Kentucky Historic Schools Survey:

An Examination of the History and Condition of Kentucky's Older School Buildings

January 2002

The Kentucky Heritage Council

Prepared by: Rachel Kennedy and Cynthia Johnson
Design Assistance: William J. Macintire

Kentucky Historic Schools Survey:

An Examination of the History and Condition of Kentucky's Older School Buildings

January 2002

Prepared by: Rachel Kennedy and Cynthia Johnson
Design: William J. Macintire

Foreword

The Education Arts & Humanities Cabinet (EAH) is dedicated to raising the quality of life for all Kentuckians. We are committed to stewardship, documentation and preservation of the Commonwealth's diverse history, natural and cultural heritage, artifacts and buildings. We believe that community is the keystone to the understanding of the Commonwealth's diversity, and that communities will thrive if they promote lifelong learning.

As Secretary of the Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet, I am especially proud of the collaboration between the Kentucky Department of Education (KDE) and the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC). These cabinet agencies have formed an exciting partnership to study the issues related to historic schools. A survey of all school districts was conducted during the summer of 2001 to begin the development of a comprehensive catalogue listing all of Kentucky's historic schools. The Historic Schools Survey is part of a multi- faceted effort intended to encourage local school districts to carefully consider all of their options and information regarding the preservation and use of historic school facilities.

As a career educator, I am dedicated to exploring all possibilities for keeping historic small neighborhood schools in service. In many instances these historic small schools are the backbone of thriving communities across the state, and offer innumerable opportunities for a vast array of possible continued use.

It has been extremely rewarding to observe this project in process. I greatly appreciate KDE Commissioner Gene Wilhoit and his staff, and KHC Executive Director David L. Morgan and his staff for their commitment and efforts to ensure the completion and success of this study. Special recognition is extended to Rachel Kennedy, lead project coordinator and intern Cynthia Johnson for their incredible determination in this endeavor.

It is my sincere hope that the Historic School Survey Report will be an important and effective tool in Kentucky's Smart Growth and historic schools preservation efforts.

Marlene M. Helm
Secretary of the Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet

Table of Contents

Kentucky Department of Education & Kentucky Heritage Council

Kentucky Department of Education

The Kentucky Department of Education is a state governmental agency operating under the Education, Arts and Humanities Cabinet. The department is responsible for overseeing Kentucky's K-12 public education system, operating primarily as a service organization to public schools, teachers, students, administrators, parents, citizens and various education partners. The department is headed by a Commissioner of Education, who is selected by the Kentucky Board of Education. The organizational structure of the department includes two bureaus, ten offices and many divisions and branches. The department also operates eight Regional Service Centers located across the state; those centers provide assistance and resources for school districts in their areas. Total employment at the department is approximately 800 — nearly 600 Frankfort-based employees and 200 around the state.

Kentucky Heritage Council

The mandate of the Kentucky Heritage Council is to identify, preserve, and protect the historic and cultural resources of Kentucky. To do this, the Council maintains updated inventories of historic structures and archaeological sites, and they assist communities with nominating properties to the National Register of Historic Places. By working with other state and federal agencies, local communities, and interested citizens, the Council seeks to build a greater awareness of Kentucky's past and to encourage the long-term preservation of Kentucky's significant historic and cultural resources. Through its various programs, the Council strives to show how historic resources contribute to the economy and quality of life of all Kentuckians.

Acknowledgments

Introduction

I n January 2000, the National Trust for Historic Preservation identified older school buildings as endangered community as sets, in response to growing public alarm over their rate of demolition, deterioration, and abandonment. The initiative called attention to the plight of some of the country's most significant, well-built older public buildings. The study was undertaken at the state level by the state historic preservation offices, statewide nonprofit preservation groups, and local nonprofit advocacy groups.

As the State Historic Preservation Office for the Commonwealth, the Kentucky Heritage Council began identifying issues that discourage the renovation of older schools. After conducting case studies in several Kentucky counties, it became clear that leadership on the local level made a huge difference in whether an older school was renovated. Some districts planned to keep their older schools in service, while others implied that older schools made for poor learning environments. Empirical observation, though, was not sufficient to get a handle on the state of Kentucky's older facilities.

To truly understand the issue, the Heritage Council partnered with the Kentucky Department of Education and the Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet. This partnership sponsored the first Historic Schools Symposium at Old Male High School in Louisville, and the 2001 Historic Schools Survey.

The Survey Report is intended to provide detailed information on the state of historic schools in Kentucky. The Report is meant to assist local school districts, preservationists, developers, local governments, and concerned citizens, when deciding to renovate, maintain, or reuse historic school buildings. The study is divided into three main sections.

The first section is a history of public education and school building design and siting in Kentucky. This section can be used by preservationists and developers attempting to list a school on the National Register of Historic Places, and school administrators and teachers who wish to know more about the history of education and design. The second section is a tabulation and analysis of the survey results. This section follows the format of the survey form, located in the Appendix, and gives specific information on schools owned by the local district and KDE. This information should assist school administrators and developers when renovating and reusing Kentucky's older school buildings. A sum-

mary of the findings is situated at the end of this section. Finally, a set of case studies is included, which demonstrate that Kentucky's older schools are viable community resources that can, in many cases, be renovated to continue service as schools, or can be reused to furnish day care centers, community centers, housing, business incubators, etc. Prior to the beginning of the Report, a methodology section is included that explains the nature of the research and the method for obtaining and analyzing the results.

The Schools Survey report is the culmination of a multi-year study to preserve older school buildings. It is hoped that this report will assist local school districts and other concerned individuals with the renovation and reuse of Kentucky's older schools. These buildings are often the only public building in small town Kentucky, and can be of service to school children and the community for many years to come.

Project Methodology

During the Summer of 2001, the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC) and the Kentucky Department of Education (KDE), agencies of the Education, Arts and Humanities Cabinet, sent out survey forms intended to assess the number, condition, and needs of older school facilities across the Commonwealth. 250 survey forms were sent to 107 school districts that were believed to have schools older than 50 years. A listing of these schools was provided by KDE's Facilities Management Division. In addition to identified districts, all school districts received a blank survey form to complete if they possessed schools over 50 years old.

The 50 year old cut-off date was employed because the National Register of Historic Places requires a building, structure, object, or site to be 50 years of age or older to qualify for listing as an historic resource. Newer sites can be listed on the Register, but they must possess extraordinary significance to be considered. Graceland, the former home of singer Elvis Presley, is an example of a site of exceptional significance that was approved for listing on the Register before it reached 50 years old.

All information provided by KDE's Facilities Management Division was entered onto the forms and sent out in July 2001. The initial deadline was August 2001, but this date was extended to October 2001. The last survey forms were received in November 2001. By November, 196 survey forms were received of the 250 forms sent out, a response rate of nearly 70 percent. Additionally, 25 forms were returned documenting facilities that were not on our original list of older schools. The majority of these forms were from districts with schools that were adaptively reused to serve administrative functions. The respondents who completed the forms were generally County Superintendents, or Facility Management Coordinators on the local level. Other respondents included school principals in consultation with janitorial staff. Of the school districts reporting, 160 facilities were used for elementary and secondary education. Forms were returned for: 103 elementary schools, 26 middle schools, 31 high schools, 21 administrative or building with other uses, and 15 forms documenting schools that had been demolished. This information was entered into a survey database, and analyzed for any patterns.

Survey Methodology

As stated previously, the survey forms were analyzed to understand issues facing older schools. Statistics were gathered on each question and combined with research on building maintenance, KDE policy, and discussions with registered architects and building contractors to clarify survey results. General patterns began to emerge, indicating the composition of the typical older school in Kentucky and suggesting issues that must be addressed.

The survey results are discussed in detail in the Survey Results Section of the report. Recommendations are included throughout this section, and in the Summary at the conclusion of the results. The results section follows the general format of the survey forms. In this format, the Description/Identification Section begins with question 6 and ends with question 15. The Condition/Maintenance Section begins with number 19 and concludes with number 27. And, the Plans Section begins with question 29 and ends with question 32. Question 1 through question 5 are not analyzed, because they are basic information about who completed the form, the name of the school, and the district number. A listing of all school districts with older facilities can be found in the Appendix portion of this report.

Some questions are not analyzed. Numbers 16 and 17 are simply requests for a photograph and floor plans. This information was utilized in the design history, and may be found graphically throughout the report. Numbers 12 and 18 were not answered by the majority of respondents, and contained information that was determined to lack a definitive pattern. Thus, no analysis was attempted.

As is always the case with survey results, the responses contain a few problems. The manner in which questions are worded is a consistent problem in all surveys. More open-ended questions entail, by their nature, free-form responses that are not uniform across all survey forms. To address this, the data was listed in the database as it was worded, and interpreted by several project researchers. While this does not totally alleviate the problem, it does lessen errors of interpretation. Related to this are the qualifications of the individuals answering survey requests. Some individuals are better qualified to understand technical issues than others. It is unclear whether the typical school principal has knowledge of the roofing material, or whether he/she consulted others to uncover the answers. The survey takes the individual at his/her word when analyzing the results.

Sometimes the written word can be misleading. There were many instances in which a respondent referred to a material or an issue in vernacular terms. For example, polyurethane roofs were referred to by some respondents as "foam roofs." Terminology was erratic, but was researched to assess the intention of the respondent.

A very small proportion of missing data is also at issue. There were a few districts that did not notice the second page of the form, and only answered the description section. Additionally, some forms were not completely filled out. So, there were minute gaps in data collected. The Plans Section had the largest amount of unanswered question, so the sample may not be entirely accurate. If the sample is problematic, the number of respondents is noted problematic in the text.

Historic Context Methodology

At the same time, secondary sources on educational history were consulted for pertinent information. These sources, which can be seen in the bibliography, were gleaned to produce the Historic Context section of this report. The two contexts are to illuminate public educational history in Kentucky and design of public schools in Kentucky. National, regional, and local histories were investigated to retrieve information. A standard history was written for both contexts.

The objective was to assist preparers of National Register nominations with questions of eligibility. The historical information provided is to be used in tandem with local histories to understand the development of a particular school building. If the preparer intends to nominate the building to the Register utilizing Criterion C, the section entitled: History of Design in Educational Facilities should primarily be consulted. If the preparer intends to use Criterion A, then the History of Public Education section will furnish a statewide context through which to view the local school building. Preparers should read both histories and the Description portion in the Survey Results section for a better understanding of historic school eligibility. A more detailed description of how to use the contextual information is included at the beginning of this section.

.

For National Register Preparers

One of the main objectives of this study is to assist people in nominating a school to the National Register of Historic Places. Three qualities make any property eligible for listing in the National Register: sufficient age, sufficient historic significance, and sufficient integrity. If a school has these three qualities, it can be shown to meet at least one of the 3 main National Register eligibility criteria, usually designated by letter, A, B, or C. To list an eligible property officially, a person must complete a National Register nomination form. So, how do we determine whether a Kentucky school building has the qualities required by the National Register?

All of the buildings selected in this study of Kentucky's schools have sufficient age in 2001 to be eligible. Obviously as time passes, buildings outside of this study will attain 50 years of age, and so also will be old enough to be considered for listing in the Register. In completing the National Register nomination form, you will put factual information about the building, such as its age and physical character, into the Narrative Description, Section 7 of the form.

Once a building has achieved sufficient age, the next question is whether the building has achieved sufficient historic or architectural significance. Note that the question of age usually is a question of fact, while the question of a school's significance is a judgment, an opinion. The way to determine that a building has achieved sufficient significance is to evaluate its importance within a Historic Context. This study has two historic context narratives, one explaining how a school can be seen as significant in the history of Kentucky education, the other assessing the importance of school design in the history of Kentucky's schools. Each of these studies has named important events and decisions, significant individuals, and the innovations and typical designs for schools in the state. Schools seen as important within these contexts will be eligible for National Register listing at the state level of significance.

Most schools, though, won't be of statewide importance, but still can be eligible for the National Register. That's because the Register recognizes local level of significance, as well. To evaluate either the historical or architectural value of a particular school in the local past, one must compose a historic context focused on local themes. The two contexts developed in this study can be used to guide this process. Let's take, for example, a school built in 1912, in Bardstown, seat of Nelson County, that someone wishes to nominate to the Register. One could evaluate its local importance within one of two contexts, named here hypothetically: "Education in Nelson County, Kentucky, 1900-1950," or "Schools and Governmental Building Design in Nelson County, Kentucky, 1850-1950." Within the first of these two contexts, one would present locally-based information evaluating which

events, people, and decisions were important in shaping Nelson County's educational history during the first half of the twentieth century. Thus, the 1912 school's significance can be shown within the context of local education. On the other hand, the other context would consider which designs have been important in the evolution of Nelson County's institutional construction from 1850-1950. In contrast to the educationally-based context, the architectural context would show the 1912 school to have different meanings, different values, according to where it fit in that design evolution and what it teaches us about local design choices. In completing the nomination form, the local or statewide historic context, as well as the evaluation of the school's significance within that context, is entered into Section 8, the Statement of Significance.

If, after evaluating the historic school within the statewide historic context of this study, or within a local historic context you develop, you find the school is significant, then you must determine whether it has sufficient integrity. A simple definition of integrity is "the ability of a historic property to convey its significance through its material character." According to this definition, one must define a school's significance before the school's integrity can be evaluated. So, once the school's significance is determined (by evaluating it within a historic or architectural context), we ask whether that significance can be recognized in the physical nature of the school. The National Register offers seven factors by which to analyze integrity: location, setting, materials, workmanship, design, feeling, and association. Every school will have some integrity on each of these factors. The way to evaluate integrity is to ask first "Which of these seven factors are most important in conveying the significance of my particular school?" The normal response generally depends upon whether you see the school as historically or architecturally significant. A school that is historically significant generally must have integrity of location, setting, some materials and design, and association; a school that is architecturally significant will have integrity of materials, design, perhaps workmanship, and feeling. It is possible for the particular school being nominated to possess additional integrity factors, such as a historically significant school also having integrity of workmanship because its historic fabric is intact, or that an architecturally significant school also has integrity of setting because its school grounds have experienced great changes. For more information on integrity, see *National Register Bulletin 15, How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*. On the form, enter the evaluation of Integrity into Section 8, at the end of the Statement of Significance.

These evaluations all lead the nomination preparer to be able to say that a school qualifies for National Register eligibility criteria A, B, or C. A school meets Criterion A by being historically significant in the local or state educational context. A school meets Criterion B through its association with an important individual, someone whose importance is known from the statewide or local educational context study. A school meets Criterion C by being important within a local or statewide architectural context. The opening paragraph of the Statement of Significance, the nomination's section 8, should state which criteria the school meets, should name the historic context of evaluation, and should indicate the period of time that the school has this significance.

As there are many ways to say something is either historically or architecturally significant, there are many ways to say that one school meets the terms of one criterion. This study provides many of those ways, both for architecture and for history, on a state level. You can use this study's findings to evaluate a particular building, or follow its approach and define your own local historical or architectural context to help others recognize the important role your school has played in your community.

The Lebanon Junior High School (left) and High School structures are listed on the National Register under criterion A as significant reminders of the growth, development, and importance of education in this western Kentucky town and the surrounding county. The buildings represent the demand and need for improved educational facilities, and they reflect trends in public building and school construction. Both the Lebanon High School and the Lebanon Junior High School are examples of educational facilities constructed in the early twentieth century and remain as impressive focal points in the small town of Lebanon.

Brief History of Public Education in Kentucky from 1800 to 1954

"Guardians of the public weal, I appeal to you with confidence in behalf of the vital interests of our common country. Her prosperity, I know you cherish with all the pride and ardor of patriotic feeling; and let it never be forgotten that all her prosperity is suspended on the virtue and intelligence of her children; that these are her strongest bulwarks, composed with which her ocean ramparts, the thunders of her navy and her chivalrous soldiery are nothing." Superintendent Joseph J. Bullock, 1839 (Hamlett 1914, 19)

The free system of public schools in Kentucky is a relatively recent invention. Unlike the New England states, which established a system of common schools in the early nineteenth century, Kentuckians did not make substantial investment in their schools system until the twentieth century. Prior to that time, there was no coherent statewide organizational structure; instead there were a myriad of tiny self-taxing local districts that operated in relative isolation. For African Americans, the situation was even worse, as numerous counties refused to provide educational opportunities for emancipated blacks in the age of segregation. Until the 1960s, many rural blacks were forced to attend school miles away in the next county. Against this backdrop of segregated facilities and insignificant public investment, Kentucky's common school system gradually developed. This essay will discuss the development of free public schools in the state from 1800 to 1954.

Most historians of educational history attribute the beginnings of Kentucky's common school system to the dispersal of the Federal Surplus in 1837. Certainly, the federal distribution spurred on enactment of the first coherent common schools legislation in the state, but it was not the initial attempt at establishing a public educational system, and it was definitely not the last. In the early nineteenth century, the American Republic was composed of a new set of institutions founded on the inviolable liberties of propertied men. We may think of this as passé, but it is important to remember that this form of governance was considered experimental. Monarchical rule was the norm of the day. As a safeguard to the new-found American liberties, most patriots embraced the concept of a free public education for all. While they did not necessarily ascribe their freedoms to all fellow countrypersons (women and non-whites exempted), they did understand that ignorance could breed tyranny, as Dr. Bullock's quote above illustrates. Therefore, they promulgated a system of public education to ameliorate this condition, and sustain liberal institutions.

Kentuckians were no different in this regard. Initially, Kentuckians tried to develop a system of land-grant seminaries in every county. (Hamlett 1914, 3). Land was set aside by the state in

the counties for erection of academies; though the state intended support and initial start-up costs to be provided by private individuals and groups on the local level. These academies were never meant to be free to all children in the area, as subscription was required before a student could attend. The consequence of this early experiment was exclusion of poorer children, due to the hefty costs of tuition. It is probable that much of the difficulties with the academies were due to a perception that they were elitist institutions. (Hamlett 1914, 4). Whatever the case, the seminaries disbanded because of local corruption and a general disregard for public education. Despite what appeared to be distaste for public schools, Kentucky governors encouraged the legislature and average Kentuckians to support a system of schools. Governor Gabriel Slaughter said in 1816, "I presume you will agree with me that nothing in this government…is more worthy of your attention than the promotion of education, not only by endowing colleges and universities upon a liberal plan, but by diffusing through the county seminaries and schools for the education of all classes of the community; making them free to all poor children, and the children of poor persons." (McVey 1949, 38).

Upon the urgings of Governor Slaughter and others, the legislature approved an act to create common schools. The Act specified a discrete funding source, but did not detail a system for founding these institutions. This methodological failure foreshadowed the shortcomings of many of Kentucky's subsequent school laws, as funding was thought to be the main issue in creating common schools. Known as the Literary Fund, the 1821 Act provided that one half of the profits of the Bank of the Commonwealth of Kentucky be appropriated for general educational needs. The funds were to be distributed to each county that took initiative to establish a school. The Act also called for a comprehensive report on the state of Kentucky's educational system. The Barry Report, authored by Senators W.T. Barry, John Pope, John Witherspoon, and David Murray, demonstrated the success of common schools in other states, and the best method for achieving the goal of an educated populace. Unfortunately, the Report was ignored by the legislature because of a lack of political will, and the Bank of the Commonwealth failed a few years later. Further, the entire funding source was routinely diverted by the legislature to other infrastructure projects, like road and canal construction.

After the failure of this first attempt at public education, the state actively pursued federal surplus funds for the sole purpose of establishing a system of free public schools. Garnered from the

sale of public lands, the federal government released Kentucky's share of this fund in 1837, which amounted to $1,433,757. Upon dispersal of the fund, the legislature immediately acted to cut the fund to $1 million. In 1838, lawmakers approved an act to establish a system of common schools. The 1838 Act specified a loose administrative structure with local districts as the primary decisionmakers. At this point, the fund had been shrunk again to $850,00.

As noted above, the basic premise of the new "Schools Act" was to maintain decision-making on the local level. While the legislature established a State Board of Education, their main purpose was to disburse interest accumulated from bonds drawn on the federal surplus money, referred to as the "sinking fund." Interestingly, the State Board offered no guidance on teacher qualifications, appropriate curricula, length of the school term, or suitable school building types. The legislation did set up a somewhat cumbersome administrative structure focused on the local level. Basically, each county had to approve a local tax for education. The county court's office, then, divided the county into districts, and five county school commissioners were appointed by the State Superintendent. In turn, the county commissioners designated five trustees, a clerk, and a tax collector for each district. The district trustees were responsible for hiring teachers, choosing textbooks, building schoolhouses, maintaining a census of school age children in their district, assessing enrollment and daily attendance, collecting taxes, and writing a yearly report to the county commissioner. The county commissioners were required to compile district reports into a larger county report. Neither the trustees nor the county commissioner received much pay for their labors. Obviously, most control was assumed on the micro-local level.

Unfortunately, the gains of the 1838 school law were short-lived. In terms of local initiative, few counties rushed to tax themselves for establishment of a school system. In 1841, only 24 counties out of a total of 90 counties were divided into districts, and only 22 had accepted local taxation for common schools. (Ligon 1942, 82). Part of the hesitation was related to a lack of comprehensive support from the General Assembly. In sum, the state legislature continually spent the monies reserved for the school system for other purposes, until the fund was totally depleted. Advocates of common schools attempted to rectify this situation by appealing to the legislature to pay the interest on the bonds held for the Board of Education. But, the legislature and the governors refused to pay the "state a debt due to herself." (Hamlett 1914, 8). The disagreement led to a ceremonial burning of the school bonds by the Governor, the Treasurer, and the State Auditor.

In spite of such actions, activist State Superintendent Robert Breckenridge was able to gain legislative support for repayment of all interest due on the school fund in 1848. At the same time, he was also able to mobilize the supporters of common schools to pass a referendum for a statewide tax of 2 cents on every $100 worth of taxable property for the common school system. This popular vote was the first acknowledgment by average Kentuckians of the desirability of a public school system. Perhaps most importantly, the constitutional convention of 1849 recognized the necessity of including strong amendments to the state constitution with regard to common schools. Article 11 of the 1850 Constitution held the common school fund inviolable for the purposes of sustaining a system of common schools throughout Kentucky. (Hamlett 1914, 9). Legislation following this mandate removed the ability to collect tuition for common schools and made them free schools for all white children in the state for the exclusive purpose of primary and secondary education.

As the Civil War drew to a close, Kentucky blacks expressed a strong desire for a system of public education. 'The colored people are Sending for us in Every Direction,' a black federal official wrote in January 1865; 'they want Schools Started'. (Lucas 1992, 1:229)

Very few substantive changes were made in Kentucky's white school system until the beginning of the twentieth century. While a dizzying array of minor alterations were enacted, from frequently changing the number of district trustees to increasing the state school tax, the essential district-oriented approach was maintained. For African Americans, the situation was markedly different. African Americans had little opportunity for a coherent education prior to the Civil War. Unlike most southern states, Kentucky did not prohibit education of slaves, although the practice was not generally accepted among whites. There were a few slaveholders who educated their bondsmen in the hope of hiring them out, or preparing them for freedom. In these instances, a member of the white family would hold makeshift classes to educate slaves in reading, writing, and arithmetic. (Lucas 1992, 1:140). Additionally, slaves and free blacks could attend school at private institutions associated with black churches. Whatever method they were educated by, though, the opportunity for educational betterment was always slim.

After the Civil War, Kentucky's African American population began to organize racially separate schools through assistance from the federal Freedmen's Bureau and various northern missionary societies. Up until 1871, when Freedmen's Bureau assistance was discontinued, Kentucky blacks established over 200 schools serving 10,500 students. (Lucas 1992, 1:234). The majority of these schools operated with minimal financial resources. Teach-

ers were not paid very well, and the school term was limited to three months at most. As before the War, numerous black schools were supported by and associated with religious organizations. These schools typically operated out of a small room in the church building, and required modest financial donations to offset operation costs. This situation did not change until a common school system was organized for African Americans with state resources in 1874.

The 1874 school law created a racially segregated common school system for black children. (Lucas 1992, 1:255-262). The organizational structure was similar to that of white schools, with educational districts under the management of several black district trustees. Unlike white school trustees, though, black district trustees were not permitted to make major decisions for the school system. This privilege was reserved for county commissioners, who were invariably white. Trustees were required to locate the school house a "suitable" distance from all white schools, hire teachers, and manage school funds. Funding for black schools came from taxes collected on black-owned property, the capitation tax on black males over 21 years old, and fees, fines, and forfeitures on black-owned properties. As might be imagined, this source of funding was not substantial, given that African Americans were, in general, impoverished from years of slavery. Further, the method of financing the black school system was not equivalent to the white system of financing, which allowed for distribution of state funds based on the number of children in the district. Because white taxpayers did not want to pay for black schools, black schools were financed solely from taxes collected from black properties. The number of school children in a district was not even considered. Thus, inequities were rife from the beginning of the new school law.

In 1881, upon threat of a federal lawsuit to integrate the schools, the General Assembly officially recognized a two-year old bill intended to equalize the school fund among blacks and whites. The only choices given to the legislature were to close down black schools, equalize the funds, or integrate the schools. The legislature chose to equalize school funds with approval from the majority of Kentucky voters. In sum, voters approved legislation to equalize the school funds for segregated systems, repeal the capitation tax on black males, provide a small increase in school property taxes, and expand the school age for black students to 20 years old. It was clear that the prospect of integrating schools systems persuaded white voters to share the state school fund equitably with African Americans.

In 1908, the state school system underwent momentous changes. Whereas before the system was managed on the district level, the 1908 school law made the county the primary unit of school administration. Under this new form of management, the county superintendent and the county board of education assumed much of the responsibilities for the local district. The district trustee position was downplayed in the new organizational structure, which divided the county into educational districts with an equal number of children included therein. Within these divisions, the old districts, now known as sub-districts, were kept intact and one sub-district trustee was elected to the Division Board. The chair of the Division Board served on the County Board of Education along with the County Superintendent.

All of these measures were intended to bring about a new era of efficiency and order to Kentucky's school system. Centralization of school authority and efficient operations were the rallying cry of what historians call the "progressive era." Basically, progressives believed that scientific efficiency and order could be applied to social phenomena with substantial results. For example, Fredrick Winslow Taylor was the American "social engineer" who applied time and motion studies to human workers. The end goal of these studies, known as "Taylorism," paved the way for the mechanization of human movements in machines of the assembly line. Progressives touted reforms, such as these, to rationalize human relations, and make them more logical and predictable.

With these new measures for efficiency also came a focus on professionalization in the field of school administration. Progressives saw a need for objective academic standards for teachers and administrators. In Kentucky, this notion manifested in efforts to license teachers, and improve qualifications for all school administrators. Before the early twentieth century, teachers were certified by passing a test administered by the local trustee and the county board of examiners. There were no minimal professional or educational qualifications for the job. Additionally, the tests were prepared on the local level, and were not standard for the state, which resulted in uneven qualifications across the Commonwealth. In 1906, the state established two normal schools for teachers in Bowling Green and Richmond.

These schools allowed for teacher training opportunities, which heretofore had consisted of a cram session to prepare for the local exam. In 1920, legislation was passed which required elementary teachers to pass certification tests formulated by the State Department of Education, possess at least one year of high school education, and several weeks of professional training. High school teachers were required to pass a certification test coupled with 2 years of college and several months of professional training. The State Department of Education made this process worthwhile by rewarding more pay to teachers who obtained additional training above and beyond requirements. All of these factors provided for a better-educated teaching professional.

At the same time, legislation was enacted which raised qualifications for the county superintendent and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The county superintendent's office was especially rife with corruption, as there were no standards for the office. Basically, a candidate was elected based upon his competence as a politician or businessman. In 1918, standards for the county superintendent were raised to require a Bachelor's Degree in Education, or an advanced certificate in education from the University of Kentucky or a normal (teacher training) school. This training allowed the county official to meet additional requirements mandated by the new school laws, which included general oversight of all buildings and grounds, and the nomination of teachers, principals, assistants, and clerks. The State Superintendent also assumed added responsibilities with centralization and growth of school authority. His office became the focal point for the State's school system, as he became responsible for teacher certification, preparation of curricula, and promulgation of school building plans. As a result, the state office acquired specialized departments to deal with these matters, like the division of rural school supervision, certification, high school supervision, etc. The state superintendent was required to possess a Bachelor's Degree in Education and experience in the Kentucky school system.

Other changes were instituted with the new school legislation. Perhaps most important was the 1908 mandate that compelled all counties to establish one or more high schools by 1910. Before this time, it was common for children to finish school with the 8th grade. In many counties, there was no high school; students wishing to go on to secondary education had to attend a private academy or high school in another municipality. The 1908 law, though, made high school a necessary course of study for Kentucky children. The exception to this mandate was found in the

black school system. Many county systems refused to create high schools for black students, arguing that there were not enough black children in their district. Therefore, they negotiated agreements with other counties to educate African American students within their political boundaries. Thus, black high school students were transported long distances to attend segregated schools, rather than integrate them with white high schools.

Concerns about Kentucky's high level of illiteracy and poverty led to the 1912 legislative provision which mandated attendance for all school children from age 6 to age 16. Progressive educators and lawmakers were deeply worried about the impact of both an undereducated workforce on the state's economy and culture, and about the welfare of small children who were compelled to take employment outside of the home. In spite of the approval of this provision, though, some Kentuckians persisted in denying the benefits of an elementary or secondary education to their children. And, enforcement of the law was scant at best, so the effect was less than the progressives would have hoped.

The course of study was standardized throughout Kentucky schools in the progressive era. New subjects, like civic education, home economics, thrift, and agriculture, were taught by educators with specialties in these disciplines. Additionally, a state textbook commission was formed which studied and promoted a list of acceptable texts for Kentucky schools.

All of these reforms were made possible through the expansion of a county's authority to tax its citizens. Local school systems were required to levy a small tax on each $100 worth of personal property. This tax funded better teacher salaries, new school buildings and equipment, and transportation of students to consolidated schools. The state funds continued to pay for teacher and administrative salaries. The obvious problem with this method of funding was the fact that some counties were more prosperous than others, which meant that their taxed property was worth more. Thus, larger financial expenditures could be disbursed to local districts. Therefore, some Kentucky counties were able to build grand school buildings and pay highly qualified teaching staff, while others could barely afford to maintain sub-standard buildings and few experienced staff.

There was a strong backlash to many of the reforms that were instituted during the early twentieth century. The efforts to consolidate schools, and centralize district decisionmaking met with opposition throughout the state, because micro-local control was especially prized. The legislature, for its part, reversed itself on

many reforms, as frequently as it passed them, due to perceived public aversion. The educational reform movement, then, did not achieve all of its stated goals, but many measures were passed with the effect of a stronger, more efficient school system.

"Supt. N.O. Kimbler…has ordered the J. Boyd Colored School closed after teaching three and one half months and the teacher has a contract for seven months. We are paying taxes on nearly nine hundred acres of land, have bought books and clothes for 19 children [and] now they must grow up in ignorance….He has closed another colored school [in] Scuffletown. The teacher is still teaching although the Supt. has told her that she would not get any money. We have appealed to the State Board of Education in Frankfort, Ky. for justice. We need help Dr. Dubois." Mrs. Emma Boyd of Henderson County, 1923 (Wright 1992, 2:108)

While white public schools changed dramatically in the early part of the century, African American schools did not transform accordingly. Part of the problem was that many county and city districts did not make substantial efforts to distribute state school funds equitably. (Wright 1992, 2:103). In spite of the 1881 equalization law and numerous state and local court cases that required equal distribution of state school funds, school officials ignored the mandate and set aside a paltry sum for the black school system. Typically, local school authorities would charge that there were not enough black school children in their county to provide educational opportunities, even though black students could have been accommodated in white schools. (Wright 1992, 2:105). This allegation and the determination to keep black and white schools separate justified countless refusals to establish black secondary schools on the county level, and half-hearted efforts to support learning on the elementary level. In many instances, school officials would agree to fund a school for a "few months" if the black community would construct a school house.   (Wright 1992, 2:106). (In contrast, white schools were built through local taxation and bond issues.) Even when blacks were assisted through the local school system, the funds were typically derived from taxation on black property only.

An example of this inequitable system can be found in Lexington circa 1915. Put briefly, African American leaders had to petition the local school system, which was considered progressive, to alleviate crowding conditions in the city's black schools. While city school officials established eight buildings for white students, there were only three buildings for an equivalent number of African American children. The petition asks, "Give us a new high school building and convert the Russell School into a ward [elementary] school… Gentlemen, we beg you in the name of fairness and justice to add fifty thousand dollars to the one hundred thousand…We are not asking for an equal share with you, but only that you give us buildings sufficient to educate our chil-

dren, and that will be satisfactory to us." (Wright 1992, 2:121). Clearly, black Kentuckians had to resort to begging when it came to getting even a portion of their share of the state school funds.

At the same time, school officials denied black students entrance into white schools. In general, black students would have to travel to the nearest city to obtain an elementary education. Obtaining a secondary education was much more difficult, as there were few black high schools in the state. School terms also reflected this lack of investment, because African American schools were typically open for a few months at best. Additionally, a system of double taxation existed in that African Americans paid school taxes, and still had to contribute personal resources toward a sufficient education. In sum, African American schools, where they existed, were underfunded and in desperate need of adequate school facilities, teaching staff, textbooks, etc. The quality of teachers was not generally influenced by a lack of funds. Teaching was considered a noble profession in the African American community. In fact, black teachers typically had more education and training when compared to white teaching staff. (Wright 1992, 2:148-149, 206). So, while underfunded, the level of instruction did compare and, in some cases, exceed that found in white schools.

As a result of a lack of funding and available facilities for blacks, their literacy rate was appallingly low. In 1900, over 40 percent of the black population was illiterate. This rate decreased to 15.4 percent by 1930. By contrast, the white illiteracy rate was 16.1 percent in 1890, and 5.7 percent in 1930. Establishment of educational facilities did appear to alleviate the situation, since cities/counties with black schools had lower levels of illiteracy and poverty for blacks. For example, Louisville, which had a sizable proportion of black residents, maintained an illiteracy rate of 9.8 percent in 1930, while Simpson County, with few African American residents, had a rate of over 29 percent. (Wright 1992, 2: 107).

Another related issue was the nature of the curricula in the black school system. In general, education for African Americans was based upon the notion that they should be trained to be "useful" members of society. In other words, training for careers as servants or laborers was considered appropriate; education to develop a critical mind was thought to be wasteful and dangerous. (Wright 1992, 2:104). Consequently, secondary schools for African Americans generally stressed industrial and domestic skills, although they did offer some serious collegiate subjects. Additionally, many African American high schools only provided

education to the tenth grade. White high schools, on the other hand, focused on college preparatory courses, including Latin, Greek and Roman literature, calculus, and etc, and furnished students with a full four-year education.

This inequality in educational experience was justified by the perceived need of Kentucky blacks to invest their lives in manual labor. Some educated blacks believed that progress as a race would not come from acquiring higher levels of education. Instead, industrial and domestic servitude would assist African Americans with the transition from abject poverty. African American Charles Parrish, president of the Norton Institute in early 20th century Louisville, says this, "There must be something radically wrong with an education that defeats the very object for which it was designed; an education that causes a boy to vainly imagine that it is much more honorable to add figures in a musty back office at the munificent compensation of 'Three Dollars' a week than to lay bricks in God's open sunshine at "Three Dollars' a day." (Wright 1992, 2:113). Parrish goes on to say that a classical education would make blacks dissatisfied with the quality of occupations available to them. Many whites assisted with these efforts, as they were provided a skilled workforce in domestic and industrial endeavors.

As stated previously, African Americans frequently had difficulty establishing a school. Since school funds were not forthcoming, the costs could be terribly prohibitive. Among the more significant costs was the actual building plant itself. Assistance with constructing facilities did not come from bond issues or local taxes, but from private donations. In some cases, the local black community was able to raise enough funding and labor to erect a facility. In other cases, a local company would pay for a school building to keep a cheap labor supply in proximity. In Covington in the 1930s, the case involved a local politician who exchanged the promise of an African American high school for votes in the upcoming election. Historically known as the Lincoln Grant High School, the facility was founded for African Americans in Kenton, Boone, and Campbell Counties in 1931.

Lincoln Grant High School School, Covington

Julius Rosenwald, outside the White House, November 1929 (National Photo Company Collection, Library of Congress)

Booker T. Washington, circa 1900 (African American Odyssey Collection, Library of Congress)

Perhaps the most celebrated benefactor was wealthy Chicago entrepreneur Julius Rosenwald. Rosenwald, who was a business partner of Richard Sears of Sears and Roebuck Company, created a building fund in 1917 for rural black schools upon meeting and talking with Booker T. Washington. (Adams 1997, 21). The Rosenwald fund furnished local communities with one-third of the cost of erecting a structure as long as there was strong local commitment; the community provided the remainder of the costs. Rosenwald stipulated that all assisted schools remain in session at least five months, and that the buildings be properly maintained and equipped once completed. All buildings were the property of the local school system, and architectural plans were provided by Rosenwald. In addition to this support, the fund also furnished monies for the housing and training for teachers. Rosenwald hoped that private donations might eventually be curtailed, and the public school fund would be utilized to construct African American schools. In Kentucky, the Rosenwald fund assisted 158 schools and education-related buildings. (Adams 1997, 25). Among the facilities constructed were the Cumensville School in Bourbon County, the Corydon County Training School for Teachers in Henderson County, the Providence Teachers' Home in Webster County, and the Avon, Cadentown, and Fort Springs Schools in Fayette County. (Adams 1997, 26-27). A listing of these schools can be found in Alicestyne Adams' 1997 history of Rosenwald Schools, noted in the bibliography.

The picture painted above is certainly not a portrait of a "separate but equal" school system. There is much to be said about the inequities inherent in this system. In spite of these difficulties, though, African Americans succeeded in becoming doctors, lawyers, bankers, and laborers for the black community. (Harris 1992; Berlin 1974). Because "separate, but equal" was enacted in every facet of southern society, blacks had ample opportunities for employment in professional services to other blacks. Additionally, African Americans educators taught black students pride in their history, and became professional role models. So, the effects of the segregated educational system were not uniformly detrimental.

Reform of Kentucky's educational system continued into the 1950s. Efforts were made by successive legislatures, superintendents, and concerned citizens to refine and equalize the school system across the Commonwealth. Part of the problem was the relative lack of educational progress for most of the 19th century, which resulted in the state being ranked near the bottom on the national scale of scholastic achievement. Measures were taken in the early twentieth century to remedy this problem, but the situation did not improve markedly until the passage of the Kentucky Educational Reform Act (KERA) in 1989.

"One of the newer consolidated schools in Breathitt County, where Mrs. Marie R. Turner is county superintendent. She is trying to consolidate all the schools and build them of stone since so many of the mountain schools have been burned down several times. She has been encouraging an activity program emphasizing creative arts and crafts using their native clay, wood and other materials. Breathitt County, Kentucky." Photograph by Marion Post Wolcott, September, 1940. Farm Security Administration, Office of War Information Photograph Collection, Library of Congress.

The 1934 School Code was among the many measures intended to ameliorate problems within the school system. Based upon several successive studies, the school code attempted to codify existing school legislation into a single usable book, and add new legislation that addressed prominent difficulties. Perhaps the most important measure included in the act was the simplification of school administration. Before 1934, there were three types of school districts: the county, the city, and the independent district. The county districts covered the rural areas, while the independent and city districts were established respectively in small towns and metropolitan areas of the first four classes. Louisville, Lexington, and Maysville were considered city districts by virtue of their exemption from the regulations of the 1838 school law. City and independent districts maintained superior schools because of the concentration of wealth and interest in urbanized areas. In other words, they had a wealthier tax base and a larger population of educated residents. Thus, they paid higher taxes and received schools generally equivalent to those across the nation. The rural districts, however, were poorer, and could not afford high quality teaching staff, good buildings, etc. Additionally, there was a need to keep children working to support the family. Therefore, there was less of an incentive to support the school system. The school code attempted to correct this problem by abolishing city districts, and maintaining independent districts only if they contained 200-250 white children of school age.

Many independent districts could not meet the new requirements, and were forced to merge, along with the city districts, with the county system. While this had the effect of adding some interest and wealth to the county districts, it also began the process of

Consolidated school constructed at Petroleum, KY by the Works Progress Administration, 1930s. (Goodman-Paxton Collection, 1934-1942, PA64M1, 64M1, Special Collections and Archives, University of Kentucky Libraries, Lexington.).

"Going home from school in Breathitt County, Kentucky. The school year begins in July and ends in January, as most of the children have no shoes and insufficient clothing to walk the long distance over bad roads and up creek beds," September, 1940 (Marion Post Wolcott, photgrapher: Farm Security Administration - Office of War Information Photograph Collection, Library of Congress)

school consolidation in Kentucky. School consolidation was the rallying cry for progressive educators across the Commonwealth. Consolidation of small, "inefficient" schools into larger county schools was believed to be the only effective way to operate the state school system. Efficiency was not merely gauged in terms of financial expenditures though, but was also measured according to the number and quality of educational programs that could be maintained. For example, a small one-room school did not have the funds to hire specialized teachers for graded programs, nor were there funds for better equipment or a larger building. The sole way to make this program feasible was to transport students to a central location, where they could benefit from a large building with diverse spaces, like gymnasiums and libraries, and teaching staff with distinctive specialties. Additionally, students from diverse backgrounds could learn from one another. In a sense, the consolidated school became a small urban area in and of itself.

The ability to consolidate schools was related to improvements in the system of roads throughout the state, and to the affordability of the personal automobile and motorbus. Put simply, a navigable, consistent system of roads and a reliable form of transportation had to exist for this system to thrive. By the mid-1930s, a coherent system of federal and state roads was in place in the majority of the Commonwealth. Eastern Kentucky was not connected as thoroughly due to the difficulties in traversing this mountainous region. Thus, consolidation of the school system did not occur as rapidly in the eastern portion of the state. The costs of transporting students to and from consolidated schools was not born lightly. Many school districts could barely afford the expenditures necessary to operate motorbuses and wagons, insure vehicles and drivers, and pay driver salaries. Educational programs frequently suffered due to the large expenditures required for transport. Part of the reason for the high costs was the contractual agreements held with private busing companies. It was common for school systems to contract the bus services to a private company to save initial start-up costs, but by the late 1940s, it was generally acknowledged to be more cost-effective and safer for the school system itself to own and operate the buses. By the early 1950s, there were merely 3,000 one-teacher schools in the state, because smaller schools had been merged into larger county schools. (Butler 1963, 125). When compared to the 5,000+ one-room schools in operation in 1936, this figure seems to indicate that the consolidation movement was somewhat effective. (Butler 1963, 15).

At the same time, federal relief programs enhanced the school system throughout the state. The Works Progress (Projects) Administration (WPA) was probably the single most important element in the effort to consolidate schools. Federal building funds were used across Kentucky to construct new brick and stone school buildings, classroom additions, cafeterias, gymnasiums, and other related educational structures. Nearly all of these substantial structures were built to accommodate students from one-and two-room schools in rural areas. The buildings were also meant to serve as community centers through utilization of the cafeteria and gymnasium for entertainment purposes, and classroom space for adult education programs. From 1930 to 1939, Kentuckians conducted 1758 education-related building projects with a total cost of $24,780,627. (Butler 1963, 16). The federal government contributed $9,708,921 to the projects, which consisted mainly of construction of new buildings and additions. (Butler 1963, 16). In addition to this program, the federal government also contributed funds and expertise for a school lunch program in 1943, and for vocational education in 1917. Thus, schools were able to operate cafeterias, instruct students on proper nutrition, and provide training in agriculture, industry, and domestic economy for students and teachers.

Big Rock School, Works Progress Administration, Breathitt County, 1940 (Photographer: Marion Post Wolcott, Farm Security Administration - Office of War Information Photograph Collection, Library of Congress)

The Second World War blunted some of the earlier progress made in Kentucky schools. As part of the 1934 School Code, teacher certification was administered through the State Department of Education. Additionally, regulations were revised so that many teachers possessed Bachelor's and Master's Degrees by the late 1930s. (McVey 1949, 250). The War lured numerous teachers into higher-paying jobs in industry, leaving teaching to less-capable educators. But quality of instruction was not the only issue. Consolidation of schools came to a virtual halt during the War; few buildings were built and transportation was difficult due to rationing of gas, automobile accessories, and building materials. Moreover, many young men and women were called to serve their country in the war effort, and were not attending school. In sum, the War years were a time of zero growth in school consolidation and, in some cases, an actual recession of gains made in professional teaching qualifications.
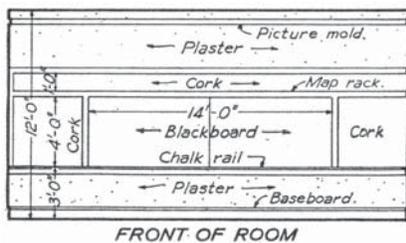
A renewed interest in educational progress characterized the post-war era. On the eve of the beginning of the War, the state legislature voted to ratify Section 186 of the 1891 Kentucky Constitution.

Left: Elevation of Classroom Wall, from Don Graf's Data Sheets (New York: Reinhold, 1944)

Section 186 restricted expenditure of state school funds to a per capita distribution based upon the number of children of school age in a district. The Section also provided that the funds could only be used for teacher or administrative salaries. In 1942, voters went to the polls to approve distribution of 10 percent of the school fund according to need. (Butler 1963, 27). This amendment was the beginning of the endeavor to equalize the school funds throughout the state. Equalization became necessary because not all school districts could afford to erect buildings, transport students, and, in general, maintain a modern educational program. The wealthier districts paid for these items through taxes and donations; the poorer districts typically did without such necessities. Thus, educational experience across the state was not uniform. In 1949, voters returned to the polls to approve an increased distribution based upon need. 25 percent of the state school fund was approved to be spent in districts with urgent needs. (Klotter 2000, 311).
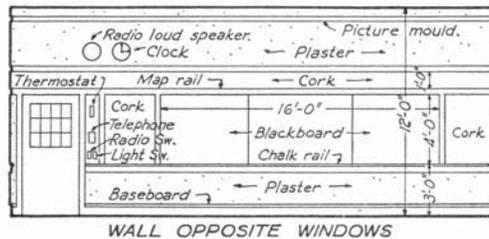
By the early 1950s, it was clear that these makeshift attempts at equalization were not sufficient. State Superintendent Wendell Butler put it like this, " I told the people that the federal highway system don't stop at county lines and asked why education should. I told the people that the only foundation on which a greater Kentucky could be built was the foundation of education." (Doyle 1987, 308). Butler, KEA president Lyman Ginger, and others spearheaded a campaign to alter Section 186. This time, though, the efforts centered around removing the stipulation that state school funds must be used for salaries. In sum, Kentucky voters approved ratifying 186 to permit expenditures of state school funds on any "public school purpose," as defined by the General Assembly. (Doyle 1987, 309). In turn, the legislature created the Minimum Foundation Program, which allowed for, "better-trained teachers; encouraged a salary schedule that rewarded additional college preparation and continuation in the profession; provided for consolidation of schools with modern equipment and buildings; and facilitated the closing of small inferior operations. It expanded curriculum offerings and literally paved the road to school by providing an efficient and dependable pupil transportation system." (Doyle 1987, 311). The program, then, set aside monies for needy districts to use as they saw fit. The Minimum Foundation Program did not fix all of the difficulties inherent in the system. These issues were not successfully addressed until the passage of the Kentucky Educational Reform Act in 1989.

Elevation of Classroom wall from Don Graf's Data Sheets (New York: Reinhold, 1944)

ntegration of black schools with white schools was mandated in 1954 by the Supreme Court decision "Brown vs. the Board of Education of Topeka Kansas." Basically, the Court ruled that separate facilities were not equal, and ordered desegregation of all school systems across the country. In a second decision regarding procedure, the Court ruled that public schools must be desegregated "with all deliberate speed." (Wright 1992, 2:198). In Kentucky, as elsewhere in the South, the resultant process was slow in nature and largely based upon leadership in the black community. Put simply, many Kentucky districts drug their feet, and integrated only when legal proceedings from the local NAACP chapter were discussed.

Shortly after the second Brown decision in 1955, the Kentucky Department of Education issued a directive ordering school districts to proceed rapidly toward school desegregation. (Wright 1992, 2:198). School officials were required to establish a plan that detailed efforts to desegregate schools. In many cases, these efforts were maintained at the level of "lip service" for several years after the directive was ordered. According to local school officials, the main difficulties were overcrowding in white schools, and a need to procure gradual changes that would not upset whites. In Shelbyville, for instance, the local NAACP chapter met with the school board to determine plans for integration. They were told by the Superintendent that, "not only were there no plans existing for desegregation, but that their boards had not even seriously discussed the matter." (Wright 1992, 2:199). In spite of threatened legal action, the Shelbyville Board of Education remained adamant about the inability to integrate due to overcrowding.

Kentucky's dual school system came to an end by the mid-1960s. In 1964-65, 95 percent of the school districts had complied with the Court's order. In small towns, black schools were closed, and African American students were transferred to formerly all-white facilities. In larger towns and cities, integration was more difficult to achieve. African Americans and whites lived in large segregated neighborhoods in cities like Lexington and Louisville each typically with its own segregated school facility. So the local school board could open up schools to both blacks and whites, but require attendance at the nearest school facility. In essence, then, the city's schools remained segregated. In instances where school officials attempted to integrate whites into black schools, local protest sparked closing of historically black

Hillsboro Elementary in Fleming County is a WPA School.

schools. In Lexington, for example, school officials changed Paul Lawrence Dunbar High School into a Junior High, and bused black secondary students to Henry Clay High School in 1966. (Wright 1992, 2:205). White parents created such a fuss that Dunbar was closed shortly thereafter. In Lexington, "the Board of Education closed all of the schools in black communities, meaning that whites attended schools in close proximity to their homes while Afro-Americans were compelled to travel great distances to schools." (Wright 1992, 2:205). Some cities became battle-grounds in the late 1960s and early 1970s, when busing black students to white schools was initiated. As historian Marion Lucas says about Louisville, "From blue-collar workers at General Electric and Ford Motor Company to a wide range of organizations, whites protested [court ordered] busing in Louisville. Many of them enrolled their children in Catholic Schools or moved to new subdivisions in Oldham and Bullitt Counties to avoid having their children assigned to Louisville's inner-city schools." (Wright 1992, 2:211).

Integration did not come easily in Kentucky, and it left a hefty price to be paid in the black community. As was the case with black facilities, black teachers principals, and administrators were not generally retained to teach in white schools. (Wright 1992, 2:206-209). In turn, blacks lost community schools that taught African American history, and provided strong professional role models. Historians of the African American experience generally acknowledge the loss to be synonymous with the decline of black professionalism. (Berlin 1974).

To conclude, Kentucky's educational system underwent momentous changes over the 154-year period covered in this study. From locally- maintained one-room schools of the mid-19th century to modern educational facilities of the 1950s, Kentuckians began to understand and embrace the concept of a free public education. For African Americans, the ability to acquire a public education was frustrated by a lack of local investment and racial discrimination. In spite of these difficulties, black students and professionals thrived up until integration in the 1950s and 1960s. Post integration, school facilities and funding became more equal, although there was still much progress to be made.

Oliver School, Winchester, Clark County

History of Design in Public Educational Facilities, 1800 to 1954

A good school is the best advertisement, the best asset and the best dividend-paying property in any community. (Chapman 1917).

Kentucky's school buildings have undergone numerous changes over the course of time. Concurrent with the development of the educational system, the buildings were adapted to suit the needs of Kentucky's communities. Ranging from one-room school houses to sprawling high school complexes, school buildings represent the physical manifestation of educational philosophies. Once school consolidation began to take shape across the state in the early twentieth century, the buildings acquired new architectural meaning. In sum, they became a focal point in the local community. The school building's outward appearance was the vehicle for the community to express the importance it placed on education. The interior organization also evolved to accommodate educational functions that had not existed in the nineteenth century. Numerous architectural styles and forms are found in Kentucky's school buildings. While this discussion is by no means exhaustive in scope, it is intended to chronicle the general evolution of design in Kentucky's schools over the 154-year period covered in this study.

Anyone who has read Whittier's verse about the schoolhouse sunning by the road like a ragged beggar would agree that the description fitted most of Kentucky's common schools during much of their history. After the log schools were replaced by frame buildings and the hewn-log furniture by dressed poplar fixtures, the physical environment remained unchanged for decades. Ellis Ford Hartford, 1977. (Hartford 1977, 15)

The first known school associated with white settlers in Kentucky was found in Fort Harrod (Harrodsburg) in 1775. (Simon 1996, 83). Schools were often one of the first structures built by settlers in order to educate their children and make their homesteads permanent. These late eighteenth and early nineteenth century schools were often housed in a makeshift log building, or in a building that was not exclusively used for educational space. Eventually, communities began constructing buildings that served as the dedicated school facility.

One-Room Log School House, Monroe County, from School Architecture of Kentucky .

The one-room log or frame schoolhouses are often thought to symbolize the public school system's early beginnings. This small log or frame building type was prevalent in the nineteenth century Kentucky, as it suited the needs of local communities without requiring substantial investment in the facility. This is especially relevant because the buildings were only used in the summer and fall months.

Log schools fell out of fashion by the late nineteenth century, when the frame school house covered in clapboard siding super-seded the log school house in popularity. In the time period between 1881-1901, the number of frame one-room schools grew from 2,138 to 6,752, while log schoolhouses declined from 3,360 to 1,238. (Hartford 1977, 17). The shift in construction tech-niques suggests the desire to improve the quality of school envi-ronments, in order to foster better learning. During the post-Civil War era, there was increased attention given to the idea of pro-viding a suitable learning environment that was well-lighted, warm, and easily ventilated. (Hartford 1977, 16). Standards for school buildings were promoted by professional educators to improve building design including: ten square feet of space per student; a minimum of four windows; one or more fireplaces with safety flues; and a minimum height standard of ten feet from floor to ceiling. (Hartford 1977, 17).

Old Botts School, Menifee County built in 1926.

While school design was seldom influenced by written design prescriptions, 19th century Kentucky schools often did resemble one another in form, siting, and plan. School buildings tended to resemble rural churches in general plan, form and appearance, but with the notable absence of the church steeple. One-room schools were oriented to the road with a gable front entrance and were one-story in height. As the name suggests, the build-ings were planned around a single open room that occasionally had anterooms for coat storage and supplies. There were no separate graded classes; instead students of varying ages shared the same room. Sometimes, the schoolhouse also served as the teacher's dwelling and/or as the community center. (Leu 1965, 2). Exterior ornamentation was minimal which was probably the result of limited funding for the buildings. Additionally, the school site was often inadequate for outdoor activities, since the land used to build the school was often substandard. Land frequently was donated to the local district because it was not suitable for agricultural or domestic purposes. Sites were small and cramped with irregular topography making it difficult for recreation. Though the structures were simple and the school grounds less than satisfactory, the one-room school was an enduring rural building type well into the twentieth century.

Plan for a one-room school house. Illustration source: School Architecture of Kentucky
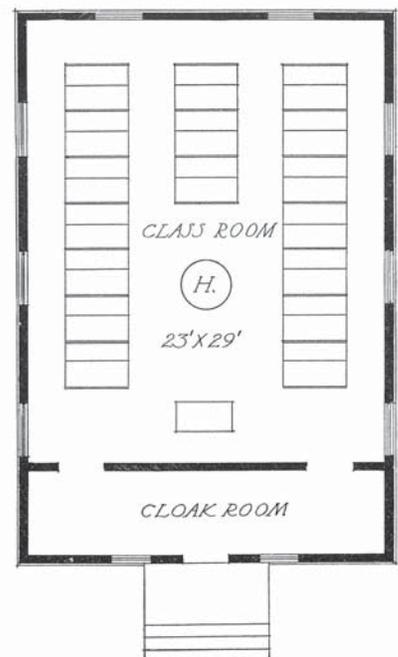
Urban schools were often likely to be constructed on substan-dard sites as well. Typically, land was donated by local busi-nessmen to construct urban schools. In most cases, the build-ings were only one-room schools, however, some multi-level fa-cilities were constructed in Kentucky's cities. The main differ-ence between urban and rural areas was the concentration of educational interest in nineteenth century cities, and a general

lack of sufficient finances in rural areas. Since Kentucky was primarily a rural state with few urban areas, rural schools were the predominate school building type of the nineteenth century.

In spite of a seeming public disinterest in the school plant, there was ongoing concern by educators over the effectiveness of these learning environments. The post-World War I era prompted several education studies concerning the state of Kentucky's school buildings from the Kentucky Education Commission and the Efficiency Commission of Kentucky. These reports chronicled the dilapidated condition of the state's one-room schools claiming 50% were in disrepair. (Hartford 1977, 18). The study warned that the cumulative effect of the poor condition of Kentucky's school buildings would have detrimental consequences for learning. "The schoolhouse situation is thus extremely bad. Surely education in cleanliness, orderliness, respect for property, modesty, physical well-being, and hygienic living is an essential part of the school's task; yet the great majority of the children of the state both white and colored, are housed year after year in structures that violate every maxim that education should directly and indirectly impress upon the child." (Hartford 1977, 19).

In order to remedy this situation, the recommendation was to consolidate schools in order to pool resources and provide acceptable educational facilities.

SLIDE-SPIRAL

TEETERS
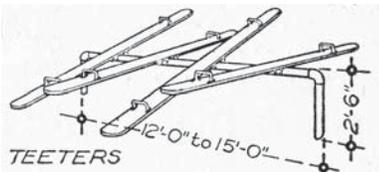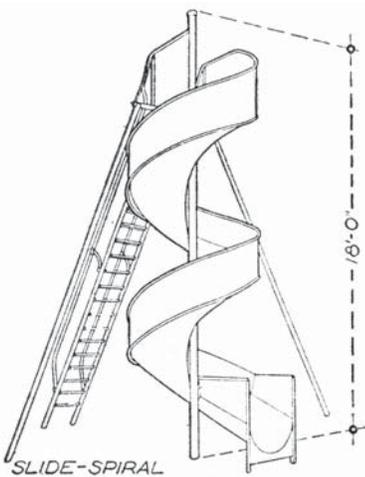
Right: Plan for Rural School Grounds, from School Architecture of Kentucky In the early 20th century, physical education and play were increasingly seen as an important element of education. Playground equipment from Don Graf's Data Sheets (New York: Reinhold, 1944)
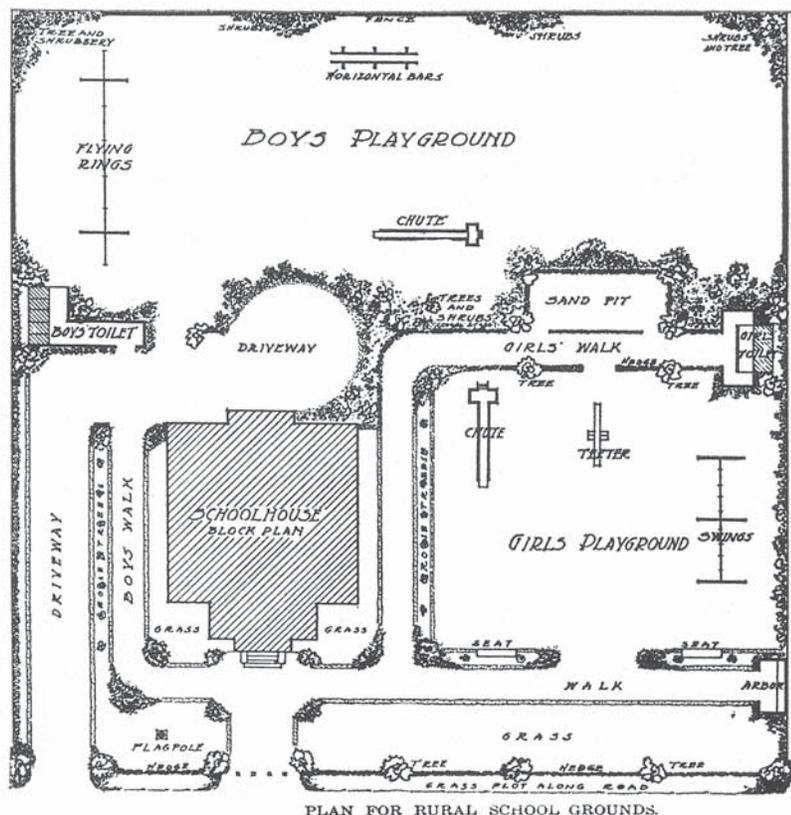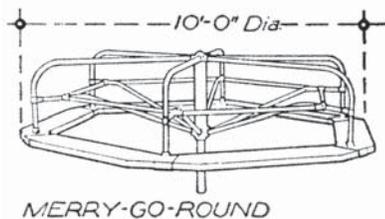
MERRY-GO-ROUND

PLAN FOR RURAL SCHOOL GROUNDS.

The next change to affect the design of educational space was the school consolidation movement that was made possible with improvements in state's road system. Consolidated schools brought together students from three or more school districts to an easily accessible central location. (Chapman 1917, 149). It was widely felt by progressive educators that this strategy of public inspection would improve the future for Kentucky's

Washington Consolidated School, Mason County, Illustration source: School Architecture of Kentucky

rural students. In one-room schools, a single teacher had to cover a wide range of academic topics, and teach children of varying ages in the same classroom. This meant that the teacher could only devote short amounts of time to any one topic or student. Consolidated schools combined the financial resources of the districts enabling them to fund several instructors who could teach specialized subjects to children of the same age group.

Concurrent with the developments in school consolidation, Progressive reformers exercised influence over the design of schools. At a time when the influx of immigrants to America was at a high rate, the Progressives saw schools as a social agent to assist in the assimilation of these peoples into American culture. To do this, educational reformers attempted to serve communities beyond the realm of the students through the school plant. They hoped to educate the parents as well as the children attending school. The educational philosophies of the progressive era were striving to make productive citizens that would contribute to the strength and the economy of the country. Teaching the ideals of democracy and good citizenry became paramount in the pursuit of integrating immigrants into the culture. (Spring 1986, 167). Additionally, Progressives sought to make schools the social center of the community or neighborhood. New spaces were programmed into the school building's envelope such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, canneries, cafeterias, and playgrounds to bolster the identity of the school as a community center. Schools offered evening classes to adults and entertainment programs were held for the community. These educational philosophies filtered into the design of school buildings across the country.
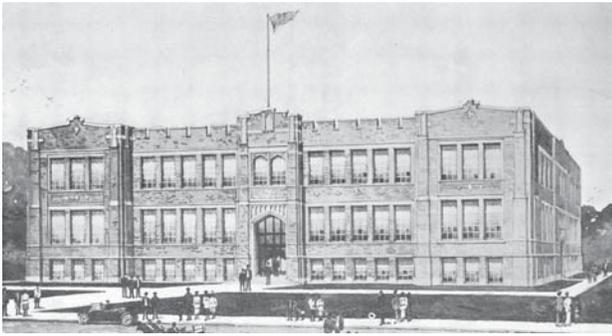
Pikeville High School in Pike County typifies the use of Gothic Revival design for educational facilities. Source: School Architecture of Kentucky

As a result of these shifts in educational philosophy, school buildings became substantial in size to accommodate the new social functions introduced by progressivism and consolidation. Schools began to take on the role of a public institution, which meant that the buildings were becoming more formalized in their architectural expression. Consolidated schools allowed communities the opportunity to construct educational facilities as institutions that embodied notions of learning in their architecture. Popular academic architectural styles of the day such as Beaux Arts and Colonial Revival served as excellent vehicles to convey the symbolism of classical and democratic education. To further stress the role of the school facility, communities typically located buildings on prominent sites similar to the place given to courthouses and churches in earlier areas of development. (Gowans 1992, 227). Through making the buildings ornamental and prominently sited, there was a conscious effort to demonstrate the significance the community placed on education. (Moseng 1937, 16). Consolidated buildings of this era represent the sizable investment communities were making toward modern education.

Eclectic academic styles encompassed several different types of design including Gothic, Romanesque and Greek Revivals. School buildings frequently employed the use of this kind architectural ornamentation on the facades of the structure. This public presentation was important to convey an image of a community institution. Cupolas, columns, carved stonework and crenellated parapets adorned school building facades to create a grand appearance. On the interior, large vestibules and hallways, as well as elaborate staircases, carried the public institution theme into the interior. Buildings were often two-to-three stories, which created a compact massing for the structure. This configuration complemented the desire to create buildings with a feeling of monumentality.

Above: Holmes High School, 1916, Covington. Right: Athens-Boonesboro School, Athens

*The Augusta School in Bracken County is an excellent example of Beaux-Arts architecture. This style emphasized symmetry and classical ornamentation.*

The Bowling Green Middle School in Warren County is an example of Colonial Revival architecture.
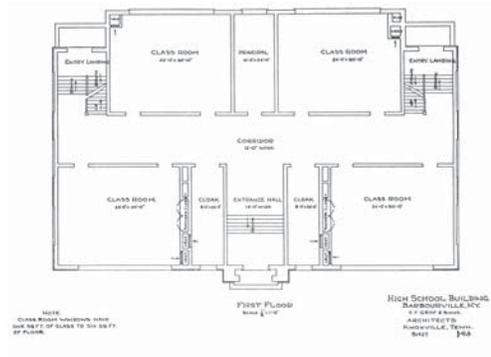
Rectangle Type
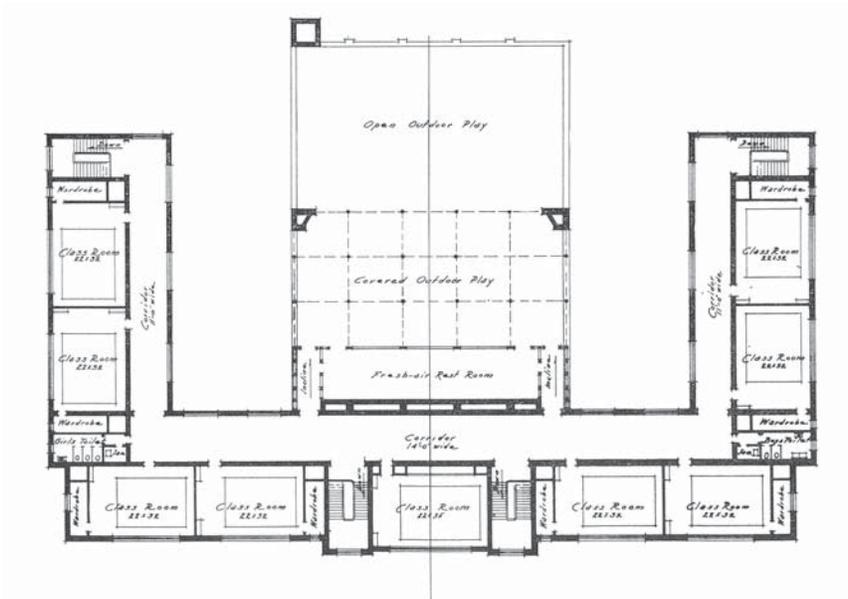
"U" type
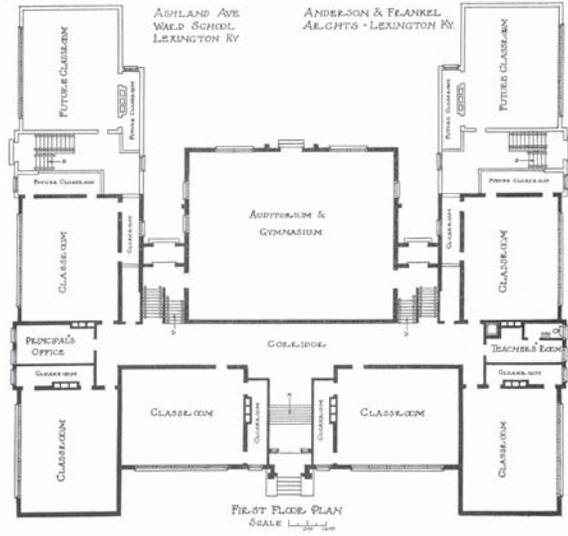
"E" Type

Examples of common plan types for school buildings of the early twentieth century. Illustration source: School Architecture of Kentucky .

Typical plan configurations for school buildings of this era included: solid rectangle, hollow rectangle, "H" type, "U" type, "T" type, "V" type, "E" type, "L" type and "I" type. (Moseng 1937, 17). Schools typically had four to eight classrooms plus offices, auditoriums, gymnasiums, libraries and occasionally cafeterias. The school reformers placed an emphasis on bettering the quality of educational space, which could in turn enhance student learning and efficiency. Lighting, heating, and ventilating the school were the rallying cry for educators who wanted to achieve a better and healthier classroom. Numerous architectural features in schools of this era reflect improvements the reformers had requested. Large windows, which were typically arranged in groups of four, reached almost to the ceiling, and were utilized in classrooms to provide adequate lighting. Additionally, school buildings of this era also had raised basements, so that light could be brought into the lower level of the school. These spaces were frequently used for the cafeteria and the boiler room. Transom windows over classroom doors and tall ceilings aided in proper ventilation for the school plant.

An example of a transom window at I.M. Bloom Elementary in Jefferson County.

I find it impossible to devise plans for the colored people to build. They are too poor to build by taxation. Caldwell County Superindent, 1901. (Wright 1992, 2: 109).

The post-bellum period brought the issues of educating newly emancipated African Americans to the forefront. In 1881, Kentucky legalized schools segregated by race, but funding for constructing and administering black schools was limited to taxes collected in black communities. (Adams 1997, 10). In spite of a lack of direct state support, impoverished African American communities began to establish schools. Julius Rosenwald, President of Sears, Roebuck & Co., partnered with Booker T. Washington to conceive of a way to improve education for Southern blacks. Rosenwald provided money to build schools for black children in the South. Known as Rosenwald schools, the schools played an important role in the education of black children.

In order to receive funding for a Rosenwald school, the participants not only were required to provide matching funds, but also had to follow certain building standards that guided the architectural design of the buildings. The standards were published and distributed in several bulletins that included several variations of school models. The plans featured structures that contained from one to twelve classrooms depending of the specific needs of the community. (Adams 1997, 22). The buildings were usually single-story facilities constructed of frame, and occasion-

A two-room plan for a Rosenwald School. Illustration source: Rosenwald Schools in Kentucky, 1917-1932

CLASS ROOM

CLASS ROOM
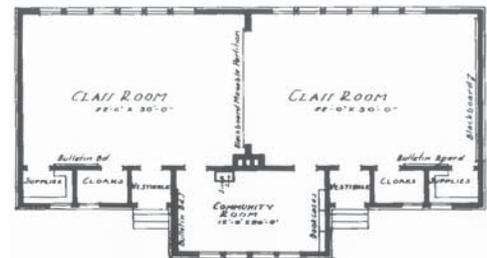
COMMUNITY SCHOOL PLAN No. 20
To face east or west

A Rosenwald School. Image source: Rosenwald Schools in Kentucky, 1917-1932 .

ally built of masonry. Rosenwald schools had little extraneous ornamentation which speaks to the efficient use of paltry building funds. In Kentucky, construction of Rosenwald schools began in 1917 and continued until 1937. Interestingly, there were few standard plan books at the time for white or black schools. The white community began to take notice of the Rosenwald schools and emulated the designs for their own schools. (Adams 1997, 23).

Over time, 155 African American schools and 3 support buildings were constructed across the state at a total cost of $1,081,710. (Adams, 1997:23). The twenty years of construction came to an end only because Rosenwald had stipulated that the fund should be dissolved after a certain period of time upon his death. By the time the Rosenwald building program ended, there were 5000 extant black schools across the South that were made possible through these efforts. (Lexington (KY) Herald-Leader, Oct. 2001).

In co-operation with the Works Progress Administration and the Public Works Administration, modern school buildings have been constructed and old buildings have been improved in practically every county in the State. The WPA Guide to Kentucky, 1939. (Simon 1939, 88)

Dedication stone of a WPA school (Robinson School, Perry County: demolished, 1999).

The advent of the Depression-era in the 1930s brought public investment in schools to a virtual halt. Falling property values meant the loss of property tax dollars that had been funneled into school building construction. Across the country, school districts were compelled to continue using their existing educational facilities. The Federal government introduced the Works Projects Administration (WPA) to address the needs of communities, especially in the area of public infrastructure. (Harrison and Klotter 1997, 364). By using Federal dollars, the WPA was able to employ out-of-work laborers, while providing needed facilities to communities that could not afford them otherwise. (Kowalski 1989, 3). The Division of Operations, which was a unit of the WPA, was directly involved in the construction of new schools, and improvements to extant school plants by building additions and making repairs. (Allen 1941, 2). According to Lindsey Allen's study on the WPA education program in Kentucky, 132 school buildings were constructed in the fiscal years of 1937 to 1939 alone. Additionally, at least 37 gymnasiums were built across the state during this time period. Other WPA con-

struction projects built during this time included classroom additions, farm shops, auditoriums, stadiums, manual training buildings and agricultural buildings. Construction of these facilities occurred in numerous Kentucky counties; facilities were built for both white and black communities. (Allen 1941, 84-100).

The WPA projects brought modern school plants to areas that needed new buildings. The design of the buildings was largely influenced by the popular architectural style of the period known as Art Deco and the closely related Streamline Moderne. Both of these styles emphasized stylized forms characterized by verticality in Art Deco and horizontality in Streamline Moderne. (Gowans 1992, 250). WPA projects typically were a hybrid of these two styles earning the name "WPA Moderne." (Gowans 1992, 250). The Moderne style complemented the desire to reduce ornamentation which helped cut construction costs. Another technique used to save money in the WPA projects was the use of local materials, such as native stone, to construct the buildings, and local craftsman to do the construction. This utilization of local talent and materials, in turn, enhanced the sense of a regional style often associated with WPA buildings. The interior spatial arrangements of WPA schools, however, remained similar to schools from the earlier decades of the twentieth century. Buildings ranged from one-room to multi-classroom facilities built in numerous plan types, including the more popular rectangle, hollow rectangle, and "U" shaped configurations. School facilities of this era also continued to be constructed in compact, multi-storied forms with specialized spaces such as gymnasiums, auditoriums, and libraries.
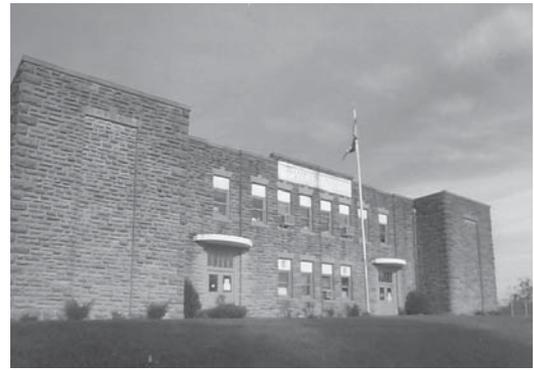
Whitley City Elementary in McCreary County is a WPA School.

Farmers Elementary in Rowan County is a WPA School built with native stone.

*The Central Administration building for the Covington Independent school system is a classic example of the Art Deco style popular in the 1920s and 1930s. **Art Deco** architecture is typified by a strong sense of verticality, stepped-back elements, low-relief ornamentation, and metal casement windows.*

43

Creativity, imagination, invention - these are essential to the design of a good school building. The building must provide an environment which excites the imagination and challenges the abilities of those who use it. Ideals and values we want taught to our children - aesthetics, order, proportion, strength, sensitivity, compassion, spiritual values, courage - should be embodied in the school building. If this is accomplished, the structure itself becomes an important tool for teaching, an essential and integral part of the process of education. American Association of School Administrators, 1960. (Engleman 1960, 86).

As a result of the WPA program, modest growth in school construction occurred during the 1930s. The onslaught of World War II halted school construction because resources were needed for the War effort. Even when the War had ended, there was a notable delay in the commencement of new school construction, due to the scarcity and high cost of building materials (Engleman 1960, 12). By the end of the 1940s, the effects of the baby boom were palpable in crowded classrooms of America's schools. As the population began moving to the burgeoning middle class suburbs now accessible through the wide availability of the automobile, new schools were needed close-by students residing in these areas. (Engleman 1960, 19). At the same time, educational psychology and sociology were gaining professional currency in the teaching field. These disciplines began to stress the importance of the quality of the educational environment for effective learning, not unlike the Progressives earlier in the century. (Kowalski 1989, 3). In the post World War II era, it became increasingly recognized that careful planning in the design of schools was needed to enhance learning. The architectural profession offered to fill this role to build what they termed "functional" schools, which fueled their prominent role in school design. The marriage of architects and educators produced the concept of educational facility planning which strived to consciously incorporate educational theory in the design of America's school buildings. (Castaldi 1994, 17).

Purveyors of school architecture in this period criticized earlier twentieth century school design as being more concerned with making the educational facility a work of art, rather than a functional learning environment. (Castaldi 1994, 13). Their perception was that the earlier buildings were oversized in scale and encrusted with extraneous ornamentation which did little to improve the quality of education in the minds of mid-century architects and educators. The architects of the mid-twentieth century had been influenced by the tenets of Modernism which stressed the idea of "form following function." Modernists eschewed the use of ornament that alluded to other peri-

Morehead Elementary in Rowan County was built in 1948. Although it represents a vernacular interpretation of modern architecture, influences from the Streamline Moderne style are evident in the curved wall with glass block.

ods of history. America was becoming a world power, and architects wanted to imbue buildings with the architectural symbolism of the new modern age. The celebration of technology and science became an organizing principle for the Modernists. Expressing the structure of the building became the architectural language of Modernism, rather than remaining a slave to what modernists called decorative ornamentation. This architectural philosophy seeped into the design of schools, as architects and educators began to concentrate on making quality learning spaces that were functional and spare of ornament.

Somerset Elementary in Pulaski County was constructed in 1955. The modern influenced architecture is characterized by the flat roof, the unornamented facade and the ribbon windows.

The new suburban sites offered ample space to construct one-story school facilities that mirrored the sprawling form of the ranch house. Rather than designing school buildings in the center of the community on prominent sites, as was done in the early part of the century, modernist architects planned new schools detached from the community on large acreages, literally isolated from the neighborhoods they were meant to serve.
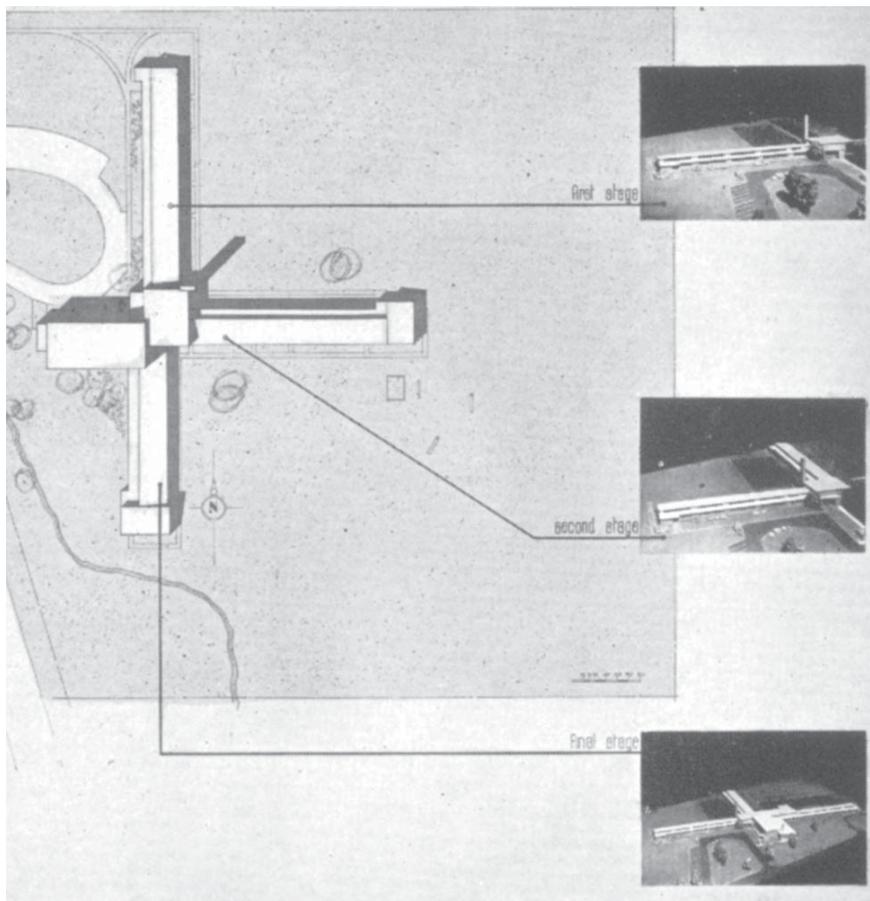
This site plan of a model school demonstrates the "finger plan" concept which was well suited to sprawling suburban sites. From Planning America's School Buildings: Report of the AASA (Washington D.C., 1960).
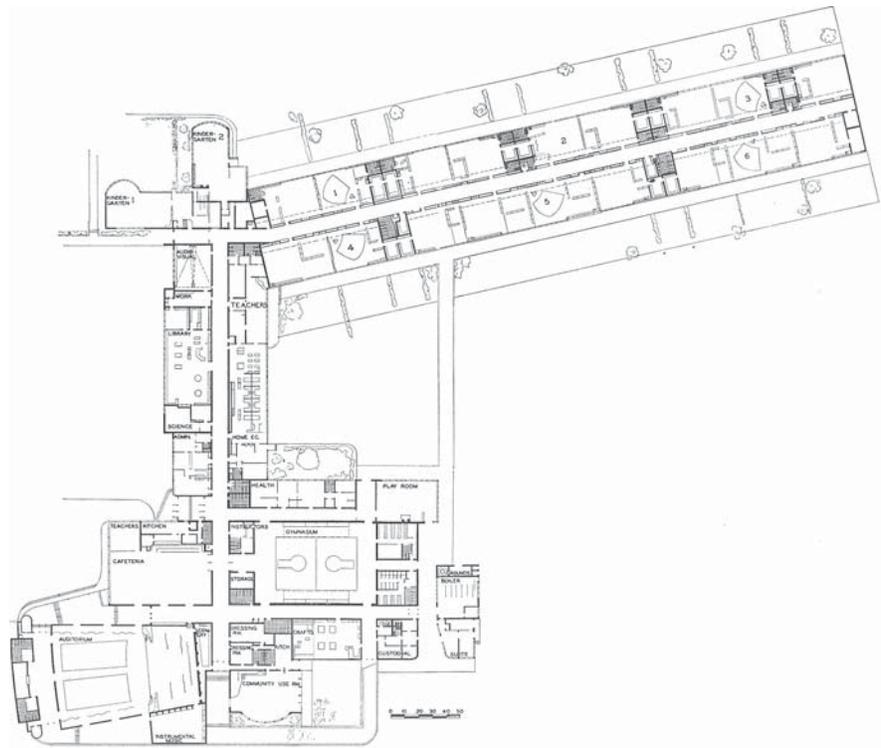
School buildings of the Post-World War II era were markedly different from earlier schools in the sense that they were no longer compact in their form. School buildings spread out over their site often as single story structures. "Suggested Plan for an Elementary School," from Planning America's School Buildings.
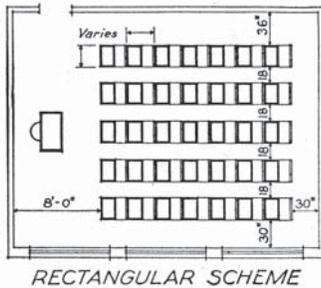
RECTANGULAR SCHEME
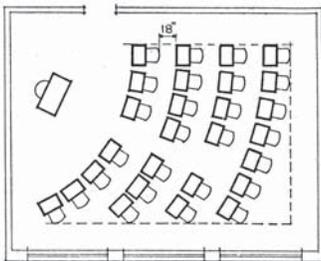
RADIAL SCHEME
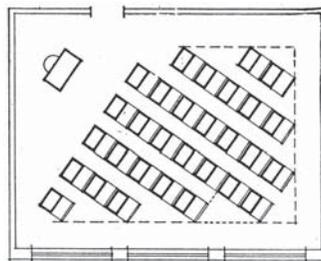
OBLIQUE SCHEME

Above: Classroom plans from Don Graf's Data Sheets (New York: Reinhold, 1944).

In addition to this distinctly new location for mid-century schools, architects argued that multi-storied schools of the early twentieth century were inflexible in their design. The earlier buildings were built with bearing walls that made it difficult for additions to be constructed. Compact sites also made expansion for increasing student populations more difficult. Thus, the "finger plan" was favored by architects designing schools on suburban sites. (Leu 1965, 4). This plan type allowed the school to stretch out in numerous wings making the building adaptable to the school's needs as enrollment increased. (Perkins 1949, 42).

The designers of modern schools also stressed the importance of scaling the space to children. It was felt that the monumental architecture of earlier decades left the child in a bewildering environment that hindered learning. (Kowalski 1989, 3). School design in the mid-century sought to enhance the educational space through conscious shaping of the classroom and by the use of light, color and materials. The Modernist architectural aesthetic complemented this philosophy with the use of expansive ribbon windows to bring the outside to the interior, flooding the classroom with light. Buildings materials were left exposed such as brick walls and wooden beams which added color and texture in the classroom.

The school building boom of the late 1940s continued into the 1960s and 1970s. After the 1954 "Brown vs. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas" ruling, the integration of schools required more classroom space for blacks and whites in school facilities. Thus, designer strove to ameliorate school districts overcrowding problems. The desire to make schools community centers was still encouraged with the multiple uses of the facility. Auditoriums, wood shops, home economics rooms, cafeterias and gymnasiums were utilized as community spaces in the evening hours. Architects took advantage of the large building sites to spatially separate these community facilities, so that the rest of the building could be closed off to nighttime visitors. School exteriors continued to carry the Modernist aesthetic with the use of ribbon windows, flat roofs, and plain rectilinear volumes. Ornamentation was reduced to the bare minimum often with the school name being the only signifying piece on the blank facade. As Modernism fell out of vogue, schools began to take on a Post-Modern aesthetic in the 1980s. The sprawling, suburban form, however, has endured.

Some comunities have not yet seen the light. Others are proceeding falteringly. But progress is being made? What of the future? Who knows? Who can predict with any certainty? Judged by past developments, changes in school plant design will be greater in number and more radical in character than what exists today than most of us have the vision to foresee or the courage to foretell. Lawrence Perkins and Walter Cocking, 1949. (Perkins and Cocking 1949, 246).

It is interesting to note that the most dramatic changes in school design coincided with shifting social philosophies about how educational space should be shaped for optimal learning. The desire to constantly improve facilities through design has been consistent throughout the history of public education. School buildings from these different periods embody significance not only in their architectural aesthetic, but also in the way that they convey the various educational philosophies in public education through time. In Kentucky, school buildings from these representative periods still exist.

Survey Results

The Kentucky Historic Schools Survey is meant to identify and plan for the future service of Kentucky's older school buildings. To do this, the Kentucky Heritage Council and the Kentucky Department of Education partnered to send out over 200 school survey forms to all 176 school districts. The information gathered is presented and analyzed in this section. For more information about the work done, please reference the methodology portion of this report.

The survey analysis follows the format of the School Survey form located in the Appendices. The first five questions have not been analyzed, because they are inquiries regarding general identification, such as the name of the school, the name and title of the form's preparer, the district number, etc. A listing of the surveyed schools is included in the Appendices.

A summary, general analysis, and recommendations of the state of Kentucky's older schools can be found in the Summary, at the conclusion of the survey results.

Description/Identification

6. When was this school built?

While the median construction date of Kentucky's school buildings is 1933, the majority of the surveyed facilities were built between the teens and in the late 1930s. As you can tell from the chart, there was little investment in school facilities during World War II, and few buildings constructed before the turn of the twentieth century.

The reasons for this pattern can be detected through examination of Kentucky's educational history. For example, the federal government played a significant role in construction of school buildings from the early 1930s to 1940 through the Works Projects (Progress) Administration. The WPA provided building funds and expertise to construct school facilities. Additionally, Kentucky's school reform movement in the early twentieth century furnished impetus for constructing new schools. Legislation was enacted that required construction of a high school in each county, and school consolidation efforts focused on building new, spacious educational facilities. On the other hand, there was very little money for school construction during the Second World War, or before school reform efforts.
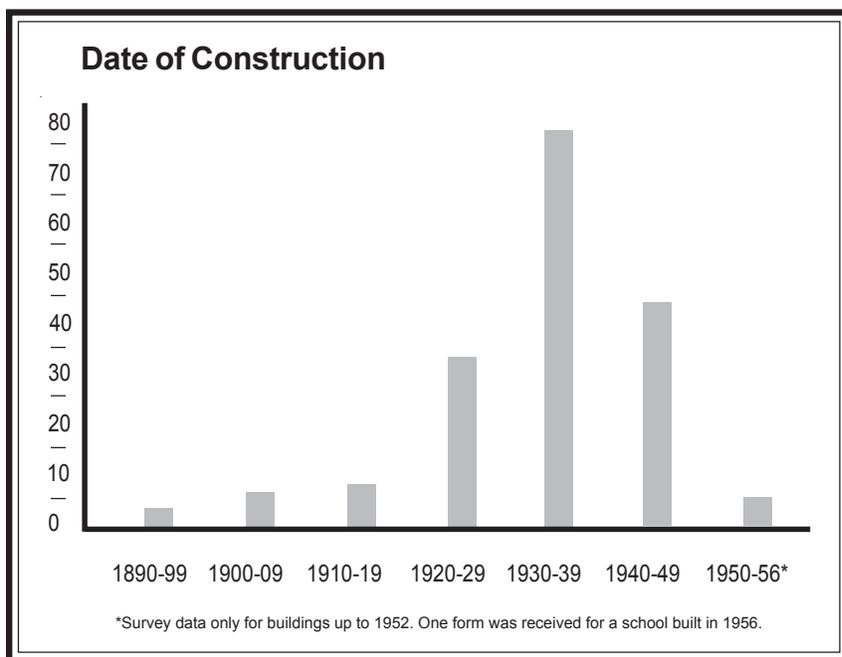
Date of Construction

*Survey data only for buildings up to 1952. One form was received for a school built in 1956.

Data for this table collected from 181 respondents. It does not include information from demolished buildings.

7. What is the building's primary structural material?

Nearly 80 percent Kentucky's older school buildings were constructed of solid brick masonry or brick veneer. The remainder are constructed of stone, concrete block, and poured concrete. No school districts reported a school facility constructed of wood, although several brick veneer buildings are supported by a wood frame.

The selection of brick as the structural material seems to indicate a desire for a substantial school facility. It must be remembered that the 19th century school house in Kentucky was typically a frame or log building. The erection of a large brick or stone building appears to reflect 20th century investment in a stable educational future.

Structural Material	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Brick (incl. veneer)	142	78.4%
Stone	20	11.1%
Concrete Block	11	6.1%
Poured Concrete	3	1.7%
Other	5	2.7%

Data for this table collected from 181 respondents. It does not include information from demolished buildings.

8. What kind of foundation does the building have?

Most older school facilities are supported by poured concrete foundations. The remainder of the surveyed schools have stone, concrete block, and brick foundations. In general, schools built in the late 19th and early 20th century have stone foundations, and those constructed after the mid-1920s have poured concrete foundations. Poured concrete became financially affordable and widely available in the early twentieth century. It also lowered the labor costs, as less-skilled workers could easily pour a concrete foundation wall. Thus, school officials often selected poured concrete for their building's foundations.

The main exception to this rule are WPA stone buildings constructed by Italian stonemasons in 1930s Eastern Kentucky. In these facilities, the building is erected utilizing a stone foundation and a stone structural system.

Foundation Type	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Concrete Slab	115	63.5%
Stone	34	18.8%
Concrete Block	27	14.9%
Other	5	2.8%

Data for this table collected from 181 respondents. It does not include information from demolished buildings.

9. What kind of roof does the building have?

Older schools utilize a number of roofing materials. The predominant roof covering is asphalt shingles with asphalt roll roofing sheltering around 20 percent of Kentucky's school buildings. The remainder of the roofs are sheathed with rubber roofing membranes, standing seam metal, and polyurethane foam.   Two schools reported having original terra cotta and slate roofs.

Roof Material	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Asphalt Shingle	80	44.2%
Bitumous Asphalt	42	23.2%
EPDM/Rubber	27	14.9%
Standing Seam Metal	12	6.6%
Polyurethane Foam	6	3.3%
Terra Cotta	1	.6%
Slate	1	.6%
Unknown	12	6.6%

Data for this table collected from 173 respondents. It does not include information from demolished buildings.

10. How many stories high is the building?

Over 75 percent of schools over 50 years in age are two-to-three stories in height. It was common before the Second World War to construct school facilities with several stories and locate them in the center of the community.

After the War, one-story school facilities on larger sites were favored. The preference for single level facilities appears to be related to architectural fashion, which modeled schools after the ranch house and the suburban strip mall; the availability of subur-

ban acreage on which to locate a school in the post-war era; and the accessibility of isolated school sites by autobus. Additionally, educators began to conceive of the school building as separate entities from the surrounding community. These factors led to the development of the 1950s single level educational facility, and the demise of the multi-story school in the center of the community.
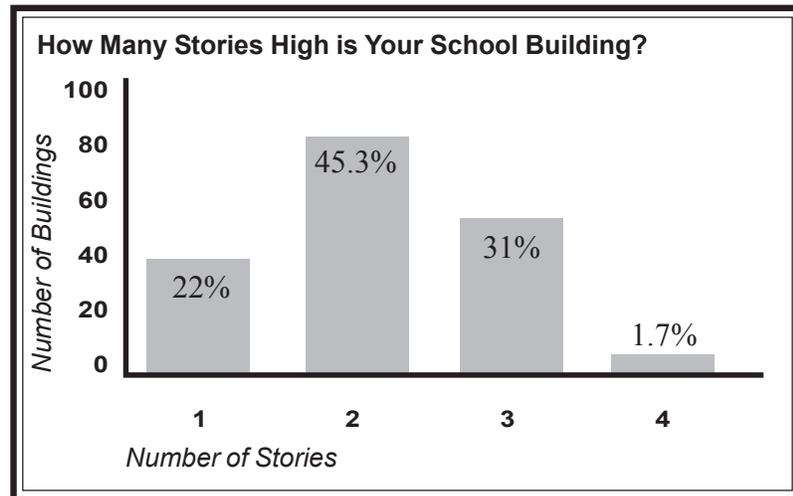
How Many Stories High is Your School Building?

A bar chart titled "How Many Stories High is Your School Building?" The vertical axis is labeled "Number of Buildings" ranging from 0 to 100 in increments of 20. The horizontal axis is labeled "Number of Stories" with categories 1, 2, 3, and 4. The bars show: 1 story = 22%, 2 stories = 45.3%, 3 stories = 31%, 4 stories = 1.7%.

Data for this table collected from 181 respondents. It does not include information from demolished buildings.

11. What kind of windows does the building have?

School facilities built from the late 19th century to the 1940s typically employ wood sash windows. It became architecturally fashionable in the 1940s to utilize steel and aluminum windows. Typically, these windows were not simple one-over-one sash, as they had been in the past, but they were steel/aluminum hopper and casement windows. (sidebar)

Most wood windows in historic schools have been replaced. Thus, the large majority of older schools have aluminum and steel windows. Wood windows, as you can see from the table above, only account for 27 percent of the windows in older school facilities.

Window Material	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Aluminum	72	39.7%
Wood	50	27.6%
Steel	48	26.5%
Vinyl	9	5%
Unknown	2	1.2%

Data for this table collected from 179 respondents.

12. Does the building have any distinct architectural features?

Not analyzed.

13. Have there been any additions to the building including detached buildings? If so, when were they added on?

75 percent of older schools have had some type of addition to improve educational program space. The average age of these additions is 28 years old. Interestingly, the majority of elementary and middle schools acquired additional space in the late 1960s, while high schools generally added on program space in the 1990s.   Additions were typically built to house additional classroom space, libraries, gymnasiums, etc.

School Type	Average Age of Addition
Elementary	1969
Middle School	1967
High School	1993
Other (Former School with new use)	1968

136 of the 181 respondents answered "yes" to this question.

14. Does the building have a gymnasium, auditorium, cafeteria, or library? If so, please list.

The majority of Kentucky's older schools have gymnasiums, cafeterias, and libraries as part of the educational program. Auditoriums are not found in many older schools; although this absence could be attributed to the obsolesce of auditoriums over the past twenty years, and their subsequent conversion into media centers.

Gymnasiums are integral part of school programs in all facilities, though elementary schools possess gyms at a lower rate. Auditoriums appear more often in high schools, and with a very low frequency in elementary schools. Libraries and cafeterias are found in 74 percent of older schools. As can be seen in the Table, the breakdown between elementary, middle, and high schools is very similar with regard to libraries and cafeterias. Interestingly, high schools are less likely to have cafeteria space, while elementary schools are less likely to have libraries.

	Gymnasium	Auditorium	Cafeteria	Library
Elementary	81.5%	15.5%	82.5%	84.5%
Middle School	96.2%	46.2%	84.6%	92.3%
High School	93.5%	58%	64.5%	67.7%

Data for this table is based on: 178 responses for gymnasiums; 175 responses for auditoriums; 175 responses for cafeterias; and 174 responses for libraries.

15. Briefly describe the building's interior. Does it have plastered interior walls, plastered ceilings, acoustic tile ceilings, etc.?

Respondents did not give consistent information about interior finishes. In spite of the gap in information provided, it can be surmised that most older school buildings have retained their original plaster walls, though the majority of original plaster ceilings have been dropped and covered with acoustic tile. Flooring in older schools ranges from wood and tile floors to terrazzo and poured concrete surfaces. There does not appear to be a pattern in selection of floor materials.

As is the case with exterior building materials, interior finishes were largely chosen due to architectural fashion, ease of installation, and low cost. Prior to the late 1940s, most schools had wood and tile floors, and plastered ceilings and walls. In the post-war era, school districts often utilized concrete block for walls and acoustic tile ceilings, because they were fashionable, cheap, and easy to install. Many older buildings were updated by mid-century to include acoustic tile ceilings.

Interior Wall Materials	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Plaster Walls	105	58%
Combination (Plaster and Concrete Block)	29	16%
Concrete Block	25	13.8%
Other	8	4.5%
Unknown	14	7.7%

167 respondents answered this question.

Ceiling Material	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Accoustic Tile	97	53.5%
Combination (Tile and Plaster)	25	13.8%
Plaster	22	12.2%
Other	3	1.5%
Unknown	34	19%

147 respondents answered this question

Floor Material	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Tile	21	12%
Wood	20	11%
Terrazzo	10	5.5%
Concrete	8	4.5%
Other	2	1%
Unknown	120	66%

61 respondents answered this question.

Current Condition/Maintenance:

19. Has the building been renovated in the past thirty years? If so, briefly describe the work.

75 percent of schools reporting indicated that they had attempted some type of renovation work. The breakdown among schools who have attempted renovation is as follows: 73 elementary schools, 24 middle schools, 25 high schools, and 14 administrative office spaces. While this number appears to suggest that older schools have been renovated, it obscures the fact that much of the renovation work has been cosmetic in nature.

Cosmetic repairs tend to make a building look better, but they do not address major systems, leaving true infrastructure needs unmet. Minor cosmetic repairs include: interior paint jobs; dropping ceilings and adding acoustic tile; installing carpeting, new light fixtures, wall paneling, and replacement windows. While these repairs could be considered necessary, they should not take priority over repairing, replacing, and maintaining the building's major systems. The building's major systems are defined as plumbing, electricity, heating and air conditioning, and the building envelope, which includes the roof, foundation, and walls. Major projects also include additions to the original building for program space. Many respondents indicated that cosmetic repairs were affordable, and were executed to make the building more functional. At the same time, these respondents answered that they had no central HVAC systems, that their roofs were in poor shape, and that their electrical or plumbing systems need updating. In sum, these minor repairs may have taken funds away from major repairs that would enhance the lifespan and livability of the facility.

If renovation projects that are chiefly concerned with the major building systems are tabulated, then the number falls to 55 projects out of 181 buildings. The proportion of renovation work that addresses major issues, then, is 30 percent.

School Type (total # in survey)	Major Systemic Renovation	Any Renovation (includes cosmetic)
Elementary (103)	22%	70.8%
Middle School (26)	50%	92.3%
High School (31)	38.7%	80.6%
Other (21)	33.3%	66.6%

!36 respondents answered "yes" to this question. 33 respondents reported no additions and 12 respondents did not answer the question.

20. When was the roof replaced last?

80 percent of respondents have replaced their roof in the last 30 years. The average date of roof replacement is 1993. As noted in the Description Section of this report, most schools utilize asphalt shingles, roll asphalt roofing, and rubber roof membranes. Depending on the quality and grade of materials and the slope of the roof, these coverings can last from 5 to 25 years. Roofing systems should be inspected at least twice a year to note any flashing or leakage problems.

Proper roof coverings, guttering, and flashing can provide invaluable protection against the building's worst enemy——water. Leakage of water into a building can create innumerable issues, including mold and mildew on building surfaces, cracking, spalling, and other structural damage to walls, windows, foundations, and exterior building materials. If any of these problems are noted, an inspection of the roofing system by an experienced roofer or architect is warranted.

Given that 80 percent of the surveyed schools have had roofs replaced in the last 30 years, there is still a high percentage (20 percent) of schools that have either never replaced their roofs or haven't in over 30 years. Accounting for two buildings with terra cotta and slate, which can last 50 to 100 years, there is a significant number of schools that need replacement roofs. Inspection of the survey forms suggests that this proportion of school buildings is considered transitional facilities, and is expected to close within the next one to ten years.

144 out of 181 respondents reported roof replacement.

21. Does the building have an HVAC system? If not how is the building heated/cooled?

49 percent of older buildings do not have a central HVAC system. Most respondents indicated that they use a coal, gas, or water boiler systems. These systems distribute heat to rooms through pipes or ducts that end at a radiator or vent. The heat, once activated, does not have a thermometer that regulates heat distribution. Instead, heat is maintained at a constant temperature. The only way to bring the room to a level of comfort is to ventilate by opening a window(s). Thus, some areas of the room are very hot, while others remain cold.

Heat Source (if no HVAC)	Number of Buildings
Boiler	54
Gas Furnace	12
Oil Furnace	7
Unnamed heat source	8
Other	8

This table reflects data from the 89 respondents that did not have an HVAC system.

All respondents without HVAC systems stated that they used window air conditioners to cool their facilities. Window air conditioning does not cool a building uniformly, and it can create problems with window frames. Windows that are exposed to moisture from window units can rot or rust.

By contrast, a HVAC system provides a year-round temperate climate though use of a forced air system that furnishes air and heat through the same ductwork. The temperature is controlled by either a central thermostat, or a thermostat in each room or general area. Thus, facilities with these systems can maintain a comfortable, temperate interior climate. 43.6 percent of respondents have a modern HVAC system.

HVAC	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Yes	79	43.6%
No	89	49.2%
Unknown	13	7.2%

168 respondents answered this question either "yes" or "no." 13 respondents left this question blank.

22. Has the electrical system and plumbing been updated? Please describe the last work done on these systems?

72 percent of Kentucky's older schools have had some electrical work done in the last thirty years. Very few respondents detailed work done on these systems; however, those who did respond indicated that they updated the wiring to accommodate modern technology. In particular, rewiring has been done to furnish technological resources through KDE's Kentucky Education Technology Systems. The goal is to equitably distribute technology to all classrooms across the state. Although not stated, electrical updates were probably necessary for schools that installed a modern HVAC system.

Electrical Update	Number of Buildings (out of 181 in the survey)	Percentage
Yes	132	72.9%
No	30	16.6%
Unknown	19	10.5%

162 respondents answered this question either "yes" or "no." 19 respondents left this question blank.

Schools are not likely to have upgraded plumbing systems in older schools. Only 38 percent of schools have had some type of plumbing renovation. Most respondents did not detail work done on the plumbing, though a few did indicate plumbing had been repaired and added in restroom facilities.

Plumbing Update	Number of Buildings (181 total)	Percentage
Yes	69	38.1%
No	89	49.2%
Unknown	23	12.7%

158 respondents answered this question either "yes" or "no." 23 respondents left this question blank.

23. Is the building ADA accessible? If not, how will this issue be addressed?

64 percent of respondents stated that their facilities were ADA accessible. Most older schools have complied with ADA accessibility regulations through addition of ramps and/or elevators. Of the schools that have not yet complied, the survey indicated that they are in the process of creating a compliance plan for the district. Some schools stated that they could not meet ADA regulations, due to multiple stories, and floor levels that do not line up between additions. However, elevators can be purchased and inserted into older buildings that make stops on each half-level, as required.

ADA Update	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Yes	117	64.6%
No	50	27.6%
Unknown	14	7.8%

167 respondents answered this question either "yes" or "no." 14 respondents left this question blank.

24. Does the building have a sprinkler system?

Over 60 percent of surveyed schools are not sprinkled for fire protection.

Sprinklers Installed	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Yes	51	28.2%
No	118	65.2%
Unknown	12	6.6%

169 respondents answered this question either "yes" or "no." 12 respondents left this question blank.

25. Does the building have any moisture problems? If so, what is the cause, e.g. insufficient guttering system, roof leaks?

Most respondents stated that their older school does not have moisture problems. Those who did indicate moisture issues were unsure of the cause of the difficulty.

As noted in the roofing section above, roof leaks, improperly installed flashing, and obstructed gutters are the most common cause of moisture problems. A consistently wet foundation can suggest a problem with "rising damp." Rising damp can be a symptom of inadequate rainwater conductor system that moves water into the building foundation, rather than away from the foundation walls through use of a ground leader. Either way, a qualified architect or contractor should investigate the problem as soon as possible. Excessive moisture can do great damage to a building.

Moisture Problems	Number of Buildings	Percentage
Yes	48	26.5%
No	119	65.2%
Unknown	14	7.7%

167 respondents answered this question either "yes" or "no." 14 respondents left this question blank.

26. Is there a long-term maintenance plan in existence? What are its top priorities?

Capital construction projects are large-scale renovation projects addressed in a district's Facility Plan. These projects are typically prioritized on the Facility Plan, and funded through bond issues and/or local and state funding.

Capital construction projects should not be confused with long-term maintenance plans. Long-term maintenance plans are detailed accounts of past routine maintenance work, present needs, and future actions. They can be thought of as preventative maintenance plans, and should explain what has been done, who did it, when it needs to be done again, and the condition of the portion of the building inspected. Some of the items that might be addressed in this type of plan are yearly roof inspections, twice-yearly cleaning of the HVAC system, and the general condition of the structural and mechanical systems.

All school buildings, both old and new, should have detailed routine maintenance plans. Routine maintenance can detect difficulties before they become major issues, requiring inordinate expense to repair or replace. That said, respondents did not generally appear to have such plans. Although most districts acknowledged the existence of the Facility Plan, they did not account for routine procedures. Some of the items that are listed in the priorities chart below indicate that routine maintenance was confused with large renovation projects. This confusion could indicate that the question was improperly worded, or it could indicate that districts do not generally require such plans.

Top Priority	Number of Schools
HVAC	24
Major Renovation	17
Preventative Maintenance	14
Roof Replacement	12
Replace Facility	7
Cosmetic Renovation	5
Electrical/Plumbing Systems	5
KDE Facilities Plan	4
ADA Compliance	2
Asbestos Abatement	1

Out of the 95 respondents who answered "yes" to having a long-term mainte-nance plan, 91 respondents detailed their top priorities.

27. If there is not a long-term maintenance plan, how are routine maintenance issues taken care of?

84 respondents replied to this question, or 46 percent of those surveyed. Of these, 22 percent provided the answer to "who" is responsible for routine maintenance, not "how" these issues are addressed.

As noted in the chart, a large majority of districts deal with rou-tine maintenance on an "as needed" basis. This approach means that small maintenance problems can become larger issues, be-cause they are addressed when they become intolerable. By this time, the cost, of what should have been a minor repair, has spiraled into a major investment of time and money. For ex-ample, a leak in the roof can be detected and repaired through routine inspections of the roofing system. However, an undetec-ted leak that has saturated plaster walls and wood floors is a much more expensive proposition.

Only 14 percent of the 84 respodents operate their older schools with routine preventative maintenance inspections. It is unclear whether these schools have a routine maintenance log.

Routine Maintenance Procedure	Number of Schools
Work Orders	25
"As Needed" Basis	25
Daily Maintenance	6
Routine/Preventative Maintenance	4
Call Central Office	3
Inspections	2
When Funds Are Available	1
In-House Maintenance Staff	13
District Maintenance Staff	5

84 respondents answered this question.

28. Are there any maintenance issues that should be noted?

Respondents did not generally provide information about maintenance issues. Typical answers addressed major renovation needs. The table below chronicles the nature of the projects detailed. *Only 30 respondents replied to this question.*

Maintenance Issue	Number of Buildings
HVAC Replacement/Update	6
Roof Repair/Replacement	5
Cosmetic Renovation (i.e. carpeting, painting)	4
Electrical/Plumbing System	3
Window Replacement	3
Structural Problems	2
Systemic Renovation	2
Gutters	1
Sewage System	1
Safety (i.e. ADA, fire escape)	1
Asbestos Removal	1
Tear Down Section of Building	1

Plans:

29. What is the building's current classification?

KDE has established several classifications for Kentucky's school facilities. These classifications are based upon a number of factors that are judged by a registered architect and engineer on the local district level, and by the Local Planning Committee (LPC).

Basically, a permanent designation means that the building is ranked as a permanent educational facility that qualifies for addition and renovation funds, as approved by the district facility plan and the State Department of Education. Permanent facilities are considered to be in good or excellent condition. A functional center is a center that does not meet four of the six criteria required for designation as a permanent center. These criteria address transportation costs, student assessments, fiscal equity concerns, a building/site evaluation, parent/community support, and equitable educational opportunities. The functional designation generates no funds from the Schools Facility Construction Commission (SFCC) program. A transitional educational center is a facility which the local board of education has determined to be phased out, or for which a new school will replace the older building. Classification as a transitional facility provides no SFCC funds, and the building cannot be replaced if destroyed. Transitional facilities are not eligible for major renovation work, and are considered to be in poor or fair shape.

Classification	Number of Schools	Percentage
Permanent	113	70.6%
Transitional	34	21.3%
Unknown	13	8.1%

147 respondents reported the classification on their school building. 13 respondents did not list the classification of their facilitiy. Please note that only buildings that are elementary, middle school or high schools are included in this table.

Of the older schools surveyed, 70.6 percent of facilities are classified as permanent, 21.3 percent are classified as transitional, none are designated functional, and 8.1 percent did not respond to the question. As you can see from the chart below, a large percentage of high schools are classified as permanent, while elementary schools are set to be closed at a much higher rate.

	Permanent	Transitional	Unknown
Elementary	65%	28.2%	6.8%
Middle School	69.2%	11.6%	19.2%
High School	90%	6.5%	3.5%

The percentages for this table are based on the information given from 103 elementary schools, 26 middle schools and 31 high schools.

30. What is the reason for the building's current classification? Please be specific, include maintenance issues, cost, need for additional space, etc.

50 percent of surveyed schools answered this question. 58 respondents with permanent facilities stated that their buildings are in good or excellent condition, or that additions or renovations would make them more serviceable. 32 respondents with transitional facilities gave numerous reasons for closing their schools. The most common response was that a new school was already being constructed or planned. Other replies include: the need to consolidate community schools, and the perceived financial inability to provide modern educational amenities through renovation. One respondent indicated that the school might be demolished for a public works project, and one respondent indicated that the building is structurally unsound, due to years of floodwater infiltration.

Permanent Facilities: Reason for Classification	Number of Schools
Meets District Needs	39
Excellent Condition	6
Good Condition	4
Renovation and/or Addition will make building servicable	9

Transitional Facilities: Reason for Classification	Number of Schools
Building Will Be Replaced	8
New School Being Built	7
Building Already Closed	6
Inadequate Facility	4
Consolidation	3
Cost Prohibitive to Renovate	3
Structurally Unsound	1

The data for these two tables is drawn from the 90 respondents that replied to the question. The facilities classified "permanent" are separated into a different table from the "transitional" buildings.

31. If classified as transitional or functional, could the additional requirements be incorporated into the existing building?

Only six respondents answered this inquiry. All replies were received from schools classified as transitional facilities. 4 respondents stated that it was not financially feasible to keep the building, but cited no specifics. Two transitional centers answered that the buildings could be renovated, but again gave no details. This lack of data makes it extremely difficult to assess the rationale for closing and/or demolishing the schools classified as transitional centers.

32. If the building is classified as transitional, when is it expected to close?

22 transitional centers answered this question. Of these, 11 schools have already been closed, four will be closed this year, and 2 will be closed next year. Within the next 5 to 20 years, an additional 5 older schools will be closed. 12 transitional centers did not reply to the question.

	Transitional Centers Expected Close Date
Already Closed	11
Close in 2002	4
Close in 2003	2
Close in 5 - 20 Years	5
Unknown	12

22 of the 34 respondents with "transitional" centers replied to this question.

Summary: A tale of Two Schools

The typical Kentucky school over 50 years old could be described as a solid brick two-story building constructed circa 1933 with dropped ceilings and plastered walls. At least one addition has been constructed for classrooms, gymnasium, library, or cafeteria space. While there has been some renovation work undertaken, the building has not had all major systems updated. In all likelihood, the school has had a new roof and electrical systems, but lacks modern central heating, air conditioning, and ventilation systems. Routine maintenance is probably done by the building janitor on an "as-needed" basis. A preventative maintenance plan is not likely to be in existence. The building is classified as a permanent member of the district's school building stock.

The other type of school facility in Kentucky is the transitional school building. In general, these schools have not had any major renovation work done in the last 30 years. Typically, these structures have been cosmetically repaired to include carpeting, wood veneer paneling, dropped acoustic tile ceilings, and replacement windows. Hardly any transitional facilities reported undertaking major systemic work in over 30 years. The building plant was described by the survey respondent as in poor condition.

The initial difference between these two types of facilities appears to be very low. Most of the buildings were constructed at a similar time, of similar materials, and with similar aims. However, the transitional school has not been maintained at a tolerable level, and has been allowed to slip into a chronic state of disrepair. While these building can be renovated, the costs seem to be prohibitive.

When estimating the costs of constructing a replacement facility, though, it must be kept in mind that new schools require a major expense in infrastructure improvements. It can cost a hefty sum to provide water/sewer lines, roads, transportation to and from the school, and site improvements. Sometimes the costs of these improvements are much higher than simply renovating the shell of an older building. In general, a building feasibility study should always take into consideration these infrastructure costs, as well as the life expectancy and maintenance costs for the new facility, when deciding whether to construct a new school. Significant sums of money could be saved and funneled into renovation projects, teacher salaries, technological resources, and educational programs.

What's next?

There is a great future ahead for Kentucky's older school buildings. New initiatives are beginning that should assist older schools with planning and maintaining their facilities in a cost-effective manner. Governor Patton's Smart Growth Task Force has shown particular interest in the needs of older schools, and may formulate specific recommendations to assist with their renovation and reuse. That report is included in the Appendix.

It is recommended that a Historic Schools Task Force take up the issue of financing and renovation using the information gathered here. The composition of this committee should include educators, school administrators, State School Board representatives, KDE Facilities Management staff, Kentucky Heritage Council staff, staff from Governor Patton's office, state legislators, parents, teachers, citizen representatives, the chair of Preservation Kentucky, the University of Kentucky College of Architecture, and Legislative Research Commission staff. This ensemble should be able to accurately frame the issues, and develop strategies to keep older schools in service. Some of the issues they could address include the following. (Other issues can be found in the Smart Schools Report in the Appendices).

Aging School Construction Fund

For the majority of Kentucky's older buildings, a fund should be established for everyday maintenance costs. While these monies are currently taken out of each school's SFCC funds and general funds, a dedicated source of revenue for older schools is needed. This source will help schools retain funding in their multi-purpose general funds for other important programs and projects.

In September 2001, Governor Patton and the Smart Growth Task Force articulated the need to establish an "Aging School Construction Fund" to address the particular needs of older schools (see Appendix). The state of Maryland has created such a program, and it provides monies for major and minor renovation work to Maryland's aging schools each year. The addition of this funding source along with a careful local planning process could greatly assist districts when planning for future service of older schools.

Funding sources for school adaptive reuse projects should be established as well. It might be useful to put together a package

of existing incentives from various state agencies. For example, a package that includes information on Kentucky Housing Corporation Tax Credits and HOME funds, the Heritage Council's Investment Tax Credit and historic preservation grant programs, and use of Community Development Block Grants could be assembled for potential public and private developers. This collection of sources could save time and energy needed for the renovation work itself.

KDE Renovation Guidebook

It might be useful for KDE to publish a renovation/maintenance guidebook for local school districts, architects, and builders. That way, issues of school maintenance and renovation could be addressed in a comprehensive, straightforward manner. In this guide, renovation projects should be outlined step-by-step and maintenance issues should be detailed in terms of work accomplished on a daily, monthly, and yearly basis. This type of maintenance program could assist local schools with formulating a preventative maintenance plan. The guide could also help local districts through the renovation process. It might contain a "Best Practices" section of case studies.

Case Studies:

I.N. Bloom Elementary School is located in the heart of the High-lands area in Louisville. The Classical Revival styled school, which was historically known as the Lucia Avenue School, was constructed in 1896. Situated on a compact site typical of urban schools of this era, the building fits nicely into Tyler Park Neighborhood's fabric. It is a two-story brick structure with decorative terra cotta detailing and stone trim. As a successfully functioning neighborhood school, it serves a student population of 450 children ranging from kindergarten to fifth grade. Additions to the building were made in the late 1960s to accommodate increased educational program needs, including a cafeteria, storage space, and administrative office space.

In 1988, the Jefferson County Public School System (JCPS) classified Bloom Elementary as a "transitional" facility. This meant that the facility would be replaced by a new school at a future date. Action on this decision was delayed until February 2001 when JCPS announced that a new school would be built on the Atherton High School campus, 3.5 miles south of the Bloom site. The school system identified Bloom's site, which is less than two acres, as deficient in providing suitable playground space and adequate parking. Vehicular access and turn-around space for loading and unloading of pupils were also cited as issues of concern. Finally, JCPS projected a student population increase to 600 pupils, which the current facility could not accommodate.

I.N. Bloom Elementary School is located in the Tyler Park Neighborhood on Lucia Avenue. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

At the left is a side and rear view of theI.N. Bloom Elementary School. The new addition will be located adjacent to this portion of the building. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

The decision to close Bloom Elementary met with great community opposition. The Tyler Park Neighborhood Association along with other community leaders developed a plan to renovate Bloom to address the mandatory requirements cited by the school system. The plan proposed a two-story addition to be located in the current parking lot that would house the new classrooms needed

to meet increased population demands. The addition would be connected to the main building by a second story enclosed walkway. The rooftop of the addition would provide an innovative 20,000 square foot play space modeled after an urban school in Manhattan. The topography of the site affords the ability to construct an underground 55-space parking facility in the basement level of the addition, which is accessible from the alley at the rear of the current building. An off-street automobile loop and a separate bus loading/unloading area were incorporated into the design using the space between the addition and the original structure plus the existing alley. Interestingly, the cost of the renovation at 10.3 million dollars is projected to be roughly the same as the cost JCPS budgeted for the new facility.

The plan was presented to the Superintendent of Jefferson County Public Schools and his staff in September 2001. Numerous neighborhood associations and community leaders have endorsed the Bloom renovation plan. The only issue of concern was the need to demolish two existing houses that were adjacent to the Bloom site. The demolition was needed to accommodate site acreage requirements. Fortunately, state officials relaxed guidelines that recommended a larger site. This allowed the Bloom addition to be smaller, therefore, sparing the demolition of the houses. The playground is the final issue to be resolved. School officials are examining use of a nearby city park to serve as outdoor recreation space, although the rooftop play area is still being considered.

These houses on Lucia Avenue were saved from demolition because the Department of Education and the Jefferson County School Board waived regulations for the recommended acreage guidelines. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

In October of 2001, the Bloom renovation plan was presented by the Kentucky Department of Education (KDE) and to the JCPS school board for a vote. The plan then went into a public hearing phase in Louisville and Frankfort before final approval from state officials. Strong community support and a liberal attitude by state and local school officials were instrumental in the acceptance of the Bloom renovation plan. The school system will begin renovation work in 2003.

Cub Run Elementary School was constructed in 1948 to serve this small Hart County community. By 1998, the building was in

74

desperate need of renovation work. The school was heated with a coal furnace system, which funneled heat to individual classrooms through individual steam heaters. The coal heating system was not only inefficient, but it was also responsible for the dark, gritty soot that covered the school's floors and walls. Additionally, the building was in need of an addition to house a media center, classroom space, an elevator, and a computer center. Tate, Hill, Jacobs Architects renovated the school in 1999-2000 to include all of these features for a cost of $2.6 million. The building combines modern educational needs with charming historic character.

Cub Run Elementary School is located in Hart County. The photo above shows the front facade. At the left is an interior view of the newly renovated entrance hall. Photos: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

Sixth District Elementary School is a three-story brick neighborhood school constructed in 1907 for residents of Covington. The school has many unique architectural features including a massive two-story stone entrance topped by a pediment. A cupola graces the roof of the building.

In 1998/1999, the school was renovated to provide modern educational space by Andrew Piaskowy of Piaskowy + Cooper Architects. The building received a new HVAC system, an addition for classroom and cafeteria space, and a new library located in the former attic of the school. The third story library is especially unique, because historic framing members were exposed to characterize the space. The cafeteria space is a huge improvement, as the cafeteria was historically placed in the basement. The new cafeteria furnishes large, well-lit space for students. An elevator, which was placed in an old janitor's closet, provides accessibility to all three floors and the basement. The total cost of the project was $4.5 million, including site work.

Sixth District Elementary School is located in Kenton County. This view of the primary facade emphasizes the school's unique architecture. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

Above is a view showing the original building and the new addition. At the right is an interior view of the cafeteria. Photos: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

Frankfort High School was built in 1925 to serve residents of Frankfort's independent school district. The school is an urban school, located in the heart of the city's South Frankfort residential area. Most students can walk to this older neighborhood school. The building has undergone two renovations with the most recent work done in 2000. In that year, the school received a new HVAC system, a new roof covering, and renovation work to the media center, computer labs, offices, and classroom spaces. The work was completed by Sherman, Carter, Barnhardt Architects for $1.2 million.

Below, the Midway School is located in Woodford County. Much of the historic character of this building has been retained in this adaptive reuse project. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

Midway School was built in 1924 on Winter Street in Midway (Woodford County). The school is a two-story brick building with a raised stone foundation. In 1994, the school was closed, and students were moved to the new Northside Elementary School on the outskirts of town. According to Woodford County school officials, the school was closed due to overcrowding and the presence of asbestos. The school remained vacant for four years, as Midway residents worried about the future of this sturdy brick building.

In 1998, the school was reopened. This time the building serves as mixed income housing for senior citizens. AU Associates of Lexington

renovated the old school so that it now contains 24 apartment units and a restaurant. Interestingly, the school did not contain large amounts of asbestos-lined materials. Only one classroom had a considerable amount of asbestos; this was removed prior to the initiation of rehabilitation work.

This photo shows an interior view of a renovated hallway in the Midway School. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

The Midway School project has attained national status as an excellent adaptive reuse project. In fact, the building won a statewide AIA award for excellence in architectural design. The project was funded through various incentives, including Historic Preservation Tax Credits administered by the Heritage Council, and low-income tax credits and HOME funds from the Kentucky Housing Corporation. The cost was around $2.2 million. The Midway School building is once again a focal point and a source of pride in this small town.

Olive Hill School was constructed in 1929 to serve the citizens of Olive Hill (Carter County). The three-story brick school sits on the main route through town (U.S. 60) and can be accessed from the street by 103 stone steps constructed by the local chapter of the W.P.A. in the 1930s. The school is a focal point in the town. In 1994, the school closed and was replaced by a school located on the edge of town. The school was stripped of much of its interior finish, including light fixtures, fuse boxes, and toilets, in order to save money for the new school. The school had received very little maintenance prior to its abandonment.

The Olive Hill School, above, in Carter County is an imposing landmark in the community. The image, to the left, documents the current condition of the building's interior. Photos: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

In December 1998, the school was purchased by the mayor of Olive Hill for $10,000. The mayor, in turn, sold the building to the local historical society. The current plan is to reuse the building as a community center, museum, senior citizen

Above is a view showing the interior of an original classroom in the Olive Hill School. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

wellness center, and community theater. The project has been extremely difficult, because the school has been under-maintained for years. The building is currently in desperate need of a new roof for the gymnasium. Other needs include window repair, electrical, HVAC, and plumbing systems, and interior repairs.

In order to acurately assess these needs, a $5000 Federal Survey and Planning Grant was awarded to the group from the Heriatge Council for a feasibility study. The study was undertaken by Fitzsimons Office of Architecture, and provided a plan on how to renovate the building to serve as a community center. At the same time, the Historical Society have been occupied trying to find funding sources for the project.

The local historical society has been creative in obtaining renovation funds. They have received funds from Governor Patton's office, the local fiscal court, the Kentucky Heritage Council, and private individuals. They were just awarded $400,000 of Transportation Enhancement Funding (TEA) from the Kentucky Transportation Cabinet and Federal Highways Administration.

The Works Progress Administration (WPA) constructed the **Morgan County High School** in West Liberty, Kentucky in 1935.

The Morgan County High School in West Liberty is a WPA constructed facility . Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

The building, which was dedicated in 1937, is reported to be the largest WPA school building constructed of native stone and timber. The facility served as an elementary and high school until the late 1940s, when it was altered to serve as a Middle School. In1989, the Morgan County School Board closed the building.

Shortly thereafter, the Morgan County Fiscal Court obtained a 99-year lease on the old school at a cost of $1 per annum, in hopes of finding funds for renovation work. Plans were developed to reuse the facility as county government offices and as a community center. Several attempts were made to obtain state or federal funds to rehabilitate the facility, but none were successful until 1992. In the early 1990s, the Morgan County Arts and Recreation Commission joined with the county government in an effort to raise funds. They invited Assistant Director of the Appalachian Regional Commission Hilda Legg and Congressional leaders Hal Rogers and Chris Perkins to tour the school and discuss

renovation plans. Thanks to widespread community sup-
port and a well-crafted renovation strategy, the project
captured Congressman Hal Rogers' attention. He ac-
tively sought and obtained a $1 million dollar appropria-
tions bill from the Small Business Administration that was
a part of the 1993 federal budget.

The one million dollar federal grant enabled the commu-
nity to receive emergency funding of $58,393 to replace
the roof in order to prevent further water damage. Sherman,
Carter, Barnhart Architects of Lexington were the project archi-
tects for the renovation and Construction Management Services,
Inc., of Campbellsville was the contractor. Despite water dam-
age from the roof, the structure was sound due to the solid con-
struction and craftsmanship of the building.

The facility has 28,000 square feet with the top two floors of the
building converted for use as county government offices, while the
bottom two floors, including the gymnasium, were renovated for
use as a community center. Additional funding was sought in the
form of a Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) to reno-
vate the basement level for use as community center space. A
total of $1.5 million was received to renovate the facility. The project
was completed in August 1994. Additional money was raised by
the Morgan County Arts and Recreation Commission to furnish
equipment and furniture for the community spaces through private
donations.

*This computer room is one of
the many community spaces
located in the renovated Morgan
County High School. The build-
ing was adapted to accomodate
modern technologies. Photos:
Kentucky School Survey 2001.*

Crispus Attucks School was built in 1916 by Hopkinsville's black
school board to serve African American students. The school is
actually constructed from the debris of an older white school. The
building is a two-story brick veneer structure with stone detailing.
It is an extremely commodious school with eight classrooms, a
library, and a cafeteria. An addition was appended to the building
in 1957 for classroom and gymnasium space. The school was
closed in 1967, in order to integrate Hopkinsville's white and black
school systems.

In the 1990s, the local African American community planned to
renovate the old school for community use. They formed the
Crispus Attucks Community Association, and began actively pur-
suing grants and private donations. In 1999, the Association re-
ceived a $6000 restoration grant from the Kentucky African Ameri-
can Heritage Commission to assist with stabilizing the building's
historic fabric. Further funds came in 2000 with the announce-

*This view of the Crispus
Attucks School in Hopkinsville
shows the architecturally de-
tailed front entrance . Photo:
Kentucky School Survey
2001.*

Above is a view of the Crispus Attucks school with a later addition. Photo: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

ment of $200,000 in Transportation Enhancement (TE) funding from the Kentucky Transportation Cabinet and the Federal Highways Administration for converting the building into a community center and museum. Then, the Association and the Christian County Fiscal Court procured $500,000 of Economic Opportunity Zone funding, and $500,000 additional TE money in 2002. Work is currently underway to make this building once again the center of the African American community in Hopkinsville.

The Benham School, located on Ky. 160 in northern Harlan County, is a surviving testament to the development of company coal-towns. Wisconsin Steel Company, a subsidiary of the International Harvester Company, built the Tudor Revival-inspired, two-story brick structure in 1928. It was typical for coal company operators to build public buildings in Kentucky coal-towns. These elegant and substantial buildings expressed the company's investment in community infrastructure. The school operated as a high school until 1961. It was then converted to a grade school, and closed in 1992.

The Benham School in Harlan County now operates as a successful bed-and breakfast inn. Below right: The original classrooms of the school were converted to guest rooms. Photos: Kentucky School Survey 2001.

In 1993, a group of investors purchased the 26,000 square-foot school building to reuse it as a bed-and-breakfast inn. Former graduates and local businessmen raised significant sums of money for the rehabilitation project. Because the building was part of a historic district nominated to the National Register of Historic Places in 1983, the work on the school was eligible for the federal Historic Investment Tax Credit, administered by the Heritage Council. The owners submitted an application detailing the comprehensive rehabilitation plans for the $1 million project. To receive the tax credit, the owners had to retain as much of the historic character and materials of the building as possible.

Today, the Benham School House Inn is operating as popular bed-and-breakfast. It has sixteen guest rooms, conference facilities, restaurant, and auditorium that can accommodate 200 people.

Selected Bibliography: Historic Context Section

Allen, Lindsey E. *History of the WPA Education Program in Kentucky*. Lexington: Master's Thesis, University of Kentucky, 1941.

Berlin, Ira. *Slaves Without Masters: The Free Negro in the Antebellum South*. New York: Pantheon Books, 1974.

Butler, Wendell P. *History of Education in Kentucky*. Commonwealth of Kentucky Educational Bulletin, Volume 31, Number II. Frankfort, Kentucky: Kentucky Department of Education, 1963

Castaldi, Basil. *Educational Facilities: Planning, Modernization and Management, 4th Edition.* Needham Heights, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, 1994.

Chapman, James Virgil and V.O. Gilbert. *School Architecture of Kentucky.* Volume 10, Number 2. Frankfort, Kentucky: Kentucky Department of Education, 1917.

Crutcher, G.L. *Auditoriums and Stages in Kentucky Secondary Schools.* Lexington: Master's Thesis, University of Kentucky, 1937.

Department of the Interior, National Park Service. *National Register Bulletin 16: Guidelines for Completing National Register of Historic Places Forms. Part A, How to Complete the National Register Registration Form.* Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1991.

Doyle, Edwina, Ruby Lawson, and Anne Armstrong Thompson, ed. *From Fort to the Future: Educating the Children of Kentucky*. Lexington: Kentucky Images Press, 1987.

Engleman, Firis E. *Planning America's School Buildings: Report of the AASA.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1960.

Gowans, Alan. *Styles and Types of North American Architecture.* New York: Harper Collins, 1993.

Hamlett, Barksdale. *History of Education in Kentucky*. A Bulletin of the Kentucky Department of Education, Volume 7, Number 4. Frankfort, Kentucky: The State Journal Printing Company.

Harris, William H. *The Harder We Run: Black Workers Since The Civil War.* New York and Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982.

Harrison, Lowell H. and James C. Klotter. *New History of Kentucky.* Lexington: The University of Kentucky Press, 1997.

Hartford, Ellis Ford. *The Little White Schoolhouse.* Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1977.
Klotter, James C., ed. *Our Kentucky: A Study of the Bluegrass State*. Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2000.

Kowaski, Theodore J. *Planning and Managing School Facilities*. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1989.

Leu, Donald J. *Planning Educational Facilities*. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1965.

Ligon, Moses E. *A History of Public Education in Kentucky : a Study of the Development and Control of Public Education Based Upon the Constitutional Provisions and the Legislative Acts of the General Assembly.* Lexington: University of kentucky Press, 1942.

Lucas, Marion. *A History of Blacks in Kentucky: From Slavery to Segregation, 1760 to 1891*. Volume 1. Frankfort, Kentucky: The Kentucky Historical Society, 1992.

McAlester, Virginia and Lee McAlester. *A Field Guide to American Houses.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993.

McVey, Frank L. *The Gates Open Slowly: A History of Education in Kentucky*. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1949.

Moore, Doris Lynn Koch. *Benjamin Orr Peers and the Beginnings of the Public School Movement in Kentucky, 1826 to 1842*. Lexington: Master's Thesis, University of Kentucky, 1981.

Moseng, Lloyd Raymond. *Space Distribution in Junior High School Buildings*. Lexington: Master's Thesis, University of Kentucky, 1937.

Nickell, W. Lynn. *The Morgan County Phoenix: A History of WPA Schools in Morgan County, Kentucky*. West Liberty: Published by Author, 1994.

Perkins, Lawrence B. and Walter D. Cocking. *Schools.* New York: Reinhold Publishing, 1949.

Qualls, Daniel Webster. *History of Education in Carter County*. Lexington: Master's Thesis, 1931.

Simon, F. Kevin, ed. *The WPA Guide to Kentucky*. Lexington: the University Press of Kentucky, 1939.

Spring, Joel. *The American School 1642-1985: Varieties of Historical Interpretation of the Foundations and Development of American Education*. White Plains, New York: Longman Inc., 1986.

Steffy, Betty E. *The Kentucky Educational Reform: Lessons for America*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Company, 1993.

Turley-Adams, Alicestyne. *Rosenwald Schools in Kentucky, 1917-1932*. Frankfort, Kentucky: The Kentucky Heritage Council, 1997. Warner, Hattie. *Consolidation of Rural Schools in Kentucky*. Lexington: Master's Thesis, University of Kentucky, 1925.

Wright, George C. *A History of Blacks in Kentucky: In Pursuit of Equality, 1890 – 1980*. Volume 2. Frankfort, Kentucky: The Kentucky Historical Society, 1992.

Selected Bibliography: Survey Results and Analysis

Ahulwalia, Gopal and Angela Shackford. "Life Expectancy of Building Materials." http://www.jonathanpress.com/97-98-Oct-Jun/lifexpec.htm

Beaumont, Constance and Elizabeth Pianca. "Why Johnny Can't Walk to School." http://www.nationaltrust.org/issues/schoolsRpt.pdf

Brand, Stewart. *How Buildings Learn and What Happens After They're Built*. New York: Viking Books, 1994.

Jester, Thomas and Sharon C. Park. "Making Historic Properties Accessible." *Preservation Briefs*, Number 32. Washington, D.C.: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1993.

The Kentucky Department of Education, Division of Facilities Management. http://www.kde.state.ky.us/odss/facility/default.asp

The Kentucky Department of Education, Division of Facilities Management. 702 *KAR 4:170: Facility Programming and Construc-*

tion Criteria. Frankfort: Kentucky Department of Education, 1995.

The Kentucky Department of Education, Division of Facilities Management. *Guidelines of Best Practices for School Building Projects*. Frankfort: Kentucky Department of Education, 1995.

The Kentucky Department of Education, Division of Facilities Management. *Master Educational Facility Plan Guidelines*. Frankfort: Kentucky Department of Education, 1995.

The Kentucky Department of Education, Office of Communications. *The 2000-2001 Kentucky Schools Directory*. Frankfort: KDE Graphics Branch, 2001.

The Kentucky Department of Education, Office of Education Technology. http://www.kde.state.ky.us/oet/

Litchfield, Michael. *Renovation: A Complete Guide*. New Haven, Connecticut: John Wiley and Sons, 1982.

Mack, Robert C. and Anne Grimmer. "Assessing Cleaning and Water-Repellant Treatments for Historic Masonry Buildings." *Preservation Briefs*, Number 1. Washington, D.C.: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 2000.

MacDonald, Marylee. "Repairing Historic Flat Plaster." *Preservation Briefs*, Number 21. Washington, D.C.: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1989.

Owen, David. *The Walls Around Us: A Thinking Person's Guide to How A House Works*. New York: Villard Books, 1991.

Park, Sharon C. "Heating, Ventilating, and Cooling Historic Buildings: Problems and Recommended Approaches." *Preservation Briefs*, Number 24. Washington, D.C.: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1991.

Patton, Governor Paul E. *A Report of the Governor's Smart Growth Task Force*. Frankfort: Kentucky Smart Growth Task Force, 2001.

Sweetser, Sarah M. "Roofing for Historic Buildings." *Preservation Briefs*, Number 4. Washington, D.C.: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1979.

Yapp, Bob and Rich Binsacca. *About Your House*. San Francisco: Bay Books, 1997.

Appendix 1: Historic Schools Survey Proposal

Proposal for Kentucky's Historic School Study

Background

In January 2000, the National Trust for Historic Preservation initiated a nationwide study of historic school buildings in response to growing alarm over the rate of their demolition, deterioration, and abandonment. The initiative called attention to the unfortunate plight of some of the country's most significant, well-built older public buildings. The Trust's study was undertaken at the state level by State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) or nonprofit statewide organizations, and was meant to identify and understand the issues that affect historic school buildings. Kentucky's SHPO, the Kentucky Heritage Council, began this effort through development of several case studies. Historic schools at Temple Hill (Barren County), Nicholasville (Jessamine County), Sadieville and Georgetown (Scott County), and Bowling Green (Warren County) were examined in order to understand this multi-faceted issue. Although the study demonstrated that historic schools in Kentucky can and have been renovated, it became clear that Kentucky's historic school buildings were underutilized and under imminent threat of demolition in favor of new school construction. This situation is unfortunate given that schools are among the most significant historic buildings in the community and have great potential for reuse, as schools, community centers, daycare centers, etc.

The threats to Kentucky's school buildings are related to certain notions in the architecture profession, in state sponsored regulations, and in the general public. Put simply, most architects are trained to understand new construction and thus believe older schools to be inferior structures of a time long past. Many architects cite the impossibility of adding elevators and new technologies, difficulty rewiring old buildings, and long-standing maintenance problems as rationale for preferring new construction. Additionally, these old buildings seem, to some, a reminder of a time when education was not fair or equitable throughout Kentucky. In 1989, the promise of a safe and equal learning environment for every child was inaugurated through adoption of the Kentucky Educational Reform Act (KERA). KERA regulations promote healthy educational environments thought to exist solely in new school buildings. State guidelines for school buildings have grown out of these concerns for the safety and well-being of students. While not prohibiting school renovations, state guidelines clearly do not equally promote the reuse of historic school buildings. All of these factors coalesce to make reuse of historic educational facilities highly unlikely.

The Kentucky Heritage Council seeks to remedy this situation by forming a working partnership with the Department of Education (DOE). We believe that Kentucky's historic school buildings are not a relic of the past, but a gateway to a cost-effective, progressive future. Historic school buildings can furnish safe, even dynamic educational spaces through which Kentucky's children can flourish in the 21st century. As we have seen in our study, elevators, office spaces, computer labs, and other modern amenities can be integrated into historic school facilities in a cost-effective, aesthetically

pleasing manner. The following outline suggests a course of action that will allow for a more comprehensive understanding of the historic school building situation.

Draft of Project Outline:
Part One

I.   Advisory Committee
    (a)   Organization: define membership; insure appropriate individuals are included (e.g. Teacher's Associations, Superintendent's Associations, architects, preservationists, and concerned citizens), based upon model adopted in Colorado.
    (b)   Mission: to accurately determine issues affecting historic school buildings and plan for their reuse as schools, office facilities, or community centers

II.   Identification of Historic Schools
    (a)   Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC) prepare survey forms (on-line version accessible from the DOE website) to be sent to each school district Superintendent, Board, and Facilities Management Department. DOE request that local Facilities Management staff and Facility Planning Committee (FPC) identify all schools in the district under their ownership that are fifty years of age or older
    (b)   Upon identification, complete survey form that describes the property, detailing any and all maintenance problems
    (c)   Facilities Management Team (FMT), of local FPC and facilities Management staff, should supply photograph of the property
    (d)   FMT should describe classification for each school (transitional, permanent, or functional) and provide insight into why classified as such
    (e)   Results entered into historic schools database at KHC to get accurate count of older schools in the state and how many are endangered

III.   School Superintendent Survey
    (a)   KHC prepare superintendent survey (on-line version accessible from DOE website) to understand issues facing historic school buildings in their district
    (b)   Superintendent should provide information on what, if any, schools renovated, the costs, successes, problems, and rationale for reuse
    (c)   Questionnaire returned to DOE and then forwarded to KHC for analysis and input into historic school database

Draft of Project Outline:
Part Two

IV.   Planning for future Reuse
    (a)   KHC, DOE, & Advisory Committee examine and analyze survey results
    (b)   KHC staff compile information on cost, program space, safety, & attractiveness of renovated schools in Kentucky, based upon survey results and prior work accom-

plished

(c)   *KHC & DOE prepare "Renovation Case Studies" pamphlet for dissemination to local FPC and Facilities Management staff with understanding that decision is local*

(d)   *KHC disseminate "Renovation Case Studies" to AIA registered architects in Kentucky who devote 10% or more of their work to constructing educational facilities*

(e)   *KHC, DOE, & Advisory Committee furnish recommendations for policy and legislative changes that would place school renovation on equal footing with new construction*

(f)   *Co-author report that details findings about the plight of KY's historic schools*

(g)   *Include historic context for Kentucky schools in report to allow for simplified NR and survey work*

(h)   *Place historic context and other information on KHC and DOE website for access by elementary and secondary students*

Objective

The objective of this information gathering initiative should be a better understanding of the plight of historic school buildings across the Commonwealth. With this knowledge in mind and with DOE support, school facility planning committees can make more balanced decisions with equal attention given to renovation work as to new construction. Efforts can be made on the local level to renovate the particular historic school, if feasible, or reuse the building for some other purpose, such as housing, community center, senior citizen center, etc. Furthermore, identifying these buildings before they are undermaintained would significantly reduce renovation costs by planning for future service, rather than future demise.

Renovation of historic school buildings harmonizes nicely with the Character Education Teaching Strategies espoused by the Department of Education. These guidelines, as you may know, attempt to educate children on the importance of strong moral values. Among these moral values, respect for the natural environment is discussed. The students are advised to develop positive behaviors for respecting/preserving natural habitat and environment. What could be more environmentally friendly than reusing a building, rather than littering our landfills with Kentucky's heritage and infrastructure? School rehabilitation could, indeed, become a teaching tool that builds a strong moral character based upon respect for our built environment.

Appendix 2: Historic School Survey Form

HISTORIC SCHOOL SURVEY FORM

For Office Use Only
County_____
Resource
#_____
Evalua-
tion_____

1. Name of School:

2. School District:

3. Address/County:

4. Date Recorded: _____

5. Name and title of person completing form: _____

     _____

6. When was this school built? (Approximate date is okay).

7. What is the building's primary structural material?

    Brick_____   Brick Veneer_____If brick veneer, is the building's structural frame wooden or metal? _____

    Stone_____   Concrete Block_____   Wood_____   Other_____(Please describe)_____

8. What kind of foundation does the building have?

    Stone_____   Concrete Block_____   Concrete Slab_____   Other_____(Please describe)_____

9. What kind of roof does the building have?

    Standing Seam Metal_____   Asphalt Shingle_____   Slate_____   Bitumous Asphalt_____

    Terra Cotta_____   Other_____(Please describe)_____

10. How many stories high is the building?

11. What kind of windows does the building have?

    Wood_____   Steel_____   Aluminum_____   Vinyl_____

    Other_____(Please describe)_____

12. Does the building have any distinct architectural features? (e.g. decorative stonework or metalwork, turrets, porches)_____

    _____

13. Have there been any additions to the building including detached buildings?   _____

    If so, when were they added on?   _____/   _____/   _____/

14. Does the building have a gymnasium, auditorium, cafeteria, or library? If so, please list._____

    _____

15. Briefly describe the building's interior. Does it have plastered interior walls, plastered ceilings, acoustic tile ceilings, etc.?_____

    _____

16. Are there floor plans available for the building?_____ If yes, please make a copy and return them with this form.

17. Please include a photograph of the building, if possible.

18. Is there any historical information known about the build-
    ing?_____

91

19. Has the building been renovated in the past thirty years? _____

If so, briefly describe the work._____

_____

_____

_____

20. When was the roof replaced last?_____

21. Does the building have an HVAC system?

If not, how is the building heated/cooled?_____

22. Has the electrical system and plumbing been updated?_____

Please describe the last work done on these systems?_____

23. Is the building ADA accessible? _____   If not, how will this issue be addressed?_____

24. Does the building have a sprinkler system?_____

25. Does the building have any moisture problems? _____

If so, what is the cause, e.g. insufficient guttering system, roof leaks?_____

26. Is there a long-term maintenance plan in existence? _____

What are its top priorities?_____

_____

27. If there is not a long-term maintenance plan, how are routine maintenance issues taken care of?_____

_____

_____

28. Are there any maintenance issues that should be noted?_____

_____

29. What is the building's current classification?

Transitional_____   Functional_____   Permanent_____

30. What is the reason for the building's current classification? Please be specific, include maintenance issues, cost, need for additional space, etc._____

31. If classified as transitional or functional, could the additional requirements be incorporated into the existing building?_____

32. If the building is classified as transitional, when is it expected to close?_____

Appendix 3: List of Schools Surveyed

County	District Name	School name
Barren	Barren Co.	Park City Elementary
Barren	Barren Co.	Austin Tracy Elementary
Barren	Barren Co.	Temple Hill Elementary
Boone	Walton-Verona Ind.	Walton-Verona High School
Bourbon	Paris Ind.	Paris High School
Bourbon	Paris Ind.	Paris Middle School
Bourbon	Bourbon Co.	North Middletown Elementary
Bourbon	Paris Ind.	Paris Elementary
Bourbon	Bourbon Co.	Bourbon County Middle School
Boyd	Ashland Ind.	George M. Verity Middle School
Boyle	Danville Ind.	Danville Board of Education
Boyle	Danville Ind.	Danville High School Gym Annex*
Boyle	Danville Ind.	Toliver Elementary
Bracken	Augusta Ind.	Augusta High School/Elementary
Breathitt	Breathitt Co.	Rousseau Elementary
Breathitt	Jackson Ind.	Jackson City School
Breckenridge	Cloverport Ind.	Frederick Fraize High School
Bullitt	Bullitt Co.	Riverview Alternative School
Bullitt	Bullitt Co.	Mt. Washington Middle School
Calloway	Murray Ind.	Murray Middle School
Campbell	Silver Grove Ind.	Silver Grove School
Campbell	Newport Ind.	Newport Middle School
Campbell	Campbell Co.	Southgate Elementary
Campbell	Newport Ind.	Fourth Street Elementary
Carter	Carter Co.	Carter Elementary
Carter	Carter Co.	Hitchins Elementary
Casey	Casey Co.	Middleburg Elementary
Casey	Casey Co.	Liberty Elementary
Christian	Christian Co.	Crofton Elementary
Clark	Clark Co.	Belmont School (Clark Extended Ed. Center)
Clay	Clay Co.	Burning Springs Elementary
Clay	Clay Co.	Old Harker Elementary

County	District Name	School name
Clay	Clay Co.	Campbell-Reed Learning Center
Clay	Clay Co.	Pin Hook Elementary
Clay	Clay Co.	Clay County High School
Clay	Clay Co.	Clay County Middle School
Clay	Clay Co.	Manchester School
Daviess	Daviess Co.	Utica Elementary
Daviess	Daviess Co.	West Louisville Elementary
Daviess	Daviess Co.	Daviess County Middle School
Daviess	Daviess Co.	Philpot Elementary
Daviess	Owensboro Ind.	Owensboro High School
Elliott	Elliott Co.	Elliott County High School
Estill	Estill Co.	Estill County Middle School
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Julia R. Ewan Elementary
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Russell Cave Elementary
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Arlington Elementary
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Cassidy Elementary
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Johnson Elementary
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Lafayette High School
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Linlee Elementary
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Morton Middle School
Fayette	Fayette Co.	Athens Elementary
Fleming	Fleming Co.	Hillsboro Elementary
Fleming	Fleming Co.	Simons Middle School
Fleming	Fleming Co.	Ewing Elementary
Franklin	Franklin Co.	Bridgeport Elementary
Franklin	Franklin Co.	Bald Knob Elementary
Franklin	Frankfort Ind.	Second Street Elementary
Franklin	Frankfort Ind.	Frankfort High School
Franklin	Franklin Co.	Peaks Mill Elementary
Fulton	Fulton Ind.	Carr Elementary
Gallatin	Gallatin Co.	Gallatin County Middle School
Garrard	Garrard Co.	Camp Dick Robinson Elementary
Graves	Graves Co.	Lowes Elementary
Graves	Graves Co.	Fancy Farm Elementary

County	District Name	School name
Graves	Graves Co.	Sedalia Elementary
Grayson	Grayson Co.	Caneyville Elementary
Grayson	Grayson Co.	Clarkson Elementary
Hancock	Hancock Co.	Hawesville Elementary
Hancock	Hancock Co.	Lewisport Elementary
Hardin	Hardin Co.	Howe Valley Elementary
Hardin	Elizabethtown Ind.	Elizabethtown Independent Board of Education Office
Hardin	Hardin Co.	East Hardin Middle School
Hardin	Hardin Co.	Lynnvale Elementary
Hardin	Hardin Co.	Rineyville Elementary
Hardin	Hardin Co.	Sonora Elementary
Hardin	Hardin Co.	Upton Elementary
Hardin	Hardin Co.	Brown Street Education Center
Hardin	West Point Ind.	West Point Elementary
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Evarts Elementary
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Wallins Elementary
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Cumberland High School
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Evarts High School
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Loyall Elementary
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Cumberland Middle School
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Hall Elementary
Harlan	Harlan Ind.	Central Office Building
Harlan	Harlan Co.	Verda Elementary
Harrison	Harrison Co.	Harrison Co. High School
Hart	Hart Co.	Memorial Elementary
Hart	Hart Co.	Cub Run Elementary
Hart	Hart Co.	Bonnieville Elementary
Henry	Eminence Ind.	Eminence High School
Hickman	Hickman Co.	Hickman Elementary
Hopkins	Dawson Springs Ind.	Dawson Springs Community School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Field Elementary
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Frayser Elementary
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Western Middle School

| County	District Name	School name
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Valley High School Magnet Career Academy
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Meyzeek Middle School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Highland Middle School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Jefferson Traditional Middle School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Portland Elementary
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Lyman T. Johnson Middle School
Jefferson	Anchorage Ind.	Anchorage Public School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Shelby Elementary
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Barret Traditional Middle School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Bloom Elementary
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Fern Creek Traditional High School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Shawnee High School Magnet Career Center
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Semple Elementary
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Ahrens Vocational Center
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	DuPont Manual High School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Eastern High School
Jefferson	Jefferson Co.	Southern Middle School
Jessamine	Jessamine Co.	Jessamine Early Learning Village
Jessamine	Jessamine Co.	Nicholasville Elementary
Kenton	Covington Ind.	Fourth District Elementary
Kenton	Covington Ind.	First District Elementary
Kenton	Covington Ind.	Sixth District Elementary
Kenton	Covington Ind.	James E. Biggs Early Childhood Center
Kenton	Covington Ind.	Covington Ind. Central Administration
Kenton	Covington Ind.	Holmes Junior High School
Kenton	Kenton Co.	Dixie Heights High School
Kenton	Ludlow Ind.	Mary A. Goetz Elementary
Kenton	Ludlow Ind.	Ludlow High School
Kenton	Ludlow Ind.	Ludlow Middle School
Kenton	Kenton Co.	Simon Kenton High School
Kenton	Kenton Co.	Ft. Wright Elementary
Kenton	Beechwood Ind.	Beechwood Elementary
Kenton	Covington Ind.	Holmes High School

County	District Name	School name
Kenton	Kenton Co.	Visalia Elementary
Knox	Barbourville Ind.	Barbourville High School
Knox	Knox Co.	Knox Central High School
LaRue	LaRue Co.	Hodgenville Elementary
LaRue	LaRue Co.	Buffalo Elementary
LaRue	LaRue Co.	Magnolia Elementary
Laurel	East Bernstadt Ind.	East Bernstadt Elementary
Letcher	Letcher Co.	Whitesburg High School
Lincoln	Lincoln Co.	Crab Orchard Elementary
Lincoln	Lincoln Co.	Waynesburg Elementary
Livingston	Livingston Co.	Smithland Elementary/gym*
Logan	Logan Co.	Russellville Middle School
Madison	Madison Co.	Waco Elementary
Madison	Madison Co.	Madison Central High School
Madison	Madison Co.	Kingston Elementary
Magoffin	Magoffin Co.	Salyersville Elementary
Marion	Marion Co.	Glasscock Elementary
Marion	Marion Co.	Saint Charles Middle School
McCreary	McCreary Co.	Smithtown Elementary
McCreary	McCreary Co.	Whitley City Elementary
McCreary	McCreary Co.	Stearns Elementary
Menifee	Menifee Co.	Old Botts School (One-room school)*
Mercer	Harrodsburg Ind.	Harrodsburg High School
Morgan	Morgan Co.	Wrigley Elementary
Morgan	Morgan Co.	Channel City Elementary
Muhlenberg	Muhlenberg Co.	Drakesboro Consilidated Elementary
Muhlenberg	Muhlenberg Co.	Hughes Kirk Elementary
Muhlenberg	Muhlenberg Co.	Greenville Elementary
Muhlenberg	Muhlenberg Co.	Bremen Elementary
Muhlenburg	Muhlenburg Co.	Alternative Center
Muhlenburg	Muhlenburg Co.	Muhlenburg North Middle School
Nelson	Bardstown Ind.	Bardstown Early Childhood Education Center
Nelson	Nelson Co.	Chaplin Elementary

County	District Name	School name
Nelson	Nelson Co.	Old Kentucky Home Middle School
Nelson	Nelson Co.	Boston Elementary
Ohio	Ohio Co.	Fordsville Elementary
Oldham	Oldham Co.	Liberty Elementary
Oldham	Oldham Co.	Crestwood Elementary
Perry	Hazard Ind.	Central Office
Pike	Pike Co.	Millard Elementary
Pike	Pike Co.	Dorton Elementary
Pike	Pike Co.	Elkhorn City Elementary
Pike	Pike Co.	Blackberry Elementary
Pike	Pike Co.	Belfry High School
Pulaski	Pulaski Co.	Eubank Elementary
Pulaski	Pulaski Co.	Shopville Elementary
Pulaski	Somerset Ind.	Somerset High School
Pulaski	Pulaski Co.	Pulaski County High School
Robertson	Robertson Co.	Deming High School
Rockcastle	Rockcastle Co.	Brodhead Elementary
Rowan	Rowan Co.	Morehead Elementary
Rowan	Rowan Co.	Farmer's Elementary
Shelby	Shelby Co.	Northside Elementary
Shelby	Shelby Co.	Shelby County West Middle School
Spencer	Spencer Co.	Spencer County Middle School
Warren	Warren Co.	North Warren Elementary
Warren	Bowling Green Ind.	Bowling Green Middle School
Warren	Warren Co.	Alvaton Elementary
Warren	Warren Co.	Bristow Elementary
Warren	Warren Co.	Richardsville Elementary
Warren	Warren Co.	Warren Central High School
Washington	Washington Co.	Washington County Board of Education Office
Wayne	Wayne Co.	Monticello High School
Webster	Providence Ind.	Providence High School
Webster	Webster Co.	Slaughters Elementary
Whitley	Corbin Ind.	Corbin Middle School

County	District Name	School name
Wolfe	Wolfe Co.	Campton Elementary
Woodford	Woodford Co.	Woodford County Middle School

Appendix 4: Historic Schools Symposiom Proceedings
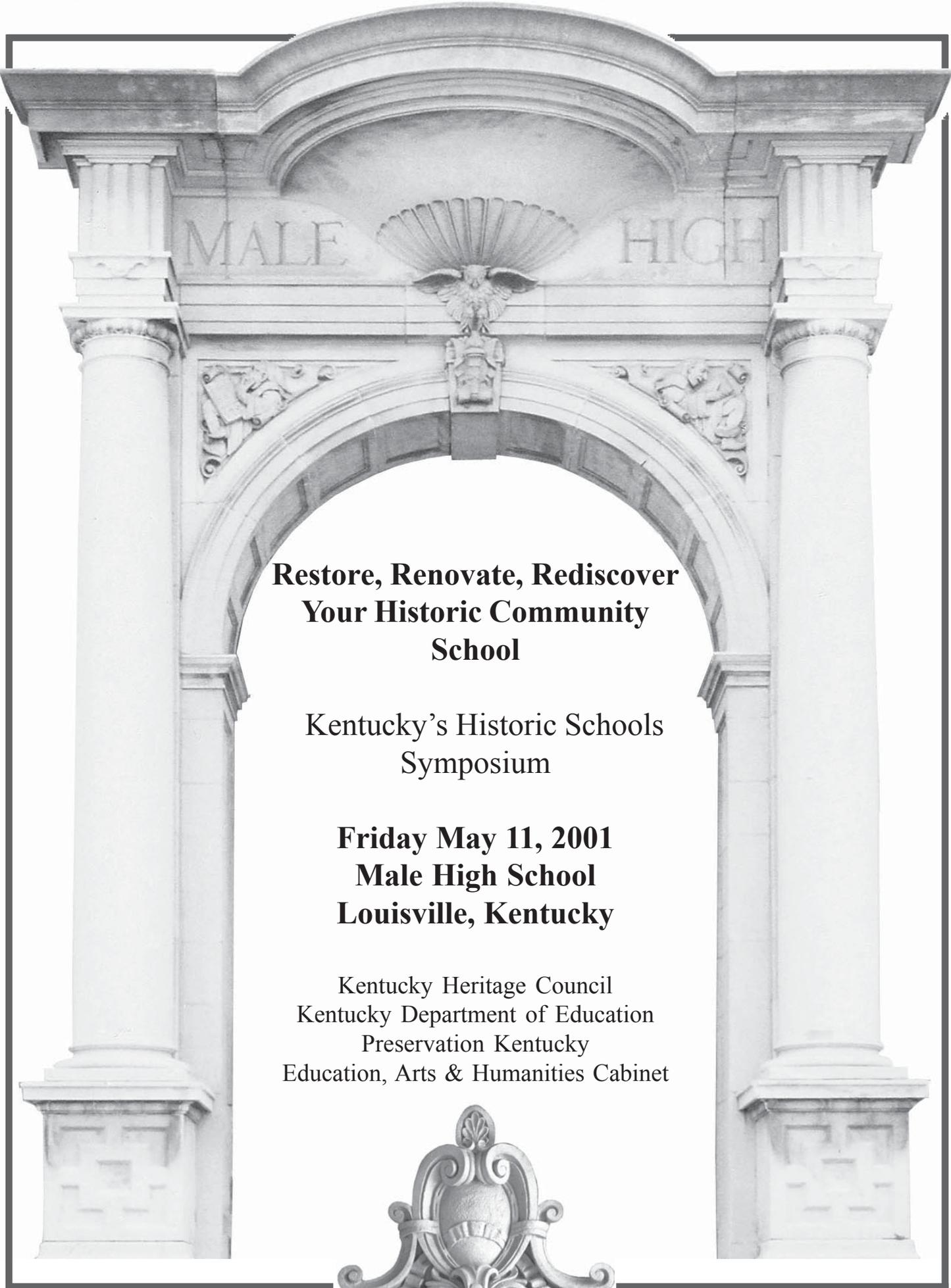
**Restore, Renovate, Rediscover
Your Historic Community
School**

Kentucky's Historic Schools
Symposium

**Friday May 11, 2001
Male High School
Louisville, Kentucky**

Kentucky Heritage Council
Kentucky Department of Education
Preservation Kentucky
Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet

Welcome

We are pleased to welcome you to **Restore, Renovate, Rediscover Your Historic Community School**, Kentucky's Historic Schools Symposium. This exciting effort will begin our celebration of Historic Preservation Week, May 11th – May 19th, and it will initiate the Historic Schools Study to be undertaken this summer by the Kentucky Department of Education and the Kentucky Heritage Council.

This conference is especially unique because it brings together a partnership between the Kentucky Heritage Council, the Kentucky Department of Education, the Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet, and Preservation Kentucky, in order to plan for the continuing service of Kentucky's architecturally and historically significant school buildings. This partnership will provide the Commonwealth with the expertise and professional talent to preserve our historic schools.

The participant also has much to bring to this discussion, and we invite you to engage us in a dialogue about your community's historic school buildings, or about your historic school projects. Thank you for your commitment to Kentucky's historic school buildings. We encourage all Kentuckians to join with us and our partners in helping to enhance their quality of life through preservation and restoration of these incredible resources of our rich past.

Secretary Marlene M. Helm
Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet

Commissioner Gene Wilhoit
Kentucky Department of Education

David L. Morgan, Executive Director
and State Historic Preservation Officer
The Kentucky Heritage Council

Janet Johnston, Chair
Preservation Kentucky

Acknowledgements

"Restore, Renovate, Rediscover Your Historic Community School" Historic Schools Symposium

Welcome and Introductions: 8:45 am to 9:15 am, **Auditorium**

> **David L. Morgan,** Executive Director, Kentucky Heritage Council
> **Commissioner Gene Wilhoit,** Kentucky Department of Education
> **Secretary Marlene Helm,** Education, Arts & Humanities Cabinet

Keynote Address: 9:15 am to 10:00 am, **Auditorium**

> **"** Why Johnny Can't Walk to School"
> **Constance Beaumont,** Director of State and Local Policy for the National
> Trust for Historic Preservation

Information and Case Studies Sessions: 10:15 am to 12:30 pm

Session A and Session B are Concurrent

Session A. **What can your community do with abandoned school buildings?**
Auditorium
Moderator: **Richard Jett**, Preservation Kentucky
This session is intended to highlight funding sources and other incentives
that can assist with school adaptive reuse projects. Participants can also
expect to examine completed school adaptive reuse projects.

10:15 "Grant Possibilities for School Reuse Projects"
Janet Johnston, Associate Director LTADD, and Chair of Preservation Kentucky
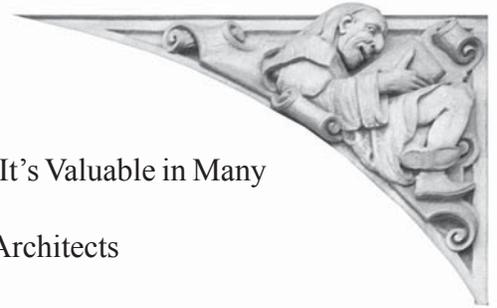
| 10:35 | "Respect Your Historic School Building: It's Valuable in Many Ways" |
| | **Herb Shulhafer, AIA**, Nolan and Nolan Architects |

| 11:15 | "Tax Credits and Historic School Projects" |
| | **Scot Walters**, Historic Tax Credit Specialist, KY Heritage Council |

| 11:35 | "Schools and Housing Projects: Incentive Programs Offered by the KY Housing Corporation" |
| | **Penny Young**, Director of Renaissance Kentucky Program, Kentucky Housing Corporation |

| 11:50 | "Adaptive Reuse of Historic Schools: Schools as Housing |
| | **Holly Wiedemann**, AU Associates |

Session B. **Can your community's historic school be renovated?**
Conference Room
Moderator: **Mark Dennen**, Historic Preservation Architect, Kentucky Heritage Council
This session will highlight successful school renovation projects from the perspective of the architect and school administrator. Case studies will demonstrate that keeping older schools in service makes sense.

| 10:15 | "Constraints and Opportunities for Kentucky's Historic School Buildings" **Greg Fitzsimons, AIA,** Fitzsimons Office of Architecture |

| 11:00 | "Renovation and Addition to the Sixth District Elementary School in Covington, Kentucky" **Andrew Piaskowy, AIA,** Piaskowy + Cooper Architects |

| 11:30 | "Does It Have To Be New To Be Better? An Idea Whose Time Has Gone" **Sarah Tate**, Tate/Hill/Jacobs Architects |

| 12:10 | "Renovation of Older Schools in Hart County" |
| | **Assistant Superintendent Judy Lawler**, Hart County Public Schools |

Lunch: Box Lunch 12:30 pm to 1:15 pm, **Cafeteria**

Awards Ceremony: 1:15 pm to 2:15 pm, **Auditorium**
The Heritage Council and Preservation Kentucky introduce winners of the **2001 Photo-Essay Competition** from schools across Kentucky. The theme of this year's competition is: "Restore, Renew, Rediscover Your Historic Neighborhood Schools." Selected winners will read their essays.
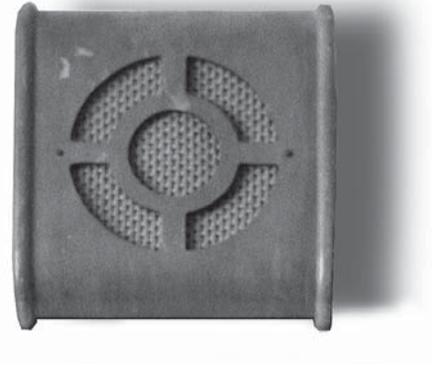
Issues and Policy Sessions: 2:30 pm to 4:30 pm
Session C and Session D are Concurrent

Session C. **Preserving Historic African American Schools**
Conference Room
Moderator: **Nicole Harris**, African American Heritage Commission, Kentucky Heritage Council
Issues covered in this session will focus on the loss of historic community schools in African American neighborhoods. Case studies will be presented by several local groups who are attempting to maintain these important community buildings.

2:30 **"**African American Historic Schools in Kentucky: Between a Rock (Segregation) and a Hard Place (Desegregation)"
Dr. Blaine Hudson, University of Louisville Department of Pan-African Studies

3:10 "Lincoln Grant School – The History and the Legacy"
Jessica Perkins and Benny Butler, the Lincoln Grant Memorial Association

3:35 "The Success Story of that Old, Ugly Shack: Preservation of the Bardstown Colored School," **Carrie Stivers,** Nelson County Arts and Preservation

4:00   "Preservation of the Crispus Attucks School
              in Hopkinsville," **Phillip Brooks, Jr.,** Crispus
              Attucks Community Association

**Session D.   How does education policy affect historic
              schools?**
              Auditorium
              Moderator: **David L. Morgan**, State Historic Preservation Officer,
              Kentucky Heritage Council
              **This session will discuss current KDE policy and process regard-
              ing school renovation projects. Speakers will also address policy
              alterations that have led to the preservation/renovation of his-
              toric schools in states across the Nation.**

2:30   "Renovation Policy and Process in Kentucky"
              Mark Ryles, Director of Facilities Management Division, KDE

3:00   "The Myths and Realities of Historic School Preservation in Indi-
              ana"
              Suzanne Stanis, Education Coordinator, Historic Landmarks Foun-
              dation of Indiana

 3:45   "School Policy Innovations from Around the Country"
              Constance Beaumont, Director of State and Local Government
              Policy, the National Trust for Historic Preservation

Endnote Address: 4:30pm - 4:45 pm, **Auditorium**

              "Planning for the Future: The Challenges and Potentials for Historic
              Schools"
              Steve Wiser, AIA, President of the Louisville Historical League and
              Architect with META Associates

September 17, 2001

Introduction

Governor Paul Patton established the Smart Growth Task Force with a charge to investigate ways in which Kentucky can adopt smart growth options. As part of the Task Force, the Community Development and Design Committee (CD&D) has been examining community developments that would enhance the quality of life in the Commonwealth.   Among the major recommendations incorporated by the CD&D Committee were strong prescriptions advocating reuse and renovation of historic community schools. As a result of these suggestions, Governor Patton established the Smart Schools Subcommittee to deal with this issue in a more extensive manner. The following is a report and recommendations developed by the subcommittee for the CD&D Committee regarding smart school facility planning.

Current Status

- The Kentucky Department of Education Division of Facilities Management, in partnership with local school districts, implements about 500 construction projects each year at a value of $300 to $350 million.

- Since 1993, approximately two-thirds of all public school construction has been renovation/addition to existing school sites with the balance in new construction for growth and replacement.

- Kentucky has 176 school districts, approximately 600,000 students, and about 1,250 major school centers not including central offices and bus garages.

- Kentucky's school building program is a partnership between local and state government with shared funding, responsibility and authority. Kentucky has three state supported funding mechanisms:

    - Capital Outlay – Based on student attendance is $100 per student each year (part of Support Educational Excellence in Kentucky (SEEK).

    - Facility Support Program of Kentucky (FSPK) – Provides authority for local 5¢ tax per $100 of assessed property value to be matched by state equalization to the state's average assessment per student. Funding is provided through SEEK.

- School Facilities Construction Commission (SFCC) – Assistance is provided based on facility needs.

- Long-range district facility plans, which establish organizational structure, facilities, capacity and capital construction priorities are required from all schools/districts. Those decisions, including new construction, renovation, organizational structures, and consolidation are made locally.

- Evaluation of facilities is consistent; using standard criteria and design professionals. Feasibility of renovation is provided for each school. There is no bias for renovation or new construction in this process. The determination is objective, based on the residual value of the facility and its ability to support a modern educational program.

- Site regulation requirements for new sites are more flexible than national requirements (which require twice the acreage). There is no specific acreage requirement for existing facilities that may require renovation.

- Kentucky's inventory is in better condition than the national average, with about only 24% of facilities needing major renovation or replacement, compared to 33% nationally. About 6% (63 facilities) are evaluated as our oldest buildings in the poorest condition.

- KDE maintains data on the physical evaluation of all schools, including surplus property.

- Local school districts in Kentucky have legislated authority to levy taxes and sell bonds to fund public school construction.

- The Education Arts and Humanities Cabinet sponsored the first Historic Schools Symposium in May 2001 at the historically renovated Male High School in Louisville Kentucky. The symposium served as an information exchange forum on historic school preservation and renovation.

- All Kentucky school districts participated in a historic school survey in July 2001 to help develop a comprehensive information data bank on Kentucky schools fifty years of age and older.

Best Practices

Maryland Public School Construction Program

Maryland requires a comprehensive feasibility study to be executed by a design professional when a school district proposes the closing of a school building. The feasibility study must prove that the current building shows the 35-year life cycle cost of an acceptable renovation option is not more than 10% greater than the 35-year life cycle cost of a replacement school

in order for a school to close.

Maryland has incorporated a special funding formula for renovation projects. The state will pay for 100% of the renovation costs of a building over 40 years in age, and 0% of the renovation costs of a building that has been in use for 15 years or less. The rationale for this policy is to make certain that older buildings with lower residual value can incorporate new technologies, electrical and HVAC Systems, etc.

The Maryland Aging Schools Construction Program selects projects that prevent deterioration, improve the safety of students and staff, and enhance the delivery of educational programs. Some of the allowable projects include: HVAC installation, ADA accessibility, communications systems upgrades, painting, and other smaller renovation projects.

Maryland's Public School Construction Program maintains a commitment to older neighborhood school facilities. Every effort is made to insure that a older school remains in use in its community if it is determined that it can sustain itself.

When buildings cannot be renovated for educational space, the state of Maryland allows the city/county governments to obtain title of the structures at no cost. The municipal entity can then use the building for a community purpose, including office space, a community center, day-care center, etc.

Maine – The ABC's of School Site Selection

The State of Maine has also provided leadership in linking smart growth initiatives with school facility planning. The State Planning Office has developed a several-pronged approach to dealing with school facility siting.

First, the State Planning Office partners with the Maine Department of Education to encourage communication and cooperation between local planning offices, municipal governments, and local school districts. This conversation takes place before plans are made to construct a new facility. School districts are encouraged to locate facilities in designated growth areas, as outlined by local planning agencies.

At the same time, the State Planning Office has instituted a policy that requires school districts to be creative when assessing existing facility sites. The ABC's of Site Selection Brochure, distributed to every municipality and school district, asks that facility planners: **A**void Sprawl through renovation or expansion in a central location, **B**e Site Savvy by locating ancillary facilities creatively (like playgrounds at a nearby park) as well as utilizing existing services and facilities to save money, and **C**onsult the Community through tapping into community resources to help plan school expansion.

The State Planning Office, in conjunction with the Department of Education and the Office of Administrative and Financial Services ask that school districts complete a Site Selection Checklist and a Building Renovation/ Expansion vs. New Construction Checklist when examining options. School districts are reminded that school siting decisions can cost or save money over the long term, and that a school's location expresses local values and community pride. Older schools are recognized for their significant role in

the community.

Maine has also created a dedicated fund for renovation projects. Three categories of renovation projects are eligible to receive these funds, including enhancements, serious safety issues, and routine maintenance.

Recommendations

Policy and Guidelines

1. Expand "School" Local Planning Committees to include a member of the appropriate office of local government responsible for planning/development.
    (This will ensure an on-going dialogue about Smart Growth, planning and historic schools between local government and school officials.)

2. Encourage local governments to include a school district representative in local planning initiatives.
    (New school construction often has an array of associated costs paid by taxpayers through local or state government offices. This arrangement will provide stakeholders an opportunity for input and understanding.)

3. Encourage the Kentucky Board of Education (KBE) to issue a statement of support regarding the concept of Smart Growth for school facility planning, including renovation and reuse of existing school buildings.
    (The statement can help inform and clarify issues regarding school construction and Smart Growth principles.)

4. Revise existing state guidelines to include schools in the A-95 Intergovernmental Clearinghouse Review Process.
    (This will provide critical state agencies (i.e. Transportation) a formal process by which to comment on school construction plan and allow for enhanced coordination and planning.)

5. Require school districts proposing renovation projects for historic schools over 50 years of age to submit a feasibility study and architectural plans to the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC) for review and comment.
    (It is understood that not every historic school can or should be renovated. This process will provide early input and technical assistance by the state's historic preservation professionals.)

6. Encourage local governments and school boards to adopt KRS 45-A.
    (This regulation grants legal authority to obtain surplus school properties for a nominal cost, if such properties are to be used for a public purpose.)

7. Require Main Street/Renaissance Committees to have membership representation from the local school district.

Funding and Incentives

8. Establish an "Aging Schools Construction Fund" to encourage and support renovation and reuse projects.

9. Create a special Main Street/Renaissance Fund for schools over 50 years of age.

10. Encourage the Kentucky Department of Education (KDE) to fund an architect position to provide technical assistance to school local planning committees regarding Smart Growth and school facility planning.

Education and Training

11. Provide training opportunities and educational materials related to Smart Growth for architects sponsored by the EAH Cabinet with Continuing Education Credits offered by the Kentucky Society of Architects.

12. Convene a Smart Growth/Best Practices Symposium co-sponsored by the Education, Arts and Humanities Cabinet and other interested parties.
    (The symposium will provide a forum for information exchange of Best Practices, and success stories as well as technical assistance to persons involved with and interested in Smart Growth and Historic School Renovation and reuse.)

AN IMPORTANT PART OF SCHOOL EXPERIENCES

MAIN STREET
$2.60
STATIONERS

EDUCATION
PAYS

E&H
Education, Arts and
Humanities Cabinet

The Kentucky Heritage Council is an Agency of
the Education, Arts an Humanities Cabinet

The Kentucky Heritage Council