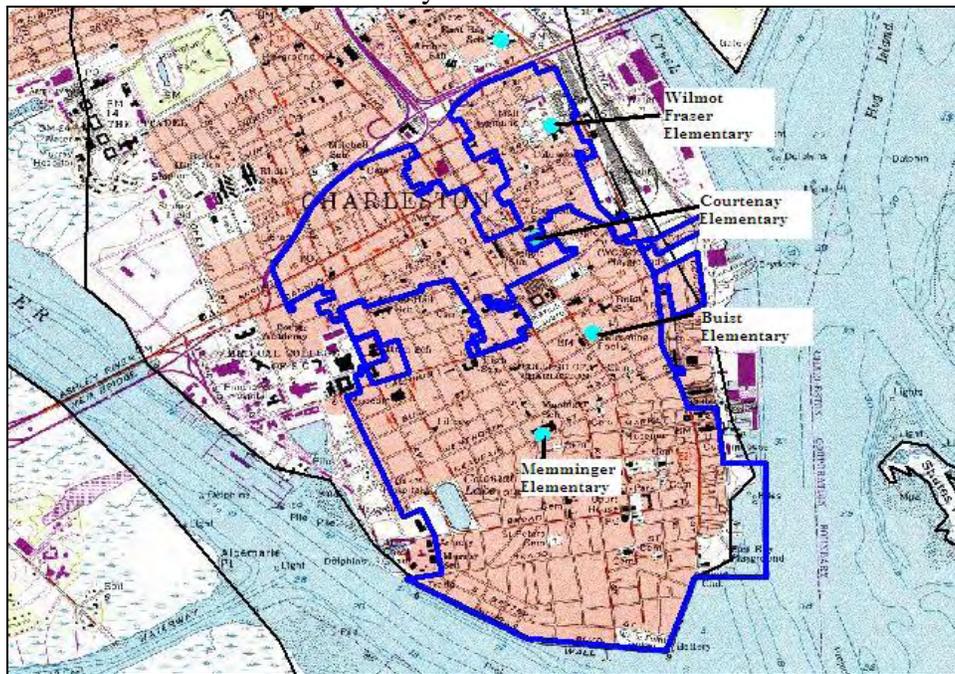


Figure 5. Location of surveyed schools within Charleston Old and Historic District and Eligible Boundary Expansion (base map USGS *Charleston* quad)

The Andrew B. Murray Vocational School, located on the Charleston peninsula and listed on the National Register in 2002, received a new automobile shop, gymnasium, and administrative offices as part of the equalization program. While Murray Vocational is not listed on the National Register for its association with the program, the nomination does not acknowledge the equalization program.⁴⁵

b. Evaluation of Properties Recorded During Survey

The schools constructed as part of Charleston County's school equalization program represent the intersection modern, national architectural trends and the postwar baby boom with South Carolina's fight to maintain racially-segregated public schools.

⁴⁵ Karen Nickless, "Andrew B. Murray Vocational School, Charleston County," National Register nomination, 19 February 2002.

The state's modern schools were funded by a three-cent sales tax designed to equalize black and white public schools. Nationally-recognized educational consultants worked with Charleston County's architects to design schools based on postwar thinking about educational processes and architecture. The new design trends were applied to both black and white schools, resulting in materially equal school plants.

In postwar America, educators began to reassess the values and needs of schools due to circumstances created by World War II. The war limited building opportunities as military efforts commanded the majority of the United States' supply of lumber, steel, and construction workers. Schools constructed during the war were mostly temporary because few school districts had the ability to permanently improve their school plants during the war.⁴⁶ In addition to the lack of construction, the return of American soldiers from World War II resulted in an increase in the United States' birth rate. Educators assessed the number of classrooms needed to educate these children and urged school districts to build new school plants to accommodate the increase in students. Because these children would first enter elementary school, school administrators, architects, and educational consultants focused their ideas and efforts on the design and construction of elementary schools at the beginning of the 1950s.⁴⁷

Educators and architects realized that the schools constructed in the past were not suitable for educational needs of the present. In schools designed in the first half of the twentieth century, equipment such as desks and chairs were nailed to the floor limiting the mobility of children and teachers in the classroom. Lighting and ventilation in older schools were not conducive to education, as some areas of the classroom received more light than others and the overall air flow was poor. School administrators realized the need to change these aspects of the classroom and a prolific amount of literature emerged to help school boards, architects, and lay people understand the need for these changes and suggest ways to implement change in new school design.⁴⁸

⁴⁶ Reginald E. Marsh, "Trends in Materials and Design," *Review of Educational Research*, 15 (February 1945): 54.

⁴⁷ John W. McLeod, "New Ideas in School Construction," in *AIA School Plant Studies, A Selection: 1952-1962*, ed. Eric Pawley, AIA (New York: American Institute of Architects, 1962), 63. See also N.L. Engelhardt, N.L. Engelhardt, Jr., and Stanton Leggett, *School Planning and Building Handbook* (New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1956), N.L. Engelhardt, N.L. Engelhardt, Jr. and Stanton Leggett, *Planning Elementary School Buildings* (New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1953); C. William Brubaker, *Planning and Designing Schools*, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1998), 15.

⁴⁸ For contemporary discussions of educational trends, planning, and architecture, see Brubaker, *Planning and Designing Schools*, Edward A. Campbell, "New Spaces and Places for Learning," *The School Review* 68 (Autumn 1960): 346-352; William W. Caudill, *Toward Better School Design*, (New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1954), William W. Cutler, III, "Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice Since 1820," *History of Education Quarterly* 29 (Spring 1989): 1-40; Engelhardt et al., *School Planning*; Engelhardt et al., *Planning Elementary School Buildings*; N.L. Engelhardt, N.L. Engelhardt, Jr., and Stanton Leggett, *Planning Secondary School Buildings* (New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1949); N.L. Engelhardt, Jr., "Trends in School Architecture and Design," *Review of Educational Research* 12 (April 1942): 171-177; 1958 NSCS Guide; Charles S. Johnson, "Next Steps in Education in the South," *Phylon (1940-1956)* 15 (First Quarter 1954): 7-20; Reginald E. Marsh, "Trend in Materials and Design," *Review of Educational Research* 15 (February 1945):

Charleston County's school architects followed many of the national planning and design trends. Easy expansion led to the most significant architectural change in school buildings constructed after World War II. One-story, flat-roofed buildings easily accommodated additions (Figure 6). Haut Gap High and Elementary, a black school on Johns Island constructed in 1951, "was designed with...additions in mind."⁴⁹ One-story schools also eliminated the need for staircases and fire escapes from upper floors, contributing to the safety of the new schools. Classrooms located on one floor provided easy access to the outside for the students. Better light and ventilation solutions could be found for one-story schools. The smaller-scaled schools had psychological benefits as well. As one architect discovered, "We want buildings which are friendly to children. We believe that the low-lying, sprawled-out type of building, close to the ground, one story high, straight in its lines, honestly functional, is less awe-inspiring and more friendly in the eyes of the child, though it may not look as grand to adults as some of our multi-stories Roman efforts." Especially for elementary school children, one-story schools were less intimidating to the students.⁵⁰

54-60; W.D. McClurkin, *School Building Planning* (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1964); Walter McQuade, ed., *Schoolhouse* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1958); National Council of Chief State School Officers, *Planning Rural Community School Buildings* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949); Pawley, *AIA School Plant Studies*; William C. Reavis, "Functional Planning of School-Building Programs," *The Elementary School Journal* 46 (October 1945): 72-80; Kenneth Reid, ed., *School Planning: The Architectural Record of a Decade* (New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1951); and Wallace H. Strevall and Arvid J. Burke, *Administration of the School Building Program* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959).

⁴⁹ "Bids on Construction of Additions to Two Charleston County Negro Schools Opened," *News and Courier*, 18 April 1952, 9-B.

⁵⁰ Reid, *School Planning*, 263; National Council of Chief State School Officers, *Rural Community*, 38; 1958 NCSC Guide, 50; Engelhardt et al, *School Planning*, 252; McQuade, *Schoolhouse*, 85-86.



Figure 6. Haut Gap High and Elementary, Johns Island, constructed c. 1952, showing a one-story school.⁵¹

One-story schools also provided better lighting and ventilation for the classrooms. Rows of windows across the façade of the schools allowed an abundance of light to enter the classroom. Lighting was an important study point in designing new school plants, and planning books and architectural discussions devoted many articles and pages to issues of lighting. Architects employed design materials, such as glass blocks, that doubled as a technique to control lighting in schools (Figure 7). Rows of windows contributed to the design aspect of the schools, providing clean lines and breaking the mass of the building dictated by the architectural belief in single story schools.⁵²

⁵¹ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁵² Engelhardt et al, *School Planning*, 252; Marsh, “Trends in Materials and Design,” 55.



Figure 7. Murray-LaSaine Elementary, Johns Island, constructed in 1955, showing glass block windows.⁵³

The development of “campus plan” high schools emerged nationally in response to changing demands in secondary school education. As high school curricula became more specialized after World War II, school districts began offering agricultural classes, vocational training, and home economics in addition to maintaining traditional classes in language, science, and mathematics. These courses required specialized classrooms with particular equipment, and the campus plan emerged to accommodate the new curriculum. Schools built on the campus plan consisted of several different buildings dedicated to different courses and specializations.⁵⁴

Burke Vocational High School, a black school in Charleston, redesigned its school plant around the campus plan (Figure 8). Burke’s four campus buildings included a building for administrative offices and general classrooms; a building with a library and rooms for cosmetology, mechanical drawing, and art; a science building with specialized rooms for chemistry, biology, and physics; and a fourth building with a home economics lab, tailoring, and an all-purpose room.⁵⁵ As the curriculum changed in high schools, architectural designs for schools changed to accommodate the new classes.

⁵³ Photograph by author, 5 March 2005.

⁵⁴ NCSC Guide, 92; Engelhardt et al, *Planning Secondary School Buildings*, 40-41.

⁵⁵ Board Minutes, City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20, 4 March 1953, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

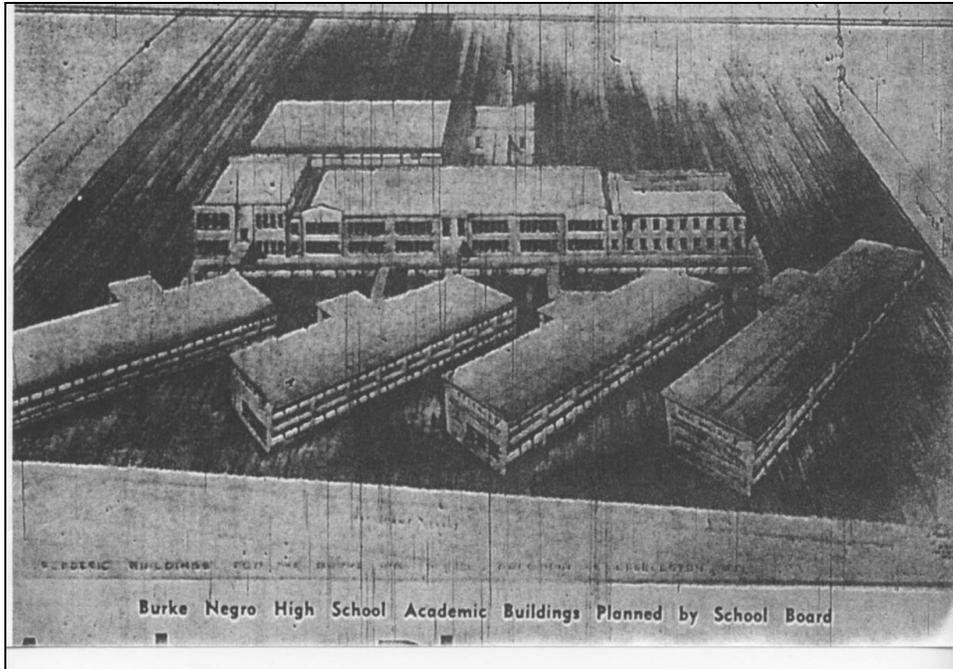


Figure 8. Architect's Model of New Burke High School showing campus plan.⁵⁶

Architects implemented new design in both black and white schools in Charleston County. The new schools constructed in the county reflected the intent of the school equalization program. New black and white schools had similar materials and design. Memminger Elementary (Figure 9), a white school in the city of Charleston, held thirty-three classrooms, a library, kitchen, cafeteria, and auditorium. The city school board's architectural firm, Simons & Lapham, designed Memminger with an open corridor plan, allowing for cross ventilation and natural lighting to enter the classrooms. The school also had a separate building for first grade classrooms with a separate play area, thus separating the younger children from the older children, an experimental concept in elementary education.⁵⁷ The new black elementary school planned for the northeastern section of Charleston also took advantage of the open corridor plan (Figure 10).

⁵⁶ "Burke Negro High School Academic Buildings Planned by School Board," *News and Courier*, 28 September 1952, 10-A.

⁵⁷ Betty Pugh, "City Schools Get Costly Additions," *News and Courier*, 15 August 1954, 14-D; Board Minutes, City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20. 6 February 1952, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC. For a discussion of the benefits of open corridors and separate primary classrooms, see 1958 NCSC Guide, 50; McClurkin, *School Building Planning*, 6.



Figure 9. Memminger Elementary school, constructed 1953, showing open corridor plan.⁵⁸



Figure 10. East Bay Elementary school, constructed c. 1955, now Sanders-Clyde Elementary school.⁵⁹

⁵⁸ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁵⁹ Photograph by author, 5 March 2005.

Charleston City District 20 school officials ensured that its schools incorporated educational design trends by retaining the services of the New York educational consulting firm Engelhardt, Engelhardt, and Leggett to oversee and implement their equalization program. The firm served as consultants on several city projects, including the rehabilitation of Burke Vocational High into the campus plan, an addition to black Buist Elementary school, the construction of white Memminger Elementary, and the construction of East Bay Negro Elementary.⁶⁰ The firm, which published several guides to educational planning for elementary and secondary schools, assisted the district with site selection, materials, and incorporating national educational policy into the architectural plans for the new schools.⁶¹ Engelhardt, Engelhardt, and Leggett ensured that the new schools constructed in the city had several common characteristics that reflected the improvements in education. The schools had concrete frames, a solid and cheap building material, with brick veneer to soften the structural materials and to improve the buildings' aesthetic quality. Classrooms were generally thirty feet by thirty feet with nine-foot ceilings and "window-walls" which provided better lighting and ventilation in the classrooms.⁶²

Charleston County's construction program also ensured equality in design between rural and urban schools. Construction materials and architectural design remained consistent from city to rural schools and black and white schools, with concrete frames and brick veneer comprising the majority of new schools constructed. School architects across the county designed schools with walls of windows to provide lighting and fresh air for students.⁶³

South Carolina's school equalization program was implemented in response to a direct threat to segregation in the *Briggs v. Elliott* court case in Clarendon County. The threat to the racial status quo caused the state's politicians to spend millions of dollars in an attempt to materially equalize black school facilities. Although the program never achieved true equalization between black and white public schools, it resulted in the construction of hundreds of schools across South Carolina. Charleston County's school board constructed twenty-five new schools and renovated and upgraded many more. Architects designed the new schools in a national school architecture trend, producing distinctive one-story schools with rows of windows and outdoor corridors. Most of

⁶⁰ Board Minutes, City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20, 26 June 1952, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁶¹ See Engelhardt et al, *School Planning and Building Handbook*; Engelhardt et al, *Planning Elementary School Buildings*, Engelhardt et al, *Planning Secondary School Buildings*, and Engelhardt, Jr., "Trends in School Architecture and Design" for examples of guides published by the consulting firm.

⁶² Jack Leland, "Modern Plants are Planned for City Schools," *News and Courier*, 28 September 1952, 10-A.

⁶³ "Bids on Construction of Additions to Two Charleston County Negro Schools Opened," *News and Courier*, 18 April 1952, 9-B; Phyllis Eubanks, "Mt. Pleasant Negro School Bids Opened; Reorganization is Told," *News and Courier*, 8 January 1953, 13-A; "Lincoln School Then and Now," *News and Courier*, 13-15 August 1953, back-to-school supplement.

Charleston's schools constructed as part of the equalization program between 1951 and 1955 are still used as schools today. These schools stand as reminders of South Carolina's fight to maintain segregation and demonstrate school design trends of the 1950s.

The new schools constructed or renovated as part of Charleston's equalization program are still in use as schools today. Several schools, including the black Bonds-Wilson High and black Liberty Hill Elementary, are demolished. Burke Vocational's progressive architecture reflecting a campus plan was recently replaced with new buildings. Extensive alterations changed the historic character of many schools still within the school system. Schools like Jennie Moore Elementary and Baptist Hill High have new entrances. The majority of the schools have additions or expansions. However, the purpose of the 1950s school design was to create schools that could be easily expanded. Most of the expansions are at the rear of the buildings and do not adversely affect the historic character of the schools. The installation of central heating and air-conditioning caused a significant alteration of the schools' appearance as many of the windows were infilled to conserve energy. Each individual school's eligibility for the National Register is evaluated below in a list arranged by site number.

Site 4251: Morningside Elementary

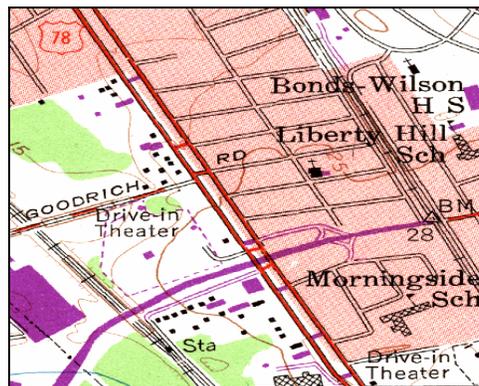


Figure 11. Base map USGS *Ladson Quad*.

Morningside Elementary is located in North Charleston. The school was constructed in 1955 for white children.⁶⁴ Two schools for black children, Bonds-Wilson High and Liberty Hill Elementary, were within five blocks of the white elementary school. Bonds-Wilson and Liberty Hill were demolished in 2004. Morningside is a one-story rectangular school with a flat roof. Morningside retains its multiple windows associated with each classroom. The school retains its historic character and reflects the national architectural trends in education developed after World War II. Morningside is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

⁶⁴ Press Releases and Press Conferences, Governor George Bell Timmerman, Jr. Papers, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC.

Site 4252: North Charleston Graded

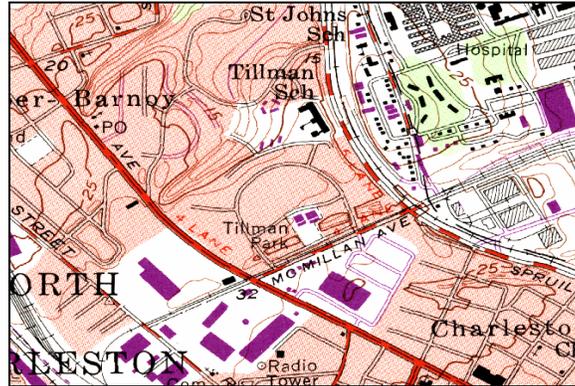


Figure 12. Base map USGS *Charleston* Quad. North Charleston Graded is labeled on the map as Tillman School.

North Charleston Elementary school served the white students of North Charleston. Located on Spruill Avenue, North Charleston was constructed in 1942 and received a sixteen-classroom addition across the rear of the original school as part of the equalization program.⁶⁵ While the 1942 building is a two-story structure, the addition follows the architectural trend toward one-story schools. The 1942 school has new windows and the windows on the south façade of the 1953 addition have been enclosed, although the historic shape of the windows remains. North Charleston is an example of the use of equalization funds to renovate and expand white schools in addition to black schools. The school retains its integrity and is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A.

Site 4253: Dorchester Terrace Elementary

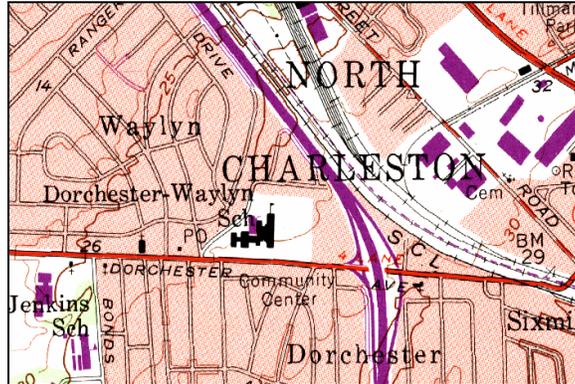


Figure 13. Base map USGS *Charleston* quad.

Dorchester Terrace was a historically white school constructed to serve the children of North Charleston. The construction began on Dorchester Terrace in 1952 as part of the statewide school equalization program. The school contained twenty-four classrooms

⁶⁵ “Charleston County School District, School Physical Plant Data,” Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC; Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

and a cafeteria and opened to students for the 1953-1954 school term.⁶⁶ The one-story school retains its glass block windows and cast-stone entryway similar to the entrance at Morningside Elementary. Although a new classroom building was added to the campus in the 1990s, the new addition is set apart from the historic school. Dorchester Terrace is reflective of the national school architectural trends that dictated one-story schools with rows of windows or glass blocks to admit natural light into the classroom. Dorchester Terrace is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

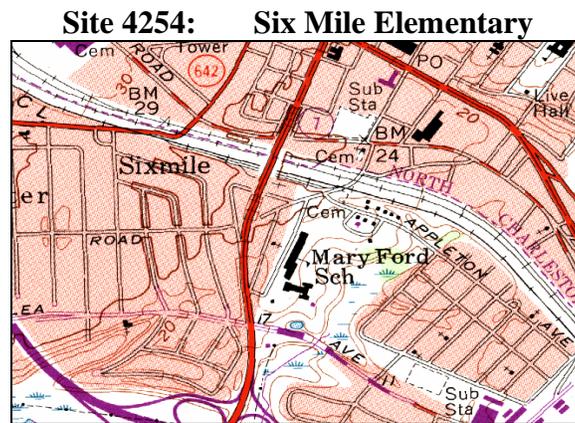


Figure 14. Base map USGS Charleston quad.

Six Mile Elementary in North Charleston was constructed in 1955 as a black elementary school.⁶⁷ Six Mile has a two-story classroom wing, one of the few two-story schools found outside the Charleston peninsula. It retains its original cast stone entryway, similar to Morningside Elementary and Dorchester Terrace Elementary, with glass block sidelights. A large gymnasium was added to the site and connected to the original school by a one-story hyphen. Six Mile retains similar architectural characteristics to white schools in North Charleston, reflecting the intent of the equalization program to provide materially similar schools for black children. Six Mile is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

⁶⁶ Betty Pugh, "County's \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects," News and Courier, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

⁶⁷ Press Releases and Press Conferences, Governor George Bell Timmerman, Jr. Papers, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC.

Site 4255: Chicora Elementary

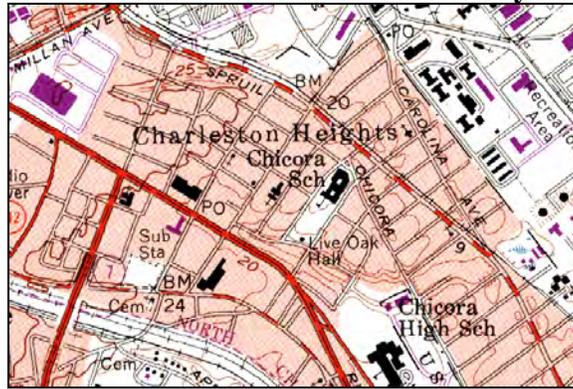


Figure 15. Base map USGS Charleston quad.

Chicora Elementary was a white elementary school for children in North Charleston. The school equalization campaign approved funding for additional classrooms, a library, and a cafeteria for the school. While the original school building remains as an imposing three-story brick building, the additions to the school made in 1955 can be seen from the street behind the building.⁶⁸ The new wing contains rows of windows to allow natural light to enter the classroom. Few alterations have been made to Chicora. The significant additions to the school made through the equalization program reflected trends in postwar school architecture, and Chicora is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.



Figure 16. Chicora Elementary classroom wing. Photograph c. 1955.⁶⁹

⁶⁸ Press Releases and Press Conferences, 1955-1958, Governor George Bell Timmerman, Jr. Papers, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC; Betty Pugh, "County's \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects," *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

⁶⁹ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

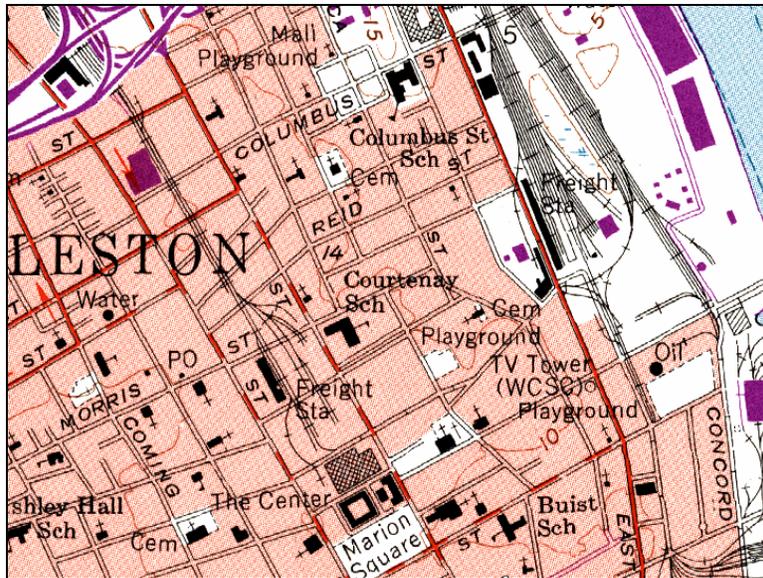


Figure 17. Base map USGS *Charleston* quad showing location of Columbus Street Elementary, Courtenay Elementary, and Buist Elementary.

Site 4256: Columbus Street Elementary

Plans and construction on Columbus Street Elementary began in 1955 in a continued attempt by Charleston City District 20 to ease the overcrowded conditions in the city’s black elementary schools. Architect Leonard Gaines designed Columbus Street as a two-story, H-shaped building with a cafetorium and a kitchen.⁷⁰ The two-story H-shaped building retains its cast-stone entryway similar to Morningside Elementary and Six Mile Elementary. Most of the city of Charleston’s schools had two stories because of the lack of land available in the city. Columbus Street Elementary retains the historic layout of its windows although many were infilled after the installation of air-conditioning in the school. The alterations of the school are few and Columbus Street Elementary is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

Site 4258: Courtenay Elementary

The current Courtenay replaced the original white elementary school that had been in use since 1889. Repairs to the old Courtenay became too costly to the Charleston City District 20. The new school was constructed with fifteen classrooms out of reinforced concrete. The second floor was all classrooms, with a cafeteria and a multi-purpose room on the first floor. The new school opened to white students in 1955. District 20 transferred the school to black students in 1958 in response to a growing black student population and a decreasing white student population in Charleston.⁷¹ Courtenay

⁷⁰ Press Releases and Press Conferences, 1955-1958, Governor George Bell Timmerman, Jr. Papers, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC; Leonard Gaines, “Columbus Street Elementary,” blueprints dated 3 September 1955, Charleston County School Board Facilities, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Columbia, SC.

Elementary retains its historic appearance with little evident alterations to the building. The school is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

Site 4259: Buist Elementary

Additions to the 1921 black Buist Elementary provided needed space for black students. In addition, the school equalization program ensured that students attending Buist would have a library and a cafetorium which provided a large gathering place for students and teachers. White elementary schools in Charleston tended to have libraries and auditoriums, while black students were denied these provisions until the statewide equalization campaign.⁷² Buist is representative of the history of discrimination of black education as the school was originally designed too small to hold the amount of children enrolled. Expansion of the school did not occur until the state provided money to equalize black and white schools. Buist is eligible for listing in the National Register under Criteria A and C.

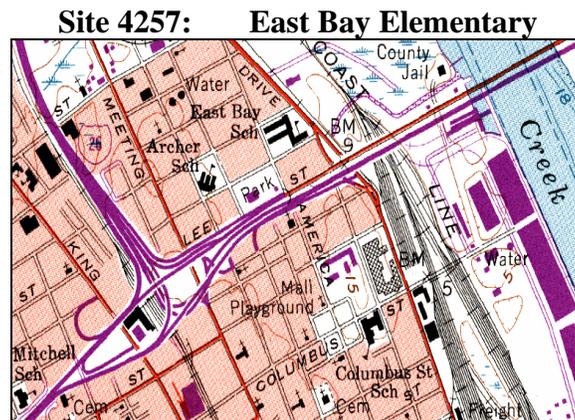


Figure 18. Base map USGS Charleston quad.

The construction of East Bay Negro Elementary was first proposed by a city-wide survey of Charleston's schools conducted by the Peabody College in 1949. Once the school equalization legislation passed in 1951, East Bay Elementary became the first priority for the Charleston City District 20. The school included thirty classrooms, a library, a visual-aids room, and a cafeteria. The site of the new school was partially in response to a planned housing project in the northeastern section of the city and the influx of residents and children to this area of the city. The school currently stands surrounded by the housing project.⁷³ Architects Simons & Lapham designed East Bay with open

⁷¹ Betty Pugh, "Rogers Announces Plans for Construction of \$250,000 School to Replace Courtenay," *News and Courier*, 18 December 1952, 16-A; Augustus E. Constantine, "Courtenay Elementary," blueprints dated 30 January 1953, Charleston County School Board Facilities, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC; "Negroes to Attend Courtenay School," *News and Courier*, 12 July 1958, 1-A.

⁷² Public Schools of Charleston, South Carolina: A Survey Report (Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1949); "Board Minutes," City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20, 6 February 1952

corridors, an educational development encouraged in architecture as a way to ensure that students received fresh air. The school retains its historic appearance and integrity and is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

Site 4260: Memminger Elementary

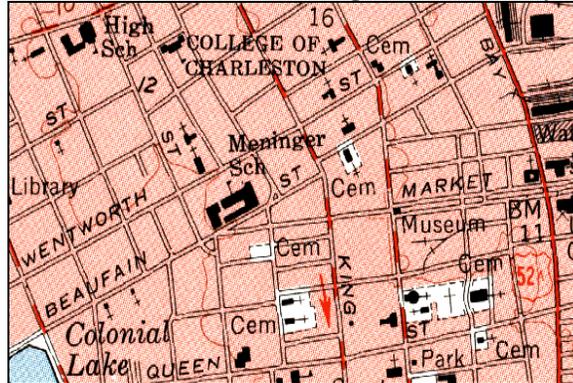


Figure 19. Base map USGS *Charleston* quad.

Memminger Elementary school was constructed on the site of Charleston's white high school for girls, Memminger High. The new white elementary school contained thirty-three classrooms, a library, a kitchen, a cafeteria, an auditorium, and teachers' lounges. Memminger housed the combined school populations of white Bennett Elementary and white Crafts Elementary schools. The school contained only exterior corridors among classrooms and also had a separate one-story building with four first-grade classrooms.⁷⁴ Simons & Lapham, the architectural firm that also designed the East Bay Elementary school, utilized several of the same design concepts in the white Memminger Elementary. The classrooms contain walls of windows and are situated along open corridors, architectural concepts applied equally to both black and white schools in Charleston. Memminger is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.



Figure 20. Memminger Elementary, photograph c. 1955.⁷⁵

⁷³ Public Schools of Charleston, South Carolina: A Survey Report (Nashville, TN: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1949); "Board Minutes," City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20, 2 January 1952, 4 June 1952, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁷⁴ Betty Pugh, "City Schools Get Costly Additions," *News and Courier*, 15 August 1954, 14-D; "Board Minutes," City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20, 4 March 1953, 9 April 1953, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Site 4261: Cut Bridge Elementary

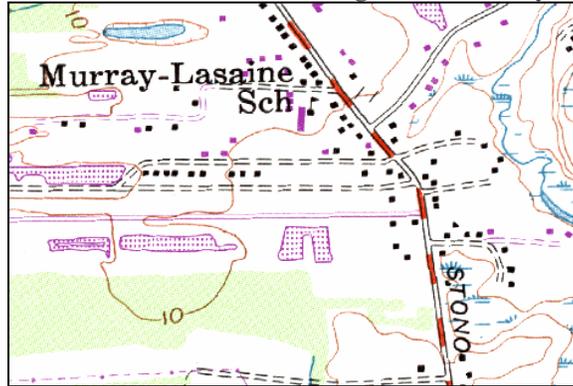


Figure 21. Base map USGS *James Island* quad.

The school equalization program replaced the one-teacher black Cut Bridge Elementary school in 1955 with a new school containing sixteen classrooms after principal Albertha Johnston Murray forced the Charleston County School District to upgrade the Cut Bridge school. The new school opened in 1955 and was renamed after Murray and Dr. M. Alice Lasaine, former supervisor of black schools in Charleston County.⁷⁶ The one-story school contains a separate classroom block with glass block windows similar to the white Dorchester Terrace Elementary. The school is also representative of the struggle black teachers and parents faced in compelling a reluctant school board to equalize and upgrade black schools. Cut Bridge Elementary is recommended eligible for Criteria A and C.

⁷⁵ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁷⁶ Albertha Johnston Murray Papers, Avery Research Center, Charleston, SC.

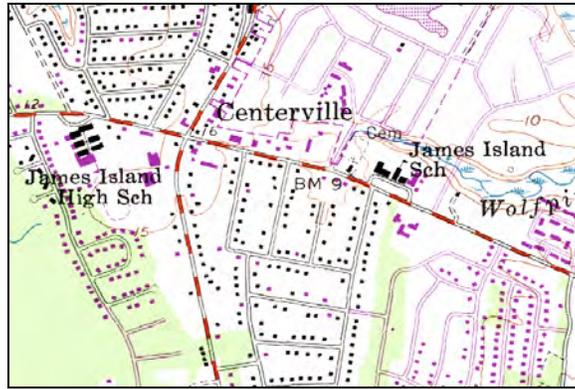


Figure 22. Base map USGS *James Island* quad showing the location of James Island Elementary and James Island High.

Site 4262: James Island Elementary

James Island Elementary school consisted of fourteen classrooms for the white children on James Island. The school equalization program appropriated funds for the new school in 1955.⁷⁷ The one-story school consists of two wings with rows of windows. A new entrance and façade of the building changed the historic appearance of the school. Although the school was constructed with equalization funds, the extensive alterations of the front façade make the school not eligible for the National Register.

Site 4263: James Island High

James Island High School, constructed for white students, was built as part of the school equalization program. The high school originally contained eight classrooms with a multi-purpose room, a library, and offices. Augustus E. Constantine originally designed the school with two wings with long rows of classrooms, yet his plan was later adapted into a campus plan, with six individual buildings and covered walkways between the buildings.⁷⁸ The original layout of the school remains, yet the buildings are surrounded by two new additions, including a new entrance and front façade as well as a gymnasium at the rear of the property. Due to the extensive alterations to the school, James Island High is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

⁷⁷ Press Releases and Press Conferences, 1955-1958, Governor George Bell Timmerman, Jr. Papers, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC.

⁷⁸ Betty Pugh, "County's \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects," *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A; Augustus E. Constantine, "James Island High," blueprints dated 12 May 1952, Charleston County School Board Facilities, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Site 4264: W. Gresham Meggett High and Elementary

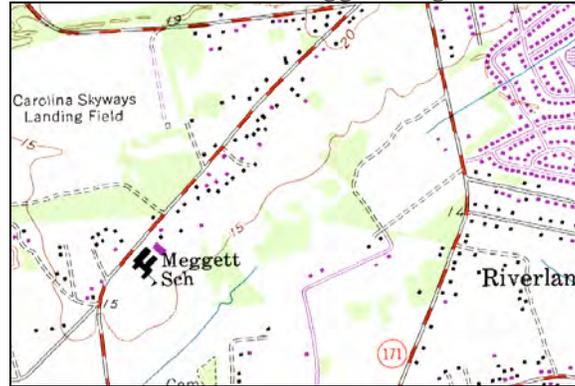


Figure 23. Base map USGS *James Island* quad.

W. Gresham Meggett High and Elementary school was constructed as a consolidated school for black students on James Island. The school originally had four classrooms and an eleven-room addition to the school created both an elementary and high school for black students. When opened in 1953, the school had fifteen classrooms, a multi-purpose room, a kitchen, and administrative offices.⁷⁹ The school retains its historic name over the entrance. The one-story school has few alterations, although several windows are closed as well as a historic entrance. Gresham Meggett is representative of the consolidation of smaller schools required by the equalization program and retains its rural setting as a small school for a local community. Gresham Meggett is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

⁷⁹ “Bids on Construction of Additions to Two Charleston County Negro Schools Opened,” *News and Courier*, 18 April 1952, 9-B; Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A; Leroy F. Anderson, “James Island School District 3 High School, 1st Report,” n.d., Charleston County Black School Directory Collection, Avery Research Center, Charleston, SC.

Site 4265: St. Andrews Elementary

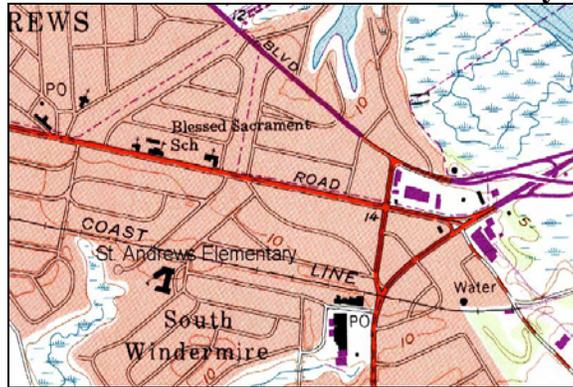


Figure 24. Base map USGS Charleston quad.

St. Andrews white elementary school was constructed as part of the statewide school equalization program and highlighted in the Educational Finance Commission’s publication, *South Carolina’s Educational Revolution: A Report of Progress in South Carolina*. The new school was constructed in response to white parents moving to West Ashley suburbs from the peninsula of Charleston.⁸⁰ The one-story, U-shaped school has several alterations, including removed stucco and infilled windows and entrances. While the building retains its historic shape and layout, extensive alterations make St. Andrews Elementary not eligible for the National Register.

Site 4266: Stono Park Elementary



Figure 25. Base map USGS Johns Island quad.

The original school constructed in 1951 for white students consisted of eleven classrooms. The layout of the school mimicked the planned St. Andrews Elementary school with less classrooms. By 1953, several classrooms were added to accommodate an increase in student population. In 1955, an addition four classrooms were added to the building on the western end of the school to the rear of the 1951 building.⁸¹ Stono Park

⁸⁰ *South Carolina’s Educational Revolution: A Report of Progress in South Carolina* (Columbia, SC: The State Educational Finance Commission, c. 1955); “Board of Trustees Minutes,” St. Andrews Parish District 10, 24 February 1953, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Elementary retains the rows of windows for each classroom as well as dual entrances on each end of the U-shaped building. Although brick veneer was added to the rear of the building and on the eastern end of the façade, Stono Park retains its historic appearance (see Figure 26). The one-story building with a flat roof is indicative of school architectural trends while the location and construction of the school is representative of the increase in white families in the West Ashley suburb of Charleston. Stono Park is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.



Figure 26. Stono Park Elementary in a 1956 photograph. The chimney no longer exists.⁸²

⁸¹ “Board of Trustees Minutes,” St. Andrews Parish District 10, 29 April 1951, 21 March 1955, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC; Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

⁸² Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Site 4267: Wallace Elementary and High

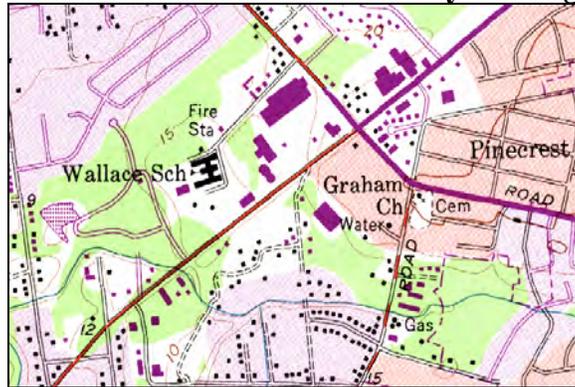


Figure 27. Base map USGS Johns Island quad.

Wallace Negro High and Elementary school opened to students in 1953. The new black consolidated school contained fifteen classrooms, a multi-purpose room, a kitchen, a library, a shop building, and administrative offices.⁸³ Although Wallace Elementary and High is now in the center of West Ashley development, the school was originally constructed to serve students living in the rural areas of West Ashley. Wallace Elementary retains its significant architectural features, including its original chimney and groups of five windows to light each classroom. Wallace Elementary and High is representative of the movement toward school consolidation and is representative of black school construction aimed at equalizing public school facilities. Wallace Elementary and High is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

Site 4268: Haut Gap High

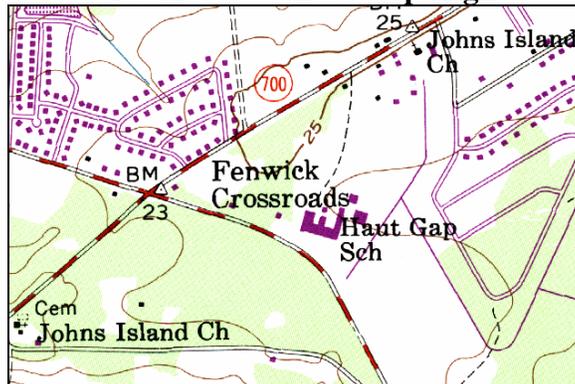


Figure 28. Base map USGS Legareville quad.

Haut Gap Negro High was originally constructed with six classrooms. Thirteen classrooms added to the original high school through wings at each end incorporated the consolidation of high and elementary schools for black students at Haut Gap. This addition was designed in 1952 and contained a science room, home economics room, library, principal's office, teacher's room, and book storage room in addition to the

⁸³ Betty Pugh, "County's \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects," News and Courier, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

classrooms.⁸⁴ The U-shaped building mimics the floor plan of white schools such as Stono Park Elementary and St. Andrews Elementary demonstrating the purpose of the equalization program to provide similar schools. The school contained wide windows to allow light and fresh air into the classrooms (see Figure 29). The original windows have been removed and replaced with smaller windows, significantly altering the appearance of the school. Because of these alterations, Haut Gap High is recommended not eligible for the National Register.



Figure 29. Haut Gap High, photograph c. 1956 showing original windows.⁸⁵

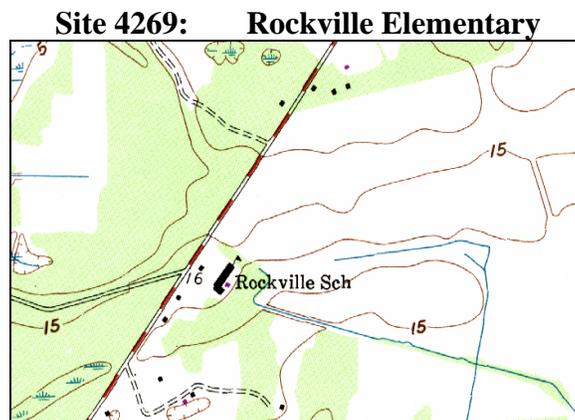


Figure 30. Base map USGS Wadmalaw Island quad.

Rockville Negro Elementary was designed in 1953 as an L-shaped building with classrooms along a center corridor. The school equalization program also authorized construction of a multi-purpose room and kitchen as part of the new black school. Edith Friarson was the first principal of the new Rockville Elementary, and the school was later renamed after Friarson.⁸⁶ A recent classroom building and significant alterations of historic windows alter the appearance of the school and it is recommended not eligible.

⁸⁴ “Bids on Construction of Additions to Two Charleston County Negro Schools Opened,” *News and Courier*, 18 April 1952, 9-B; Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

⁸⁵ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Site 4270: Miley Hill Elementary

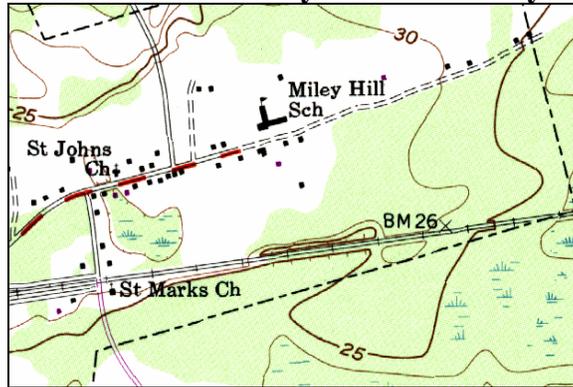


Figure 31. Base map USGS *Ravenel* quad.

Miley Hill Consolidated Negro School received funds from the school equalization program in 1955. The one-story, low building was constructed across the street from the old Miley Hill Elementary school, providing the consolidated school with additional land and room for expansion.⁸⁷ Located in a rural area of Charleston County, Miley Hill incorporated several small black schools into a modern one-story building with well-lit classrooms. The school retains its original chimney and original layout. Because Miley Hill is representative of school consolidation and school architecture, it is recommended eligible for the National Register under Criteria A and C.

Site 4271: Baptist Hill High and Baptist Hill Elementary



Figure 32. Base map USGS *Adams Run* quad.

Baptist Hill High opened in the fall of 1953 with twelve classrooms, a multi-purpose room, a library, laboratories, domestic science rooms, a gymnasium, and administrative offices. In 1954, Augustus E. Constantine was commissioned to design Baptist Hill Elementary and used the plans for Miley Hill Elementary for Baptist Hill, creating a T-

⁸⁶ Augustus E. Constantine, "Rockville Elementary," blueprints dated 16 February 1953, Charleston County School Board Facility, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁸⁷ "Board Minute Books," School District 23; Augustus E. Constantine, "Miley Hill Elementary," Charleston County School Board Facilities, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

shaped building with all classrooms along the rear wing of the building. After the elimination of South Carolina’s system of dual school systems in 1970, the two schools were combined to make the campus of Baptist Hill High.⁸⁸ The two separate campuses are visible on the USGS map. While the two campuses remain distinctive, the front façade of the high school is completely altered. The original building had large windows across the front (see Figure 33). The present school façade is covered in brick with small windows. Due to extensive alterations, due in part to the integration of the two schools, Baptist Hill High is recommended not eligible.



Figure 33. Baptist Hill High, photograph c. 1955.⁸⁹

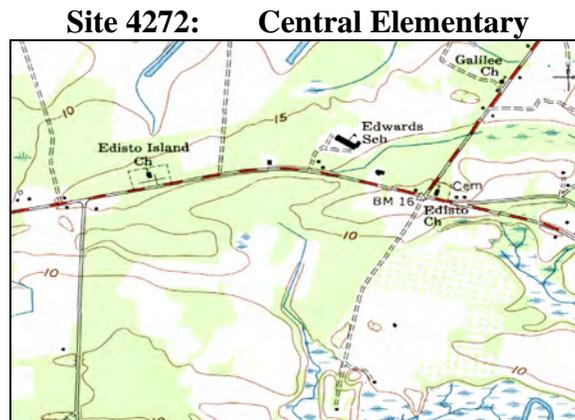


Figure 34. Base map USGS *Edisto Island* quad.

Central Negro Elementary opened to students in fall 1954. The new school contained eleven classrooms, a multi-purpose room, a library, and administrative offices. Trustees of District 23 officially renamed the school Jane Edwards Elementary after a teacher on

⁸⁸ Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier* 26 May 1953, 10-A; “Board Minute Books,” School District 23; Leonard C. Gaines, “Baptist Hill High,” blueprints dated 4 February 1952; Augustus E. Constantine, “Baptist Hill Elementary,” blueprints dated 21 January 1955, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁸⁹ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

Edisto Island in 1954 before the opening of the school.⁹⁰ Central Elementary served black students on the rural Edisto Island, consolidating several small schools into a central location. While the northern façade of the school retains its historic appearance with a library containing an entire wall of windows and rows of windows on the north classroom wing, the rest of the school’s appearance is altered. A new, imposing entrance identifies the school and the southern wing of the school has smaller windows than the original design. Due to extensive alterations, Central Elementary is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

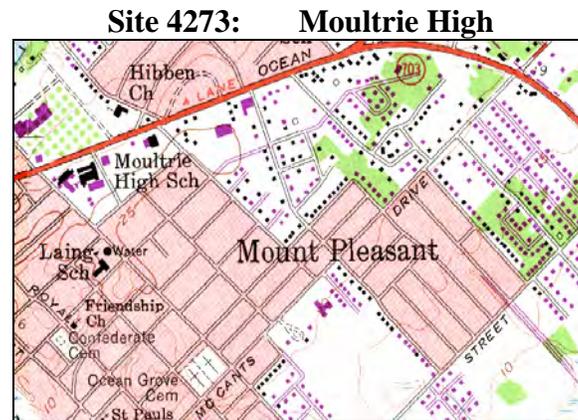


Figure 35. Base map USGS *Fort Moultrie* quad.

Moultrie High, constructed for the white students of Mount Pleasant, opened in the fall of 1953 with classroom additions to the original plans and a gymnasium.⁹¹ The majority of the 1950s school has been demolished and replaced with new classrooms. One classroom wing and the gymnasium remain from Moultrie High’s original construction. Due to extensive alterations, Moultrie High is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

⁹⁰ Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A; “Board Minute Books,” School District 23, 5 March 1954; 10 May 1954, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁹¹ Betty Pugh, “County’s \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects,” *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953, 10-A.

Site 4274: Sullivan’s Island Elementary

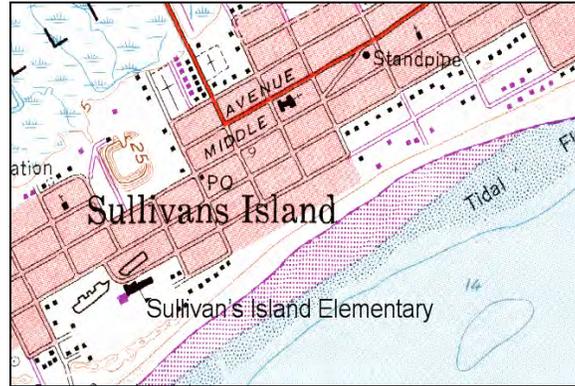


Figure 36. Base map USGS *Fort Moultrie* quad.

Sullivan’s Island white elementary school was constructed in 1955 in an emergency response to the extreme deterioration of the existing Sullivan’s Island school. The school equalization program funded the construction of Sullivan’s Island Elementary in response to the “exceptional situation.”⁹² The one-story brick veneer school reflected similar school design to Charleston County’s other schools constructed as part of the equalization program. Many of the original windows have been bricked over, although the historic shape of the windows is still evident on the façade. The school also has a large auditorium addition to the rear of the building that towers over the smaller-scaled school. Due to the extensive alteration of the windows and the insensitive addition, Sullivan’s Island Elementary is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

Site 4275: Laing High



Figure 37. Base map USGS *Fort Moultrie* quad.

Laing High was built on the site of the original Laing Industrial School founded by Cornelia Hancock for newly-freed slaves in 1866. The new construction, as part of the school equalization program, consisted of nine classrooms, a library, a shop room, a home economics room, a kitchen, and a combination auditorium/gymnasium/lunchroom

⁹² “Board Minute Books,” School District 2, 3 June 1954; 20 December 1954, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

for black students in Mount Pleasant.⁹³ The school retains its original layout with an addition at the rear of the building. The windows were infilled and reduced in size from the original nine-over-nine double-hung windows with multi-pane transoms (see Figure 38). Because the original windows were significant features of the school, Laing High is recommended not eligible for the National Register.



Figure 38. Laing High, photograph c. 1955.⁹⁴

Site 4276: Jennie Moore Elementary

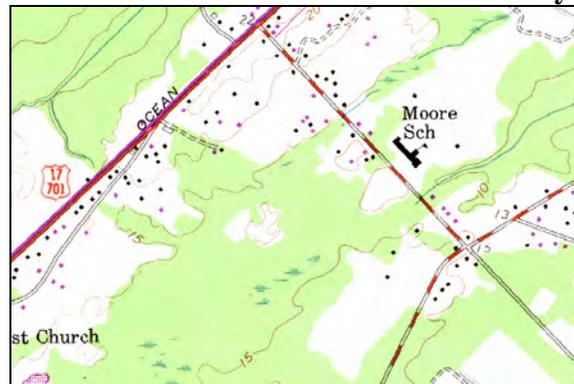


Figure 39. Base map USGS *Fort Moultrie* quad.

The site for the Jennie Moore Negro Elementary school was selected after two years of intensive survey and predictions of future black student population. The original building contained eighteen classrooms, a teachers' lounge, the principal's office, a kitchen, and a multi-purpose room serving as a cafeteria and an auditorium. The school opened to black students in the fall of 1953.⁹⁵ The most significant alteration of the building is the change

⁹³ "The History of Laing High School," Charleston County Black School Directory Collection, Avery Research Center; Phyllis Eubanks, "Mt. Pleasant Negro School Bids Opened; Reorganization is Told," *News and Courier*, 8 January 1953, 13-A.

⁹⁴ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁹⁵ Phyllis Eubanks, "Mt. Pleasant Negro School Bids Opened; Reorganization is Told," *News and Courier*, 8 January 1953, 13-A; Betty Pugh, "County's \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects," *News and Courier*, 26 May 1953; 10-A.

to the windows. Jennie Moore Elementary's façade was dominated by rows of large double-hung windows (see Figure 40). The current windows are smaller in size and the openings are reduced. Due to these alterations, Jennie Moore Elementary is recommended not eligible for the National Register.



Figure 40. Jennie Moore Elementary, photograph c. 1955.⁹⁶

Site 4277: Lincoln High and Elementary

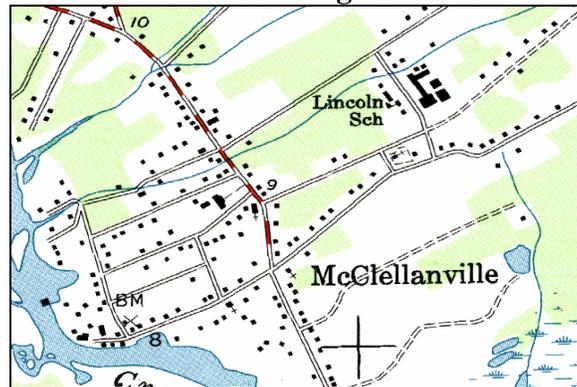


Figure 41. Base map USGS McClellanville quad.

Constructed as a combination elementary and high school for black students in McClellanville, the new school contained eighteen classrooms, administrative offices, a multi-purpose room, a library, a domestic science laboratory, a shop building, and agricultural rooms.⁹⁷ Lincoln High and Elementary retains its historic configuration, yet the windows on the front façade were infilled and reduced in size. The replacement and

⁹⁶ Photograph Collection, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

⁹⁷ Betty Pugh, "County's \$4 Million School Expansion Program Numbers 25 Building Projects," News and Courier, 26 May 1953, 10-A; "Lincoln School Then and Now," News and Courier, back-to-school supplement, 13-15 August 1953; Halsey & Cummings, "Lincoln High and Elementary," blueprints dated 1953, Project Files, School Building Construction and Renovation, Department of Education papers, South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC.

elimination of windows in the classroom wings significantly altered the appearance of the school, and Lincoln High and Elementary is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

Site 4278: Albemarle Elementary

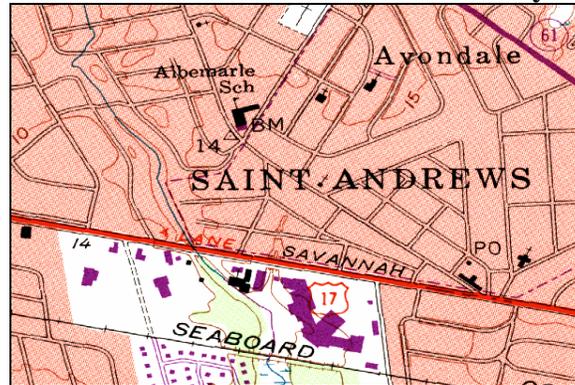


Figure 42. Base map USGS Charleston quad.

Albemarle Elementary school housed white students of St. Andrews District 10. The State Educational Finance Commission, which oversaw the school equalization program, highlighted Albemarle's construction in its publication *South Carolina's Educational Revolution: A Report of Progress in South Carolina*. The school later passed into private hands and was renovated and significantly altered for use as an assisted living home.⁹⁸ Classrooms were converted into apartments, while window sizes were reduced and doors were placed on the outside of the building for access into the apartments. Due to these extensive alterations, Albemarle Elementary is recommended not eligible for the National Register.

⁹⁸ "Board of Trustees Minutes," St. Andrews Parish District 10, 1 August 1952, Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC; *South Carolina's Educational Revolution: A Report of Progress in South Carolina* (Columbia, SC: The State Educational Finance Commission, c. 1955).

VI. Compiled Inventory

Site Number	Historic Name	Date	Eligibility
4251	Morningside Elementary	1955	Eligible
4252	North Charleston Graded	1942	Eligible
4253	Dorchester Terrace Elementary	1952	Eligible
4254	Six Mile Elementary	1955	Eligible
4255	Chicora Elementary	c. 1920	Eligible
4256	Columbus Street Elementary	1955	Eligible
4257	East Bay Elementary	1953	Eligible
4258	Courtenay Elementary	1953	Eligible
4259	Buist Elementary	1921	Eligible
4260	Memminger Elementary	1953	Eligible
4261	Cut Bridge Elementary	1955	Eligible
4262	James Island Elementary	1955	Not eligible
4263	James Island High	1953	Not eligible
4264	W. Gresham Meggett High and Elementary	1952	Eligible
4265	St. Andrews Elementary	1953	Not eligible
4266	Stono Park Elementary	1951	Eligible
4267	Wallace Elementary and High	1952	Eligible
4268	Haut Gap High	1952	Not eligible
4269	Rockville Elementary	1955	Not eligible
4270	Miley Hill Elementary	1955	Eligible
4271	Baptist Hill High and Baptist Hill Elementary	1952	Not eligible
4272	Central Elementary	1953	Not eligible
4273	Moultrie High	1953	Not eligible
4274	Sullivan's Island	1955	Not eligible
4275	Laing High	1953	Not eligible
4276	Jennie Moore Elementary	1952	Not eligible
4277	Lincoln High and Elementary	1953	Not eligible
4278	Albemarle Elementary	1953	Not eligible

VII. Recommendations

Charleston County's schools constructed as part of the statewide equalization program are both historically significant and architecturally significant. The schools represent national trends in educational planning and school design, while also serving as a reminder of South Carolina's commitment to maintaining racial segregation in its public school system. The schools are a product of postwar American, serving as a visible manifestation of the intersection between postwar changes in demographics, specifically an increase in population; changes in race relations toward a more insistent demand for equality in educational opportunities for black students; and changes in education and its relationship to students.

Schools are designed to change and incorporate new developments in education and technology. The pressure for modern schools is one of the biggest threats to Charleston's schools constructed in the 1950s. The schools have been in service for over fifty years and in many cases need renovations and upgrades. Charleston County School District is embarking on a four-year building and renovation program beginning in 2005 and many of the schools constructed in the 1950s are slated for demolition or complete renovations. While renovations are needed to keep schools from becoming educationally and technologically obsolete, changes will most likely remove the significant features that define the postwar architecture of education.

It is often difficult to acknowledge uncomfortable histories. These schools, constructed as part of a massive campaign to maintain segregation, serve as reminders to many of this unpleasant aspect of South Carolina's history. Yet these schools are some of the few examples remaining of the architecture of segregation. It is important to recognize and confront the history that these schools represent. A multiple property submission to the National Register with either a statewide context or county context would identify and record these schools and their significance in South Carolina's fight against desegregation. These schools, with their postwar architecture and association with segregation, deserved to be recorded and inventoried.

APPENDIX

Charleston County Schools Receiving Equalization Funding⁹⁹

Project Name/Number	Date	Race	School District	Project Information
Albemarle Elementary	1953	white	St. Andrews 10	new construction
Baptist Hill Elementary	1954	black	St. Paul 23	new construction; thirteen classrooms
Baptist Hill High	1953	black	St. Paul 23	new construction
Bethune Elementary	1952	black	Cooper River 4	new construction
Bonds-Wilson High	1953	black	Cooper River 4	new construction
Buist Elementary	1952	black	Charleston 20	additions and renovations
Burke Vocational High	1953	black	Charleston 20	new construction
Central Elementary	1954	black	St. Paul 23	new construction
Chicora Elementary	1955	white	Cooper River 4	office, library, kitchen, cafeteria
Columbus Street Elementary	1955	black	Charleston 20	new construction
Courtenay Elementary	1955	white	Charleston 20	new construction; eighteen classrooms
Cut Bridge Elementary	1952	black	James Island District 3	new construction
Dorchester Terrace	1955	white	Cooper River 4	additions and renovations
East Bay Street Elementary	1955	black	Charleston 20	new construction
Gresham Meggett High and Elementary	1953	black	James Island District 3	new construction
Haut Gap High	1953	black	St. Johns 9	additional equipment

⁹⁹ Information compiled from Governor James F. Byrnes Papers, SCDAH; articles in Charleston's *News and Courier*; and statistics from the Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC.

James Island Elementary	1955	white	James Island District 3	new construction; fourteen classrooms
James Island High	1953	white	James Island District 3	new construction
Jennie Moore Elementary	1955	black	Moultrie 2	new construction
Ladson Elementary	1953	black	Cooper River 4	renovations
Laing High	1953	black	Moultrie 2	new construction
Liberty Hill Elementary	1953	black	Cooper River 4	new construction
Lincoln High and Elementary	1953	black	St. James-Santee 1	new construction
Lincolnvile Elementary	1953	black	Cooper River 4	renovations
Memminger Elementary	1955	white	Charleston 20	new construction
Midland Park	1953	white	Cooper River 4	addition of two classrooms
Miley Hill Elementary	1955	black	St. Paul 23	new construction
Morningside Elementary	1955	white	Cooper River 4	new construction
Moultrie High	1953	white	Moultrie 2	new construction
Mt. Pleasant Academy	1954	white	Moultrie 2	equipment
Mt. Zion Elementary	1955	black	St. Johns 9	new construction; ten classrooms
Murray High	1953	white	Charleston 20	new gymnasium
North Charleston Graded	1953	white	Cooper River 4	additions and renovations
Riverland Terrace Elementary	1954	white	James Island District 3	additions and renovations
Rivers High	1953	white	Charleston 20	additions and renovations
Rockville Elementary	1953	black	St. Johns 9	new construction
Six Mile Elementary	1955	black	Cooper River 4	new construction
St. Andrews Elementary	1953	white	St. Andrews District 10	new construction

St. Andrews Parish High	1953	white	St. Andrews District 10	10 classrooms, music rooms; arts room
St. James Elementary	1955	black	St. James-Santee 1	new construction; seven classrooms
St. John's Elementary	1952	white	St. Johns 9	addition of four classrooms
Stono Park Elementary	1953	white	St. Andrews District 10	new construction
Sullivan's Island Elementary	1954	white	Moultrie 2	new construction
Wallace Elementary and High	1953	black	St. Andrews District 10	new construction

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Manuscripts

Avery Research Center, Charleston, SC

Albertha Johnston Murray Papers.

Charleston County Black School Directory Collection.

J. Arthur Brown Papers.

Office of Archives and Records, Charleston County School District, Charleston, SC

Board Minutes, City Board of School Commissioners, School District 20.

District 2 Board Minute Books.

Photograph Collection.

South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia, SC

Department of Education, School Building Construction and Renovation, Project Files

Governor James F. Byrnes Papers.

Governor Ernest F. Hollings Papers.

Special Collections, Clemson University Libraries, Clemson, SC

James Byrnes Collection.

Thomas Cooper Library, University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC

Microfilmed Papers of the NAACP.

Newspapers

New York Times, 18 February 1951.

News and Courier (Charleston, SC), 1948-1955.

The State (Columbia, SC), 27 January 1955.

Government Documents

1950 United States Census of Population, General Characteristics, South Carolina.

Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, United States Government Printing Office, 1952.

Annual Reports of the State Superintendent of Education of the State of South Carolina,

Reports and Resolutions of South Carolina to the General Assembly of the State of South Carolina. Columbia: State Budget and Control Board, 1945-1959.

Report of Committee Appointed to Study Ways and Means to Provide for Public School

Education Needs, *Journal of the House of Representatives of the First Session of*

the 89th General Assembly of the State of South Carolina, being the Regular Session Beginning Tuesday, January 9, 1951. Columbia: State Budget and Control Board, 1951.

“South Carolina’s Educational Revolution: A Report of Progress in South Carolina.”
Columbia: The State Educational Finance Commission, c. 1954.

United States Department of the Interior. *National Register Bulletin: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation.* Washington, DC: Department of the Interior, 1997.

Educational Planning Publications

Brubaker, C. William. *Planning and Designing Schools.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1998.

Campbell, Edward A. “New Spaces and Places for Learning.” *The School Review* 68, no. 3 (Autumn 1960): 346-352.

Caudill, William W. *Toward Better School Design.* New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1954.

Cutler, William W. “Cathedral of Culture: The Schoolhouse in American Educational Thought and Practice Since 1820.” *History of Education Quarterly* 29, no. 1 (Spring 1989): 1-40.

Engelhardt, N.L., N.L. Engelhardt, Jr., and Stanton Leggett. *Planning Elementary School Buildings.* New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1953.

----- *Planning Secondary School Buildings.* New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1949.

----- *School Planning and Building Handbook.* New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1956.

Engelhardt, Jr., N.L. “Trends in School Architecture and Design.” *Review of Educational Research* 12, no. 2, School Plant and Equipment (April 1942):” 171-177.

Guide for Planning School Plants, 1958 Edition. Washington, DC: National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, 1958.

Johnson, Charles S. “Next Steps in Education in the South.” *Phylon (1940-1956)* 15, no. 1 (First Quarter 1954): 7-20.

Marsh, Reginald E. "Trends in Materials and Design." *Review of Educational Research* 15, no. 1, School Plant and Equipment (February 1945): 54-60.

McClurkin, W.D. *School Building Planning*. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1964.

McQuade, Walter, ed. *Schoolhouse*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1958.

National Council of Chief State School Officers. *Planning Rural Community School Buildings*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Pawley, Eric, ed. *AIA School Plant Studies, A Selection: 1952-1962*. New York: American Institute of Architects, 1962.

Public Schools of Charleston, South Carolina: A Survey Report. Nashville, TN: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1949.

Public Schools of South Carolina: A Report of the South Carolina Education Survey Committee. Nashville, TN: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948.

Reavis, William C. "Functional Planning of School-Building Programs." *The Elementary School Journal* 46, no. 2 (October 1945): 72-80.

Reid, Kenneth, ed. *School Planning: The Architectural Record of a Decade*. New York: F.W. Dodge Corporation, 1951.

Strevall, Wallace H. and Arvid J. Burke. *Administration of the School Building Program*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959.

Books, Articles, and Theses

Baker, R. Scott. "Ambiguous Legacies: The NAACP's Legal Campaign Against Segregation in Charleston, South Carolina, 1935-1975." Ph.D. diss., Columbia University, 1993.

Bolton, Charles C. "Mississippi's School Equalization Program, 1945-1954: 'A Last Gasp to Try to Maintain a Segregated Educational System.'" *The Journal of Southern History* 66, no. 4 (November 2000): 781-814.

Brown, Millicent. "Civil Rights Activism in Charleston, South Carolina, 1940-1970." Ph.D. diss., Florida State University, 1997.

- Byrnes, James F. *All in One Lifetime*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958.
- Clark, Septima Poinsette. *Echo in My Soul*. New York: E.P. Dutton & Co., 1962.
- Hornsby, Benjamin F. *Stepping Stone to the Supreme Court: Clarendon County, South Carolina*. Columbia: South Carolina Department of Archives and History, 1992.
- Kirk, Francis Marion. *South Carolina Education, 1710-1965*. Columbia: South Carolina Department of Education, 1966.
- Kluger, Richard. *Simple Justice: The History of Brown v. Board of Education and Black America's Struggle for Equality*. New York: Vintage Books, 2004.
- Moore, Burchill Richardson. "A History of the Negro Public Schools of Charleston, South Carolina, 1867-1942." M.A. thesis, University of South Carolina, 1942.
- Murray, Pauli, ed. *States' Laws on Race and Color*. Studies in the Legal History of the South, eds. Paul Finkelman and Kermit L. Hall. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1997.
- O'Brien, Thomas Victor. "Georgia's Response to *Brown v. Board of Education*: The Rise and Fall of Massive Resistance, 1949-1961." Ph.D. diss., Emory University, 1992.
- Quint, Howard. *Profile in Black and White: A Frank Portrait of South Carolina*. Washington, DC: Public Affairs Press, 1958.
- Robertson, David. *Sly and Able: A Political Biography of James F. Byrnes*. New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 1994.
- Smyth, William D. "Segregation in Charleston in the 1950s: A Decade of Transition." *South Carolina Historical Magazine* 92, no. 2 (April 1991): 99-123.
- Sullivan, Patricia. *Days of Hope: Race and Democracy in the New Deal Era*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1996.
- Tushnet, Mark. *The NAACP's Legal Strategy Against Segregated Education, 1925-1950*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1987.