

One High Point Commission

Reparations and Reconciliation Report

JULY 27, 2023

FEBRUARY 11 1960

ON THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1960, AT THE CLOSE OF THE SCHOOL DAY, A GROUP OF 26 STUDENTS IN HIGH POINT BECAME THE FIRST HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES TO STAGE A WOOLWORTH "SIT-IN" DEMONSTRATION. THIS ACTION BY THE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS FOLLOWED AN EARLIER DEMONSTRATION ON FEBRUARY 1, 1960 BY THE "A & T FOUR" COLLEGE STUDENTS IN GREENSBORO.

STUDENT ORGANIZERS OF THIS EVENT WERE MARY LOU ANDREWS, BRENDA JEAN FOUNTAIN, MIRIAM LYNN FOUNTAIN AND ANDREW DENNIS MCBRIDE. LED BY REVEREND B. ELTON COX, ACCOMPANIED BY REVEREND FRED SHUTTLESWORTH, THIS DEMONSTRATION WAS TO PROTEST THE RACIAL, SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL INJUSTICES THAT EXISTED. KEY RALLYING SONGS WERE "AIN'T GONNA LET NOBODY TURN ME 'ROUND" AND "WE SHALL OVERCOME." THESE, ALONG WITH PRAYER, WERE ESSENTIAL TO THE STUDENT DEMONSTRATIONS.

AFTER EIGHT LONG YEARS OF THE CIVIL RIGHTS STRUGGLE, EFFORTS BEGAN IN EARNEST TO HEAL THE CITY WITH THE FORMING OF AN INTERRACIAL HUMAN RELATIONS COMMISSION, WHICH STILL EXISTS.

"THE SIT-INS WERE, WITHOUT QUESTION, PRODUCTIVE OF THE MOST CHANGE... NO ARGUMENT IN A COURT OF LAW COULD HAVE DRAMATIZED THE IMMORALITY AND IRRATIONALITY OF SUCH A CUSTOM AS DID THE SIT-IN... THE SIT-INS REACHED FAR OUT INTO THE BACK COUNTRY. THEY INSPIRED ADULT MEN AND WOMEN, FATHERS, MOTHERS, GRANDMOTHERS, AUNTS AND UNCLAS, TO SUPPORT THE YOUNG STUDENTS IN THE CITIES. NOT EVEN THE SUPREME COURT DECISION ON SCHOOLS IN 1954 HAD DONE THIS..."

RALPH MCGILL

COUNTER SERVICE
WHITE ONLY

CITY OF
**high
point.**

Reparations & Reconciliation Report

Report Submitted to the One High Point Commission

CITY OF high point.

Prepared by the Research, Policy, & Impact Center
at the National Institute of Minority Economic Development
Stephen J. Sills, PhD, Senior Vice President
Lea Henry, MPP, Director of Housing Equity Initiatives
Michael Emeto, Intern



Contents

Figures.....	vi
Acknowledgements	7
Introduction	8
Subject Matter Expert Areas of Study.....	9
Dusk to Dawn: <i>Black Labor, the Law, and the Struggle for Justice in North Carolina</i>	12
Trade of Enslaved People In North Carolina	15
Wealth from Exploitation of Africans and African Americans	21
The Prison Industrial Complex	23
Resistance and Revolt	26
The Twentieth Century	29
Conclusions	31
A History of Disparate Treatment in Education	32
Summary of Findings	32
Historical Evidence.....	34
Establishment of High Point City Schools 1897-1920	34
Disparate Spending and Overcrowding of African American Schools	36
Wage Disparities between White and African American Schools (1930-1940)	41
Continued Overcrowding and Wage Disparities (1940-1950)	43
Delayed Improvements (1950-1960)	48
Integration (1959-1969).....	54
Desegregation of Faculty and Staff (1969-1972)	62
Conclusions	65
The More Things Change, The More They Stay the Same: Urban Renewal and Model Cities in High Point	67
Introduction	67
Urban Renewal Projects.....	67
Biracial Committee	73
Desegregation	74
Model Cities Program	75
Washington Street	77
Conclusion.....	79
The Impact of Segregation in High Point: Health & Housing Disparities	81
Segregation in Southern Cities.....	81
Urban Renewal & the City of High Point.....	84

Market Segmentation Study (2015).....	87
High Point Health Report Card (2016)	90
Behavioral Health Study (2017)	93
Resilience High Point Needs Assessment (2019)	95
Residential Drinking Water Quality Study (2020)	99
Assessment of Social Health Drivers for High Point (2022)	100
HealthySteps Needs Assessment (2022).....	103
Guilford County Workforce Needs Assessment (2023)	105
Key Themes across Studies	107
Reparations and Restorative Justice.....	108
Conclusions	113
Conclusions to the One High Point Commission Report.....	116
OHPC Restorative Policy Recommendations	119
Reconciliation and Community Dialogue.....	119
Apologize for City Sponsorship and Enforcement of Racial Discrimination Against African Americans.....	119
Create a Truth and Reconciliation Process	119
Address Housing Disparities	120
Example: Affordable Housing Financing Programs - City of Charlotte, North Carolina	120
Example: Legal Aid of North Carolina – Heirs Property Project	121
Example: Neighborhood Partnership - Chapel Hill, North Carolina	121
Example: City of Asheville Developer Incentives	122
Example: Community Developers Roundtable – Dallas, Texas	122
Address Health Inequities.....	122
Example: City of Greensboro - Cone Health Partnership	122
Example: Lead Safe High Point	123
Example: Briggs Avenue Community Garden – Durham	123
Address the Education Gap.....	124
Example: City of Wilson, North Carolina	124
Example: City Broadband Initiative - City of Durham/Durham County/Duke University	124
Address Economic Opportunity	125
Example: Elizabeth City, North Carolina YouthBuild	125
Example: Central Carolina Community College YouthBuild	125
Example: Hickory, North Carolina YouthBuild	125
Example: Community Works, South Carolina	126

Example: City of Winston-Salem Transformative Grants	126
Address Transportation Access.....	126
Example: Microtransit	127
Review and Revise Municipal Operations.....	127
Example: City of Asheville Cease Harm Audit	127
Recommendations for Other Stakeholders	128
Community Stakeholders.....	128
Guilford County.....	128
State of North Carolina	128
Federal Government.....	128
Topics for Further Research.....	130
References	131
Appendix A – Timeline of African American History 1600-2022.....	137
Appendix B – Excerpts from Testimonies	166
Appendix C – Timeline of One High Point Commission	168
Appendix D – Examples of Governmental Apologies.....	169
City of Charlestown.....	169
NC General Assembly.....	172
US House of Representatives.....	174
Appendix E – Genealogy Sub-Committee Report	178
Appendix F – <i>Federal Reparations Subcommittee Report</i>	215
Appendix G – One High Point Commission Policy Recommendations.....	238

Figures

Figure 1 - Illustrations of The American Anti-Slavery Almanac, Library Of Congress, 1840.....	12
Figure 2 -Late 18th C. Drawing of Bound Captives Being Marched From An Interior Area of Africa Towards European Trading Posts on The Coast, Harper’s, 1865-1866, Vol. 32, P. 719.....	14
Figure 3 - Shackles, North Carolina Museum of History, Courtesy of Avery Research Center For African American History And Culture, College of Charleston	14
Figure 4 -British Slave Ship Brookes, 1788, Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division	15
Figure 5 - Illustration From Carl B. Wadstrom’s An Essay On Colonization, London, 1794, Widener Library, Harvard University, Cambridge, Ma.....	16
Figure 6 - Luisa, Enslaved Nanny, Missouri Historical Society, 19th C.	18
Figure 7 - North Carolina Sharecropper, Courtesy Of The North Carolina Museum Of History	19
Figure 8 - Tobacco Picking, Library Of Congress, Washington, D.C.....	20
Figure 9 - White Oak Cotton Mills In Greensboro, North Carolina, Circa 1910	21
Figure 10 - “Juvenile Convicts at Work in the Fields,” Detroit Photographic Co., 1903.....	22
Figure 11 - Black family picking cotton, nineteenth century	22
Figure 12 - Runaway slave advertisements, 1857.....	24
Figure 13 - Black Populist leaders, Rev. Walter A. Pattillo, top row second from left, 1890-1900.....	27
Figure 14 - Segregated Broadhurst Theater, High Point, North Carolina, Circa 1951.....	28
Figure 15 - William Penn H.S. Band, Christmas Day Parade Main Street, High Point, NC Circa 1949.....	28
Figure 16 - Student Sit-In Protest At The High Point Woolworth’s Lunch Counter. The High Point Enterprise Negative Collection, February 11, 1960.....	30
Figure 17 - Students From William Penn H.S. Protesting For Civil Rights In 1966	30
Figure 18- William Penn School	38
Figure 19- African American Children 1960s High Point.....	55
Figure 20- East Central Urban Renewal Area.....	69
Figure 21 - High Point Model Cities Report 1968-1974	76
Figure 22 - High Point Historic Washington Street Marker.....	78
Figure 23 – East Central Urban Renewal Area (1962).....	85
Figure 24 - Market Segmentation Map for High Point Core City (2015).....	89
Figure 25 - Community Recommendations	96
Figure 26 - Households w/No Vehicle (2019)	98
Figure 27 - Racial Disparities in self-Reported Healthcare Access	101
Figure 28 - Health Equity Score.....	102
Figure 29 - Social Drivers of Health by Race/Ethnicity, Parents in High Point	104
Figure 30 – Everyday Treatment White/Non-White (Weekly or More Often)	106
Figure 31 - Median Household Income (ACS 2021)	106
Figure 32 - Disposition of loan applications, by race of applicant, 2019-2021	111
Figure 33 - Homeownership Rate	112
Figure 34 - Civil Rights Action By Young People In High Point, The High Point Enterprise Negative Collection, February 11, 1960	166

Acknowledgements

The work of the High Point Commission and this report would not have been possible without the contributions of many, many contributors and stakeholders. We thank and acknowledge the work of:

The **High Point NAACP**, whose fearless advocacy for reparations for Black people led to the consideration and adoption of a resolution by the High Point City Council to create the One High Point Commission.

The **members of the One High Point Commission**, citizen volunteers and public servants who have worked for a year and a half to wrestle with a painful past and the disturbing contemporary effects of that past. Commission members conducted research in workgroups that significantly informed the Commission's deliberations and this final report.

One High Point Commission Members

Joseph Alston, Chair

Courtney Alston-Wilson, Co-Chair

Brenda Deets

Councilman Michael Holmes

Councilman Tyrone Johnson

Faye McCauley

Lovelle McMichael

Lee Dories Patrick

Constance Reynolds

Janet Riley-Wright

Robert Sims

Bridget Tolliver

Robert Williamson

The **Subject Matter Experts** who were engaged to conduct research, synthesize data, and make policy recommendations that responds to the hard truths that were discovered and confirmed. Dr. Omar Ali, Dr. Paul Ringel, Dr. Stephen Sills, and Dr. Virginia Summey brought to the assignment both their academic prowess and their love for the city and the region in which they live and work.

The **Facilitators** of the process, who helped frame the conversation, maintained the flow of information, and kept all parties on task and on schedule. Willie Ratchford and Dr. Anthony Wade of WPR LLC, worked with Commissioners, Subject Matter Experts, and the Project Manager to create and maintain a process and an environment conducive to pursuing our best work.

The **Project Manager**, Lea Henry, of the National Institute of Minority Economic Development, who carried out the role of Project Manager diligently and diplomatically, honoring the contributions of all participants in the process while staying the course to produce a report that is useful today and for years to come. She was ably assisted by UNC Greensboro graduate student, Michael Emeto.

The **High Point City Council**, whose members showed leadership and courage in approving a process to document past race-based harms and propose policies and programs to end and restore their deleterious effects.

Community Members in the City of High Point, who attended and watched meetings and shared their thoughts and dreams with Commission members and all the other contributors listed above. Community members are at the center of this work, and it is community members who will guide the future work of reconciliation and restoration.

We especially acknowledge the work and leadership of the **Commission Chair, Joe Alston**, who embraced his leadership role with his whole heart and has been a resolute captain on stormy seas.

Introduction

There is no way to talk about America without talking about slavery. There is no way to talk about American life and culture without talking about the culture that was imported and forged by Africans brought to America's shores in chains. There is no honest way to talk about the unique success of America, the forests that were cleared, the swamps drained, the railroad tracks laid, the edifices built, without talking about the Black labor that made the impossible, possible.

We are at a moment in the life of our country, where the descendants of enslaved Africans are not only claiming their place as Americans in full but doing so in the full embrace of the history that has brought us to this place. African Americans across the United States have advocated for reparations for slavery even when slavery was still legal. After the Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 and the end of the Civil War, their voices and those of many allies reasoned that 'freedom' was a bitter pill for people whose labor and dignity were stolen for generations, and who were now turned out with nothing but the clothes on their backs. While a select few formerly enslaved people received land and mules [work animals] after Emancipation, the vast majority did not, despite promises that were made by the federal government.¹

Over the past 150 years, African Americans and their allies have fought to be equal citizens, equal beneficiaries, and equal creators of the wealth and well-being of our country. They have held up their contributions in peacetime and war; their labor that built fortunes and institutions that persist until today; and the inevitable economic disparities that have resulted from oppression and suppression based on race. They have demanded atonement, both symbolic and substantive. They have asked for acknowledgment of the atrocities wrought upon millions of people over more than 400 years due to their skin color and their ancestors' origin.

In many ways, governments and private actors have taken direct and indirect steps to answer these demands and ameliorate the ongoing impacts of slavery and segregation in America. Laws were enacted to end segregation in the military, in schools, and in public accommodations. Laws were passed to extend voting rights and prohibit racial discrimination in housing, workplaces, and everyday amenities, whether public or private.

Laws barring discrimination based on race were necessary but insufficient solutions. Programs were developed at the federal, state, and community levels to bridge gaps for Black Americans. From early childhood education to affordable housing, from community-based healthcare to job training, innumerable strategies have been employed to bring African Americans to some sort of parity and a place of efficacy in the face of persistent lags in every measure of human health and prosperity. Even as gaps in education and workplace achievements have closed, the gap in

¹ BlackPast, B. (2008). "(1865) General William T. Sherman's Special Field Order No. 15." BlackPast.org. <https://www.blackpast.org/african-american-history/special-field-orders-no-15/>

individual and household wealth between Black and White Americans remains staggeringly wide.²

For some activists and scholars, the answer to the persistent gaps in wealth, and thus life chances, has been obvious for years: often, wealth begets wealth and poverty begets poverty. If one group of people began in abject poverty and were forcefully and purposely kept in poverty, and another group had a wide variety of circumstances but were afforded both special privileges to accrue wealth and freedom to pursue wealth, then those two communities have been set on divergent paths. Small interventions to provide course corrections for a few of the people who have been set on the path to poverty, and lack of, will not stem the tide and correct the course of the whole group. Something significant and unprecedented is required.

Into this void has entered the loud and growing call for financial reparations for the descendants of enslaved Africans. Scholars have quantified the financial gaps between White and Black Americans and quantified what portion of those gaps is attributable to slavery, Jim Crow, and other forms of race-based discrimination. Banks and universities have acknowledged the pivotal role that their participation in the slave trade and wealth creation based on slavery have played in the persistence and success of their institutions. Religious organizations have apologized for the roles they played in supporting and financially benefiting from slavery.

And as in any situation where those who have decided to free themselves, physically, financially, mentally, or any other way, there are those in the United States of America who are determined to negate the acknowledgment of our collective history and the enduring harms it has wrought on Black Americans. No one has ever said it better than Frederick Douglass, who wrote in 1857 “Power concedes nothing without demand. It never has and it never will.”³

Subject Matter Expert Areas of Study

What follows is a comprehensive collection of research, a diverse team of historians, researchers, and scholars come together to present an in-depth exploration of the complex history and present situation of racial disparities in High Point, North Carolina. The collective examination tackles an array of themes and time periods, exploring the rich tapestry of African American history, the longstanding racial disparity within the school system, urban renewal and redevelopment efforts, and the contemporary outcomes of these historical injustices. Each study offers a different lens through which to understand the issues of racial inequality, institutional bias, and social injustice that have deeply influenced the African American community in High Point. Together, these studies provide a multilayered analysis that not only dissects the roots of

² Jones, Janelle. (2017). “The racial wealth gap: How African-Americans have been shortchanged out of the materials to build wealth.” Economic Policy Institute. <https://epi.org/121978>

³ BlackPast, B. (2007). “(1857) Frederick Douglass, “If There Is No Struggle, There Is No Progress”. BlackPast.org. <https://www.blackpast.org/african-american-history/1857-frederick-douglass-if-there-no-struggle-there-no-progress/>

racial disparities but also highlights the resilience, courage, and persistent pursuit of equality by African Americans throughout history. This comprehensive exploration aims to contribute valuable insights and knowledge toward ongoing efforts to address and rectify these systemic issues.

Dr. Omar H. Ali, Dean of Lloyd International Honors College and Professor of Global African Diaspora History at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro provides a detailed historical account of African American experiences and contributions in High Point, North Carolina, from the time of slavery to the late 20th century. Dr. Ali documents the conditions of enslavement and discuss how African Americans sought liberation through numerous means including running away and revolts, such as Nat Turner's revolt in 1831. The narrative also outlines the rising abolitionist movement, the Civil War, the resulting end of slavery, and the rise of the inequitable systems to continue the repression of Black Americans. It discusses the Reconstruction era, the Black Populist movement, the Jim Crow era, and the Civil Rights movements of the mid-20th century. The text concludes by emphasizing the significant role of African Americans in High Point's socioeconomic development, despite systemic injustice and violence, and calls for policies to redress these historical wrongs.

In the next Subject Matter Expert study, Dr. Paul Ringle, Professor of History at High Point University, examines the long-standing racial disparity and structural bias in the High Point school system, focusing on differential teacher salaries, school building appraisals, upkeep, and resource allocation. Despite being chronically short of funds, the school system disproportionately allocated resources to white schools and populations. Black educators received only 50-70% of their white counterparts' salaries, and Black school buildings were appraised far below the value of white school buildings. Even when adjusting for the city's racial population split, the school board disproportionately spent on building and maintaining white schools. Within the schools, the board favored the white schools for resources such as musical instruments and improved facilities, often requiring Black communities to raise funds before matching them. Despite multiple efforts to push for equality and integration, the High Point Board showed consistent resistance and reluctance. The study concludes with the end of the integration process in 1972, highlighting the pervasive racial inequality in the High Point school system that outlasted official desegregation.

The following section is on Urban Renewal and Redevelopment in High Point and is authored by Dr. Virginia L. Summey. Dr. Summey is a historian of the U.S. South and Faculty Fellow in Lloyd International Honors College at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Her research and areas of expertise include North Carolina history, political and legal history, African American history, and Women's history. In her section, Dr. Summey reflects a historical overview of the City of High Point's efforts to address urban decay, primarily focusing on the Urban Renewal projects of the early 1960s and the Federal Model Cities Program (1968-1974) as well as the

revitalization attempts on Washington Street. The Model Cities Program, part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty, sought to enhance relations between communities and municipal governments, targeting the issues of poor housing, health, limited educational opportunities, inadequate social services, and underemployment. Despite some individual success stories, the program failed to achieve a significant impact on the key issues of housing and employment, and could not fully integrate into the city's governmental structure. Her accounts underscore the persistence of challenges to address housing issues and highlights the importance of understanding history to provide context and insights for addressing current socio-economic issues.

Next, Dr. Stephen J. Sills, Senior Vice President of the Research, Policy, & Impact Center examines disparate outcomes for Black residents today. He provides a comprehensive overview of the racial and ethnic disparities in High Point, as documented by a series of studies conducted from 2015 to 2023. The studies emphasized the multifaceted nature of these disparities, rooting from historical racialized planning and zoning, community disinvestment, and informal redlining, which have led to environmental hazards and limited access to quality healthcare, education, and economic opportunities for marginalized communities. Studies like the "Market Segmentation Study" and the "Assessment of Social Health Drivers for High Point" highlight distinct neighborhood-based disparities and social determinants of health. Mental health disparities were also explored in the "Behavioral Health Study". The "Resilience High Point Needs Assessment" identified economic, educational, health, housing, and social challenges, suggesting targeted interventions for resilience-building. Water contamination in minority-dominated neighborhoods was revealed in the "Residential Drinking Water Quality Study". The "HealthySteps Needs Assessment" revealed heightened social vulnerability, with notable barriers to accessing social services. Finally, the "Guilford County Workforce Needs Assessment" showed systemic and structural issues disadvantaging marginalized groups in workforce development. Overall, these studies highlight the necessity for comprehensive and targeted interventions to address racial disparities in High Point that have been linked to the historical root causes of segregation.

Dusk to Dawn: *Black Labor, the Law, and the Struggle for Justice in North Carolina*

Dr. Omar H. Ali, Allyson Beatty, and Kaila Dollard

[We] had to work... I 'member it well.

Ms. Emma Blalock, b. 1849, North Carolina Slave Narratives, Federal Writers' Project, 1937, Vol.11, p.107



FIGURE 1 - ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE AMERICAN ANTI-SLAVERY ALMANAC, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, 1840

Redressing the centuries-long exploitation of Black labor for the extraction of wealth is at the heart of the One High Point Commission to Explore Community Reparations for the African American Citizens of High Point, North Carolina. It is also at the center of the nation's contradiction: a land of freedom based on slavery, specifically the enslavement and legal discrimination of Black people. Inscribed into the Carolina colony during the late 17th century,

and continuing over the next two and a half centuries through the codification of racial slavery (linking Blackness to enslavement in the law) followed by Jim Crow (the legal segregation and disfranchisement of African Americans), the origins of today's inequities in wealth must necessarily inform any meaningful discussion on reparations.

As the African American researcher and sociologist Karen Fields and her sister, the Columbia University historian Barbara Fields, explain in their seminal book *Racecraft: The Soul of Inequality in American Life*, "enslavement of Africans made possible the freedom of Europeans, and then cast a long shadow... Out of that process emerged an elaborate public language of 'race' and 'race-relations' that disguised class inequality and, by the same stroke, impoverished Americans' public language for addressing inequality" (p. 111). Acknowledging the social construction of race as a function of power, we use the terms 'Black' and 'White' with an understanding that although *racism* certainly exists, institutionally and otherwise, there are no biologically distinguishable *rac*es. There is only one race, the human race, with as much genetic variation within, as there is between Black and White populations (see Alan Goodman et al., *Race: Are We So Different?* published by the American Anthropological Association).

Beginning in the North American British colonial era and throughout the history of the United States, poor and working-class people have been pitted against each other, maintaining and sustaining a largely White ruling class. The case of Bacon's Rebellion in neighboring Virginia in 1676 is perhaps the best-known early example of this, where White men were armed in the wake of the failed multi-racial revolt against the colonial elite while it became illegal for Black people to carry arms. This maneuver of giving certain rights and privileges to the growing White poor male population—both indentured White servants and those who had served their contracts and were now free—over Black co-workers was part of the racial codification of slavery. Starting in 1640 and continuing into the next century, laws and regulations in the Chesapeake increasingly placed people of African descent into 'lifelong servitude.' The system was seamlessly carried into the Carolina colonies.

As history would reveal, no matter how poor or politically marginalized a White person might be, the notion of their racial superiority over others would do little, and does little, beyond keeping them poor and politically marginalized. The myth of racial distinctions, however, has enabled and served the White ruling class well: the exploitation and control of Black labor with support from poor and working-class White people based on notions of shared White racial superiority, keeps the White wealthy in power. Class inequality is disguised.

In light of this, a brief history of Black labor and the struggle for justice in North Carolina provides a useful context for better understanding the call for reparations. More specifically, redressing the historical injustices and institutionalized forms of discrimination that have significantly enriched some at the expense of others in the community currently encompassed by the city of High Point must be based in an unflinching review of our collective history.

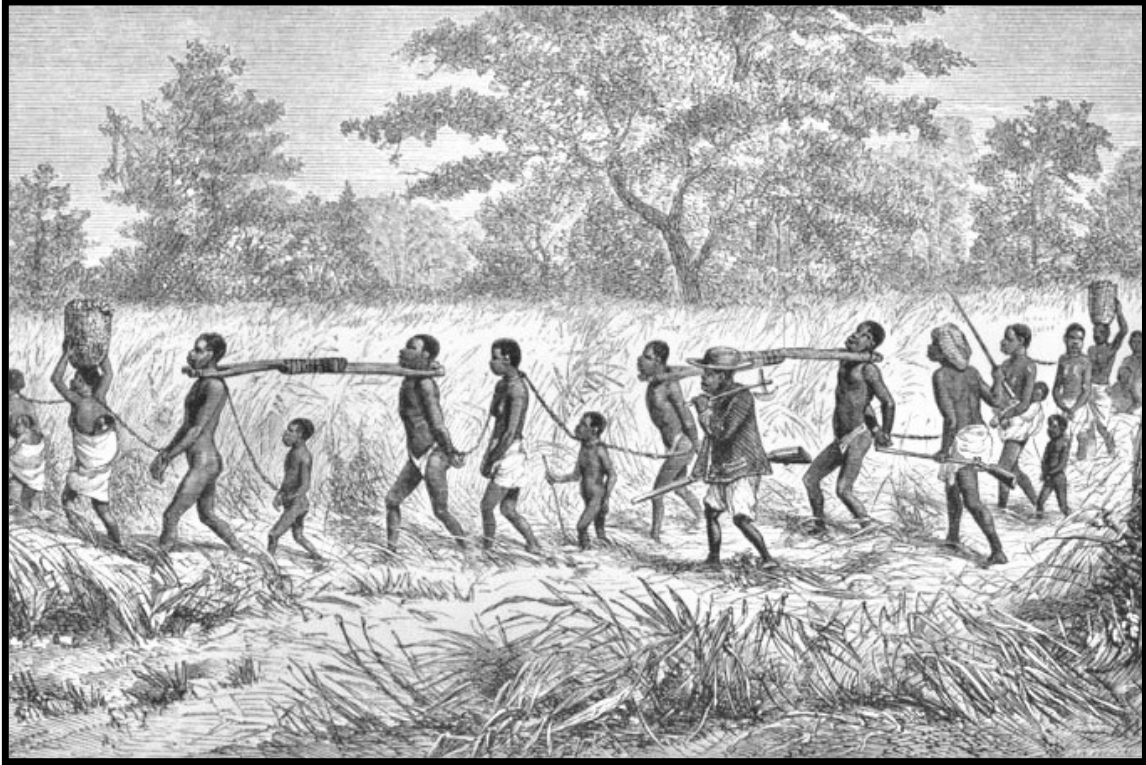


FIGURE 2 -LATE 18TH C. DRAWING OF BOUND CAPTIVES BEING MARCHED FROM AN INTERIOR AREA OF AFRICA TOWARDS EUROPEAN TRADING POSTS ON THE COAST, HARPER'S, 1865-1866, VOL. 32, P. 719



FIGURE 3 - SHACKLES, NORTH CAROLINA MUSEUM OF HISTORY, COURTESY OF AVERY RESEARCH CENTER FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN HISTORY AND CULTURE, COLLEGE OF CHARLESTON

Trade of Enslaved People In North Carolina

African Americans in High Point are part of a long and deep history of struggle against economic exploitation and political marginalization. Starting in the late 17th century and accelerating in pace and numbers in the following centuries, enslaved Africans—among them, Igbo, Yoruba, Fon, Ewe, Bijago, and Senegambians—arrived in coffles to Carolina via the Caribbean. The initial trade of enslaved people was limited due to the colony’s geography, with its coastline being particularly challenging and dangerous for ships to land. As a result, most slave ships chose to land in ports to the north or south of the colony. The one exception was the port of Wilmington because of its accessibility sitting at the mouth of the Cape Fear River. As a result, enslaved Africans were brought from Virginia or South Carolina.

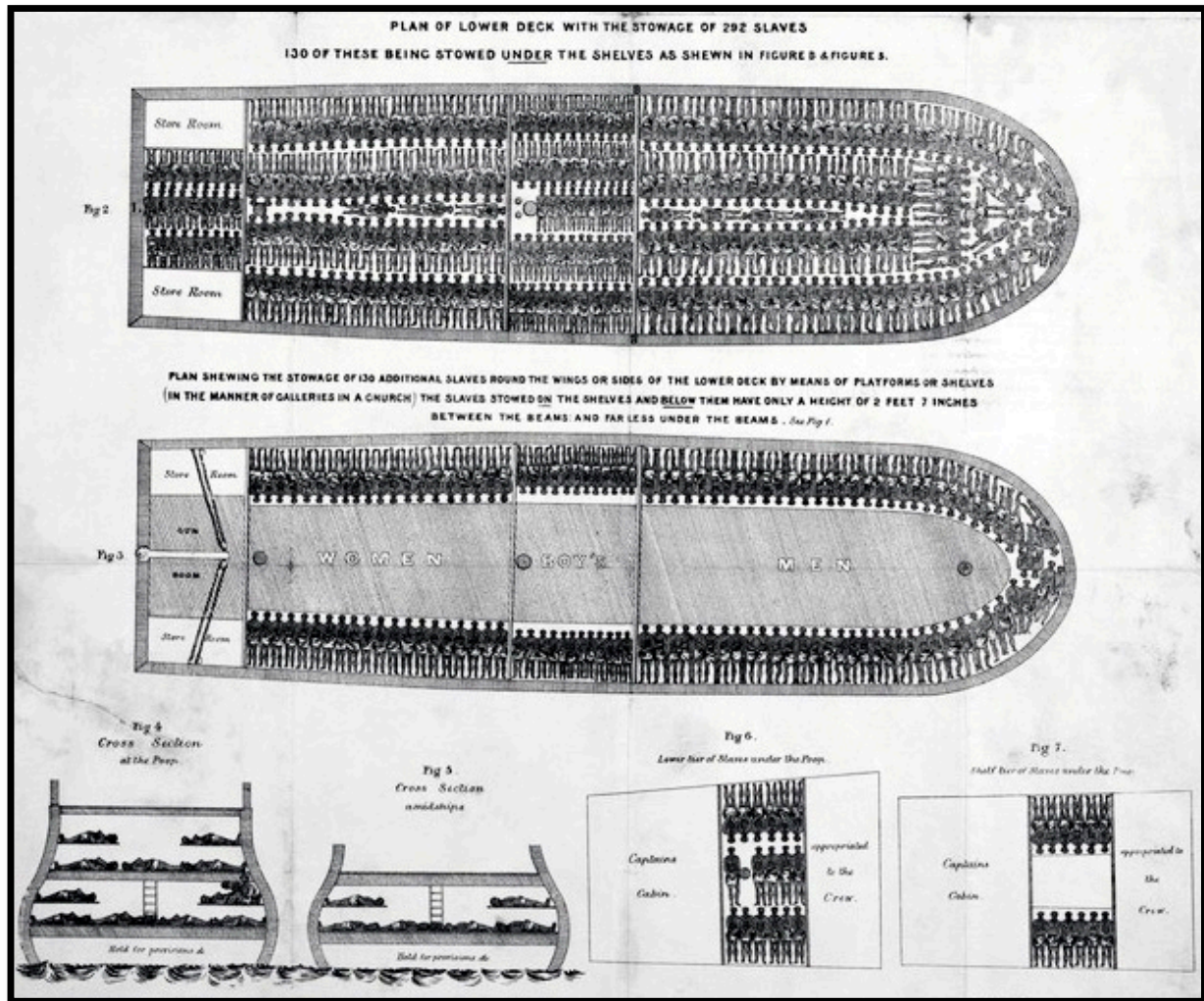


FIGURE 4 - BRITISH SLAVE SHIP BROOKES, 1788, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, PRINTS AND PHOTOGRAPHS DIVISION

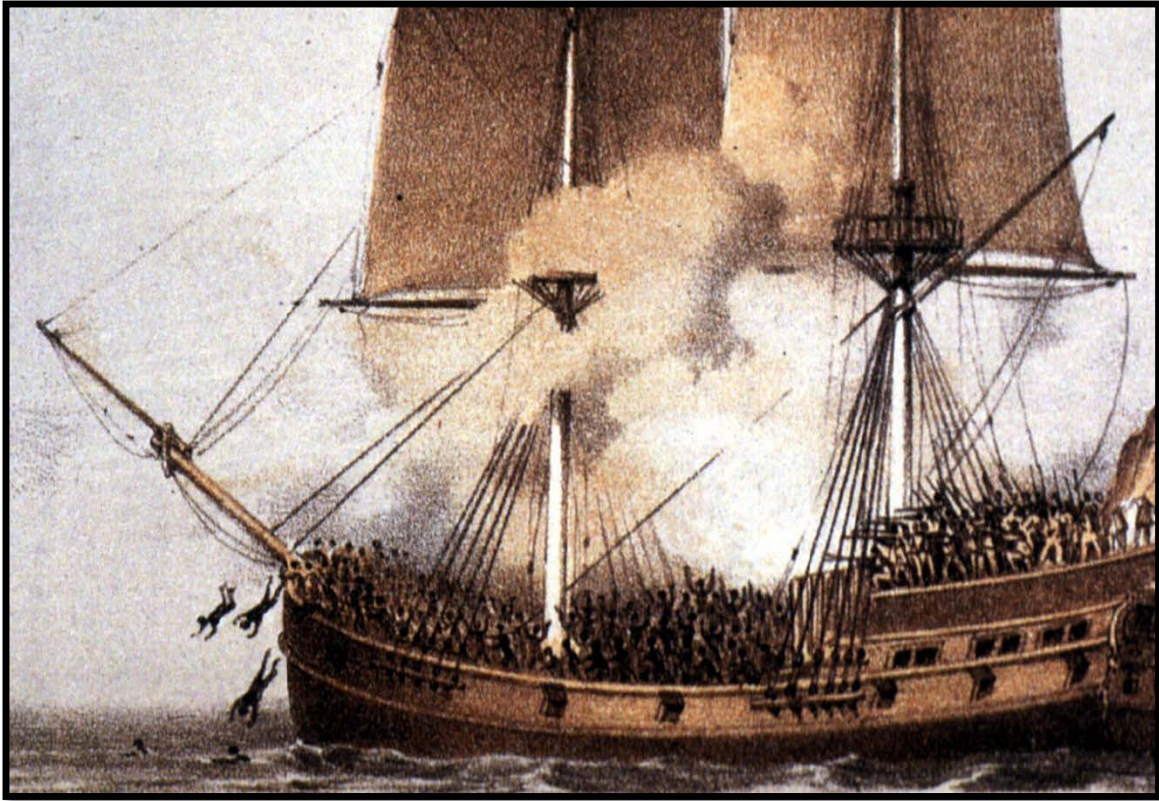


FIGURE 5 - ILLUSTRATION FROM CARL B. WADSTROM'S AN ESSAY ON COLONIZATION, LONDON, 1794, WIDENER LIBRARY, HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MA

Regardless of where the enslaved men and women came from, the accumulation of wealth on the backs of Africans and their descendants for the benefit of White Englishmen who asserted their rule over the land and its people was by design. In 1663, King Charles II gave eight Lords Proprietors a royal charter for Carolina specifically to use the labor of enslaved people to develop the colony: fifty acres of land for every enslaved person over fourteen years of age brought to Carolina. (The single Carolina colony was divided into two separate colonies in 1729, today's North and South Carolina.) Notably, the royal charter was issued despite the land it covered being inhabited and used by multiple Native American nations and peoples (Tuscarora on the coast, Catawba in the lower Piedmont, and Cherokee in the west) and the enslaved Africans being neither English criminals nor subjects, but captives of war or kidnapped from their own lands.

One can only begin to imagine the havoc, despair, destruction, and living nightmare of families and communities in West and West-Central Africa who lost kith and kin to the transatlantic slave trade; and the horrors experienced by those taken and subjected to the weeks-long journey of the Middle Passage, packed into the stench-filled hulls of slave ships traveling across the choppy Atlantic Ocean. Aboard the dreaded ships, a combination of sweat, vomit, blood, and feces swished across the floorboards to which the enslaved captives—men, women, and children, each with their own stories, their own dreams—were tightly fastened or frustratingly chained. Sharks

quickly learned to follow the slave ships to consume bodies thrown overboard, bodies that had succumbed to the abominable onboard conditions, or accidentally killed by crewmen, who were, in turn, punished for losing costly 'cargo' financed by private banks and merchants.

The historian Markus Rediker documents some of this in *The Slave Ship: A Human History*, as he does the resistance of enslaved Africans aboard the factory-like ships who tried to overcome the *barricado*, the reinforced wooden barriers built midship behind which pressed and impressed young crewmen, no doubt themselves terrified or numb from the violence they inflicted upon the African men, women, and children, retreated in the event of slave uprisings. From their elevated position, the crew could fire weapons, including small cannon, down at the rebels below who had conspired and somehow managed to free themselves from their shackles. To be sure, resistance to slavery began at the first point of contact in the transatlantic system, as the Igbo Olaudah Equiano, who was enslaved but later became a member of the British abolitionist group the Sons of Africa, recounted in his widely-distributed autobiography, *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano*, first published in 1789.

Among the first English colonists to invest in Carolina were planters and other wealthy businessmen from Barbados. Through financial influence and political pressures, these wealthy European men persuaded the Lords Proprietors to institute the headright system under which English settlers received fifty acres for each "Negro-Man or Slave" and "Woman-Negro or Slave" brought to the province. Over the next two and a half centuries, these men and their White descendants profited off of the work of Black people—including the talents, skills, and creativity of these Africans and their descendants.

From the knowledge Senegambians brought with them regarding the cultivation of rice in the Carolinas during the colonial era to the discovery of a method of curing bright-leaf tobacco by an enslaved African American named Stephen Slade in Caswell County, Black people helped to create much of the wealth that made the colonies and then nation prosper. As scholars are beginning to better understand, the history of science, medicine, and technology is inextricably tied to indigenous African and Native American knowledge and practices that were later used by and credited to others. Most recently, the historian of science James Poskett provides examples of this across areas of the global African Diaspora in his book *Horizons: The Global Origins of Modern Science*.



FIGURE 6 - LUISA, ENSLAVED NANNY, MISSOURI HISTORICAL SOCIETY, 19TH C.



FIGURE 7 - NORTH CAROLINA SHARECROPPER, COURTESY OF THE NORTH CAROLINA MUSEUM OF HISTORY



FIGURE 8 - TOBACCO PICKING, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Wealth from Exploitation of Africans and African Americans

Beyond specific inventions, practices, and techniques refined by Africans and African Americans that advanced efficiencies, most of the accumulated wealth and daily services directly or indirectly reaped by the City of High Point, the state, and the nation, came either through financial gains in the form of products made by Black people and sold, or through taxes on such products and sales. African Americans worked in the tobacco and cotton fields and processing centers, in the timber and mining industries, in the construction of roads and buildings, and their work as domestic servants, nannies, cooks, and cleaners, or used or rented out as carpenters, tanners, butchers, and masons, among other forced or under-compensated work, created the wealth that made the city, state, and nation run. Notably, and with few restrictions, super-exploited Black labor was backed by the law, be it common law prior to Independence or constitutional law and local ordinances and codes, thereafter. While cases of redress were heard in court, few free Black petitioners and their White allies succeeded in pursuing legal avenues, as the laws were largely created to protect property owners and the ruling class.



FIGURE 9 - WHITE OAK COTTON MILLS IN GREENSBORO, NORTH CAROLINA, CIRCA 1910



FIGURE 10 - "JUVENILE CONVICTS AT WORK IN THE FIELDS," DETROIT PHOTOGRAPHIC CO., 1903



FIGURE 11 - BLACK FAMILY PICKING COTTON, NINETEENTH CENTURY

Compound interest, working to the benefit of financiers, planters, and merchants, worked in the negative when it came to non-property owners and the enslaved, creating intractable forms of poverty—the cast of a long shadow. In turn, generation upon generation of legalized political and economic marginalization of African Americans in North Carolina have resulted in poorer nutrition and health, higher infant mortality rates, and lower life expectancies among Black people, including members of the High Point community, in comparison to wealthier, White communities. That is, African Americans created significant wealth for others at their own physical and financial expense. The relative benefits and harm would compound over generations, making the inequities between High Point’s Black and White populations extensive (see the demographic and housing report by Stephen J. Sills for the One High Point Commission).

The Prison Industrial Complex

An additional driver of poverty in Black communities was the emergence of the prison industrial complex, the overlapping interests of government and industry that use surveillance, policing, and imprisonment to control Black communities. The punitive system continues to drive disproportionate African American incarceration relative to other populations. Starting off as forms of posse comitatus, slave patrols, then police guarded against possible Black rebellion. The convict-lease system, where prisoners were rented out for labor, extended forced labor into the late 19th century and into the 20th. In North Carolina, convict leasing was not explicitly prohibited until 1933. In these ways, the police and prisons became powerful extensions of the law—a public-private partnership—in controlling Black communities, and further extracting the labor of African Americans. Within this context of layered institutional forms of discrimination (racism towards African Americans), the concentrated success of High Point’s historic Washington Street, with its churches and independent Black businesses, including a theatre, hotels, a pharmacy, law office, and dental and medical services, may be even more fully appreciated in the face of the multiple constraints and burdens placed upon African Americans historically.

As the late African American historian John Hope Franklin detailed in his classic study, *The Free Negro in North Carolina, 1790-1860*, despite the enslavement of the vast majority of Black people in the state, prior to the abolition of slavery in 1865 with the 13th Amendment, there was always a small free Black population. And among these free Black women, men, and children, were those who resisted the institution of slavery alongside enslaved African Americans, whose self-liberatory actions have been documented since the colonial period. Most notable were the slave revolts of the 18th and 19th centuries and runaway communities that formed near plantations, to be able to visit loved ones, or deep in the forests or swamps—from New Garden woods in Guilford County to the Great Dismal Swamp in northeastern North Carolina.



TEN DOLLARS REWARD—Ran away from the subscriber on Saturday, the 28th ult., the griffe girl **MARIA**, aged about 45 years, formerly a cake marchand. She is about 5 feet 2 or 3 inches high. The above reward will be paid to any one who will return her to the subscriber.

ap7—6t*

Mrs. A. DOVAL,
corner of Carondelet and Calliope sts.



ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS REWARD—Ran away from the subscriber on the 5th instant, **ANDREW READ**, a boy about 23 years of age, 5 feet 4 or 5 inches high, well set, yellow complexion, long black hair, slightly curled and worn usually tucked under on the back part of the head; large black eyes; reads and writes and is a very good accountant. In his general appearance he is rather genteel, generally dresses well, and is pleasing in his address. I will give one hundred dollars for the apprehension and delivery of said boy, or for his confinement in any jail so that I can get him. As he can provide himself with a pass, he will most likely attempt to secure passage upon a steamboat. Captains will please be on the lookout.

ap6—1f 1/2

ALLEN JONES, 17 Royal st.



FIFTY DOLLARS REWARD—Will be paid by the subscriber for the arrest and delivery to him of the negro man **JOHNSON**, very black, about 6 feet 6 inches high, thirty years old; has generally whiskers. He is a shoemaker and saddler by trade, and no doubt he will try to obtain employment as such. I purchased him on the 28th October last, from Bernard Kendig, and he ran away on the 25th November following. I believe he is in the city.

ap1—12t

J. P. FRERET.

FIGURE 12 - RUNAWAY SLAVE ADVERTISEMENTS, 1857

As part of surviving or attempting to escape the brutality of enslavement, African Americans pooled their resources, created and maintained cultural traditions, and supported each other—kith and kin alike—as best possible. (The term ‘fictive kin’ is sometimes used by scholars to more accurately describe people who are not biological relatives, but from the vantage point of the

people being described, there is nothing fictive about such relations—they are family.) As Guilford County resident and community builder Ms. Linda Dunston Stacey notes, “as much as there has been political struggle in our history, it was love and care for each other that sustained us all” (personal communication, June 23, 2023).

The brutality of slavery, from sexual assault, especially of girls and women, and other attacks and forms of torture, to the threat of violence, either to oneself or a loved one, compelled many of the enslaved to either hide or run away—and far away. The historian Sylviane Diouf’s book *Slavery’s Exiles: The Story of the American Maroons*, in combination with that of Fergus Bordewich’s *Bound for Canaan: The Underground Railroad and the Soul of America*, with a chapter dedicated to New Garden, offer vivid accounts of the history of runaways and the ways in which they stayed hidden.

‘Maroon,’ the word for runaway or fugitive slave, comes from the Spanish word *cimarron*, which was then Anglicized. *Cimarron* was the word used by Iberian colonists to describe both runaway cattle and enslaved people, since, in the law enslaved people were also property. Of the approximately 11 million Africans enslaved and taken to the Americas, the vast majority first went to parts of Latin America and the Caribbean, accounting for today’s large Afro-Latin American populations across the western hemisphere; less than five percent of enslaved Africans between 1502 and 1860 (the last slave ship, *Clotilda*, arrived at Mobile Bay, Georgia, on July 9, 1860) went directly from the continent to the North American British colonies or the United States—due to the ocean currents and winds making a direct northern route from Africa to the eastern seaboard of the United States longer and more difficult. This explains why most enslaved people arriving in North Carolina came from the Caribbean.

Contemporary eyewitness accounts provide harrowing stories of Africans and African Americans seeking freedom through self-liberation: running away. Levi Coffin, the Guilford County Quaker conductor of the Underground Railroad does so in partnership with an African American man named Saul. Little is known beyond Saul’s role as a facilitator in communicating with prospective runaways, but we know that he eventually escaped north. Coffin offers the following account in his autobiography, *Reminiscences*, about his experience meeting African and African American runaways:

“Runaway slaves used frequently to conceal themselves in the woods and thickets in the vicinity of New Garden, waiting [for] opportunities to make their escape to the North... I sat in the thickets with them [and] listened to the stories they told of hard masters and cruel treatment, or spoke in language, simple... yet glowing with native eloquence, of the glorious hope of freedom which animated their spirits in the darkest hours, and sustained them under the sting of the lash.” (p. 20)

Resistance and Revolt

By 1800, 133,296 Black people, or one out of four North Carolinians, were enslaved. Many lived under the sting of the lash, or the threat of such violence to themselves or loved ones. Resistance and revolt were natural responses to enslavement—desperate acts of courage in the face of cruelty and what would eventually be deemed as crimes against humanity. One out of ten slave ships experienced slave revolts. Resistance took a range of forms, starting at the first point of contact with slave raiders in Africa; it continued at the holding forts dotting the west coast of Africa (notoriously, El Mina, among other sites); revolts took place aboard slave ships, and when they disembarked; enslaved people ran away, but also engaged in work slowdowns, destroyed property, and in some cases, took up arms. Most famously, Nat Turner’s 1831 revolt in neighboring Virginia had the effect in the wake of its defeat of creating ever-more restrictive laws in North Carolina. For the rebellion itself, eleven suspected organizers were hanged. Throughout the era of slavery, and its systematic violence, and continuing through the era of Jim Crow, Black people were active agents of resistance, change, and survival even as they created the wealth of the city, the state, and the nation.

With the rise of the Abolitionist movement in the North, making the abolition of slavery a public issue for debate, and the rising number of enslaved Black people working in North Carolina, many African Americans fled and joined the ranks of the Union Army with the outbreak of the Civil War. And while the war led to the ending of slavery in 1865 with the 13th Amendment, African Americans were subjected to the highly inequitable system of sharecropping and became increasingly in debt. Black communities pooled their resources to create organizations of their own: churches, schools, associations, and other cooperative ventures.

African Americans mobilized to support Reconstruction—the Republican-led federally-directed rebuilding of the physical and political infrastructure in the South, starting in 1863 (initially in Union-occupied areas and then across the region). However, by the late 1870s, in the midst of an economic downturn and pressure from the Redeemers—the Southern wing of the Democratic Party, which sought to regain their power and enforce White supremacy—would help ensure the

Resisting Enslavement

Fighting slave raiders

Jumping overboard slave ships

Revolting aboard slave ships

Running away

Suicide and Infanticide

Purposefully moving slowly

Coordinated work

slowdowns

Poisoning Food

end of Reconstruction. The old plantation class returned to power in a new form, some turning to industry.

In the years following the collapse of Reconstruction, a new movement of Black farmers, sharecroppers, and agrarian workers arose in the South, arriving in North Carolina in approximately 1886. Black Populist leader, the Rev. Walter A. Pattillo, led the formation of the Colored Farmers Alliance and then advocated for the creation of a third party, the People's Party. That party worked in coalition with the Republican Party in the state, running shared candidates and receiving a majority of votes to usher in a Populist-Republican 'fusion' government in the early 1890s. However, by 1898 the White-supremacist Democratic Party (whose logo even used the words "White Supremacy" to make it perfectly clear what they stood for) would no longer tolerate the Black and White movement and moved to overthrow the democratically elected government. Continuing the violence inflicted on African Americans and their allies starting in the late 1880s in the form of public lynching in response to the growing movement, the Democrats with their paramilitary adjunct organizations, the Red Shirts, overthrew the government of Wilmington in 1898, where a prominent Black middle-class community had formed.



FIGURE 13 - BLACK POPULIST LEADERS, REV. WALTER A. PATTILLO, TOP ROW SECOND FROM LEFT, 1890-1900



FIGURE 14 - SEGREGATED BROADHURST THEATER, HIGH POINT, NORTH CAROLINA, CIRCA 1951



FIGURE 15 - WILLIAM PENN H.S. BAND, CHRISTMAS DAY PARADE MAIN STREET, HIGH POINT, NC CIRCA 1949

The Twentieth Century

The first several decades of the 20th century saw the legal disfranchisement and segregation of African Americans. The divide and conquer strategy of Jim Crow to ensure that poor and working-class people from across the color line who shared economic interests were driven apart—the ongoing strategy of the ruling class—worked with great effect. While the movement of Black farmers and other workers was temporarily crushed in North Carolina, a new movement arose with the sharecropper’s union and tenant farmer organizations in the decades thereafter. Meanwhile, in the North, the New Negro movement, the Black Nationalism of Marcus Garvey’s Universal Negro Improvement Association (UNIA), and the work of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), gained traction.

Ultimately, it would take a new generation, that of the modern Civil Rights movement, to finally build sufficient political pressure to begin to dismantle Jim Crow and challenge the inequities faced by African Americans in terms of access to land, housing, jobs, healthcare, transportation, and education (see the reports of Paul Ringel and Virginia Summey for the One High Point Commission), and Black disfranchisement.

On February 11, 1960, ten days after the Woolworth’s lunch counter sit-ins began in Greensboro, North Carolina, young people in High Point launched their own sit-ins, which spread across the South. Older African American leaders, such as Ella Baker, lent their support to this younger generation of Black activists.

High Point’s civil rights activists continued their protests with other forms of boycotting and picketing, including of the segregated movie theaters downtown in 1963. Rev. B. Elton Cox would also call for a reinstatement of a Human Relations Committee which could work with local business owners and civil rights leaders to advance integration. An earlier committee had been formed but only lasted briefly. Rev. Cox, among others, saw the reinstatement of such a committee as a way of bridging divides and creating more allies in the city. However, frustrated with slow progress on this front, he placed additional pressure on the city by stating “Unless we get our civil rights here in High Point, we will take 1,000 Whites and Blacks down to the furniture building and lay down in the street” (noted in the High Point Museum’s section entitled “The Civil Rights Movement at its Peak”). Threatened by the prospects of negative publicity regarding the nationally-attended Furniture Market with the potential civil rights protest, the city’s business leaders negotiated with city officials to allow a permanent human relations commission to encourage further integration.



FIGURE 16 - STUDENT SIT-IN PROTEST AT THE HIGH POINT WOOLWORTH'S LUNCH COUNTER. THE HIGH POINT ENTERPRISE NEGATIVE COLLECTION, FEBRUARY 11, 1960



FIGURE 17 - STUDENTS FROM WILLIAM PENN H.S. PROTESTING FOR CIVIL RIGHTS IN 1966

Under mounting local and national political pressure from the Civil Rights movement, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act in 1964 and the Voting Rights Act in 1965, ensuring equal protection of the law under the 14th Amendment of the U.S. Constitution, with federal enforcement of voting rights.

A Black Power movement nevertheless arose in the years after the Civil and Voting Rights Acts, asserting the importance of the redistribution of wealth, in what was criticized as liberal dressing to deep structural inequities. Under the leadership of African Americans, including Eddie McCoy and Ben Chavis, and building on the Black independence and call for justice and both political and economic power for African Americans, the Black Panther Party came to symbolize the new movement. Calls for reparations began to be articulated among this newest generation of Black activists steeped in the history of slavery and having themselves lived under Jim Crow.

Conclusions

From dawn to dusk, and deep into the night, the labor of Black people was fundamental in the creation of High Point's wealth, as with the State of North Carolina and the nation as a whole. African Americans in the city are an inextricable part of what is a long and disturbing history of injustice that began with the enslavement of dozens, then hundreds, thousands, and finally millions of people from various parts of West and West Central Africa kidnapped and forcibly taken across the world. Here on the other side of the Atlantic, Black people worked on the plantations and in the mines, factories, and homes of people and institutions that were never their own. From the colonial era through much of the 20th century, those who were enslaved or faced daily discrimination under Jim Crow resisted their exploitation and dehumanization for years, decades, indeed, entire lifetimes.

The political actions of African Americans, with allies alongside them, have changed the course of history. Such actions have brought about laws that have created opportunities for social, political, and economic advancement for some African Americans. However, policies to ensure full citizenship and redress the economic injustices of slavery and its legacy of Jim Crow community-wide have yet to be implemented. Together as a city, and grounded in our collective histories, we move with high hopes and great possibilities toward the light of dawn.

In Appendices A & B you will find excerpts from contemporary interviews of long-term African American residents of High Point and a detailed timeline of African American political, economic, and legal history in High Point, Guilford County, and the State of North Carolina.

A History of Disparate Treatment in Education

Dr. Paul Ringle

Summary of Findings

High Point was a school system that was chronically short of money. Nonetheless, the evidence is clear that the monies that it did possess went disproportionately to the White, rather than the Black, populations of the city. The two clearest places to see this disparity are in the numbers for teacher salaries and for appraisals of the values of the school buildings. Though the salary numbers bounce around quite a lot, and these numbers only include the proportion of the salaries paid by the cities (state and county also contributed to those salaries), our estimate is that Black teachers and principals generally earned between 50% and 70% of their White peers, with the disparity increasing as they moved up the seniority and professional ladder. White principals often received three to four times more than their Black peers.

The periodic appraisals of the city's school buildings showed that the White high school and junior high school were always the most valuable properties. William Penn was third, with the Black elementary schools (Fairview and Leonard Street) always in the bottom three. Most of the time, those schools were appraised at about half the value of their White counterparts and about 10% of the value of the White high school.

Differences in building expenditures were harder to determine. Presumably because of the financial shortfalls, the Board nearly always took the lowest bids on any construction projects. The Board clearly spent more on building White schools, but whether that disparity was equivalent to the consistent 70-30 racial split in the population is unclear. What is extremely clear is that the Board spent MUCH less on the upkeep of Black schools than it did on White schools. That evidence emerges not only in expenditures on repairs, where 90% or more of the funds regularly went to White schools but also in the disparities of facilities and resources. The city built its first public school for White students in 1897, and its first for Black students in 1915. It built its first junior high school for White students in 1932 and had two for the White population before it opened one for Black students in 1959. The Black schools did not have cafeterias until much later than the White schools, and Leonard Street still did not have indoor bathrooms for its students in 1969.

Resources within the buildings were also notably disparate. The Board purchased pianos, instruments, and band uniforms for the White schools but often required Black communities to raise half the money themselves before they would contribute to such materials for their populations. When Fairview needed improvements to its sanitary system in 1921 the Board said there was no money, but they made similar improvements to the White Elm Street School the

same year. When Fairview needed a fence around its property in 1927, the Board paid for half of it; they built a fence around Emma Blair the same year. It took Mr. Burford, Principal of William Penn, more than three decades longer to get a secretary than the principal of the White high school, and even then, that assistance came in the form of a part-time teacher who helped the principal during study hall.

The White high school got financial support from the Board for a student newspaper and radio station, but William Penn did not. There are no mentions in the notes about yearbooks, but when you go to the High Point Public Library you can search through decades of yearbooks for High Point High School; they have three for William Penn. High Point High School had business courses in its curriculum and in the 1950s received a modernized Home Economics Department—William Penn had neither despite the requests of teachers and parents for such equality.

In the William Penn interviews, alumni regularly comment that they had textbooks that were hand-me-downs from the White schools. We could not confirm that disparity in the school board's notes, though Michael Pierce makes the same claim in his generally celebratory history of the High Point school system (109). What is clear from the minutes is that the Board consistently spent less money on instructional materials for Black students than their proportion of the population, though those numbers were inconsistent and trended closer to equity in the later years of desegregation.

What seems most damning, though least quantifiable, in these records is the way that the High Point Board consistently dragged its feet in providing integration or other forms of equitable educational opportunities for Black students. The public school system began in 1897 in part through funding provided by poll taxes that kept Black citizens from voting. The financial numbers across the spectrum verify that “separate but equal” was a charade in High Point. When the *Brown* decision happened in 1954, the Board adopted the passive resistance policy that was common in North Carolina (as explained in William Chafe’s book *Civilities and Civil Rights*). There was no massive backlash in High Point, but the Board slowed down the process even more than its counterparts in Greensboro. For example, at the first Board meeting after the *Brown* decision, the Greensboro Board pledged to abide by all court rulings, but the High Point Board simply noted the decision and stated that it currently had no role in the process until the state told it what to do.

The first Black students attended White schools in High Point during the 1959-60 school year; those were the two Fountain sisters, one of whom attended Ferndale Junior High and the other High Point High School. A much larger group of Black families applied for reassignment, but the Board chose the Fountain sister because they had previously attended integrated schools in New York. For the next several years, the Board allowed a trickle of Black students to integrate but made the process of requesting reassignment extremely complicated and completely reliant on

the Superintendent and the Board's discretion (they interviewed candidates to determine who they thought would be appropriate choices).

When a group of Black families brought a lawsuit in federal court in 1963 to compel integration in High Point (*Gilmore et al v. High Point City Board of Education*), the Board opened up the reassignment option to make it easier for students to switch schools and turned to a geographic plan that maintained segregation through what they proclaimed "de facto segregation" of the city's neighborhoods (Richard Rothstein's recent book *The Color of Law* argues that such residential segregation was itself part of a systemic effort. The court case continued for almost a decade, as the families returned to Court each time the Board dragged its feet—after the passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1964, after the closing of William Penn in 1968, and again in 1970 and 1973). Each time the judge forced the Board to go further than they had gone willingly, and each time the Board did so reluctantly and with complaint. Black communities and some White allies also pushed the Board to go further, as when they compelled them to hire longtime William Penn principal Samuel Burford as the principal at the new Andrews High School over Superintendent Dean Pruette's objections.

This process continued until 1972, when three factors essentially ended the era of integration in High Point. First, the Gilmore court declined to push the Board to integrate any further, a decision that we read as more indicative of the times (by the early 1970s federal intervention in desegregation processes was declining nationally) than of the success of the Board's integration plans. Second, Superintendent Pruette, who emerges in these minutes as perhaps the primary opponent of integration in the city from the 1950s through the 1970s, successfully hired a White principal for Fairview School over the Board's objections and closed Leonard Street over the community's objections. Third, Dr. Perry Little, a longtime civil rights leader in the community and the most vociferous advocate for Black children on the School Board, resigned in December 1972.

Historical Evidence

The information below is drawn from records of the High Point City Schools, housed in 1897.

Establishment of High Point City Schools 1897-1920

The public school system in High Point began in 1897. At the time, the population of the city was 30% African American, but the School Board did not provide schools for any of its Black children. Private funders had supported the education of Black students in High Point since the 1860s; at the time the city's school system was established, the New York Friends Meeting had been funding High Point Normal and Industrial School (HPNI) for Black students for six years (this school was later renamed William Penn to honor its Quaker heritage after the city took it over in 1923).

The approval of a school bond in March 1897 gave the city \$10,000 to spend on the city's public schools; ironically, at least some of that money came from the poll taxes that prevented many Black citizens from voting in this and other elections. The city spent \$6,500 of that money on the Cox estate (J. Elwood Cox was chair of the school board at the time) that became the whites-only South Main Street School, the first taxpayer-supported school in the city. The city did pay the salaries of the teachers at HPNI. Principal A.J. Griffin received a salary of \$50 per month, the same as Principal William Cobb Lane at South Main. Teachers at South Main earned salaries of \$30, except for the 1st-grade teacher who earned \$25. The 6th-grade teacher at HPNI earned \$30, the 5th-grade teacher earned \$25, and the 1st-4th grade teachers earned \$20. However, in the Superintendent's report for the 1898-99 school year he repeatedly celebrates the progress made in the city's "school," an indication that he did not consider HPNI part of the city's education system.

For the next twenty years, records are sparse, in part because the Board of Education was dissolved for part of this time and schools were placed under the control of the City Council. The South High Point Colored School is listed in May 1915 as owned by the city. By that time, the city had opened three additional schools for White students: Elm Street (1905), Park Street (1910), and 3rd Ward (1911). The 1915 records indicate that the New York Friends were subsidizing the salaries of the Black teachers; the three teachers at the school earned a total of \$70 per month, less than half of what the principal at South Main earned (\$150 per month, while South High Point principal Ossie Davis received only \$30). The Quakers paid \$37.50 of the Black teachers' salaries, leaving the city responsible for only \$32.50. The Black teachers earned \$12.50 per month, while the teachers at the four White schools received a range between \$45 and \$55. How much the city paid for the materials and upkeep at South High Point is unknown.

By 1919, when the school board records become regularly available, the racial disparities in salaries among employees of the system had emerged. The principal at South Main (the White school) received \$187.50/month and White teachers received salaries ranging from \$110 to \$70. At the Black school, South High Point (subsequently renamed Fairview), Principal Davis received \$75 per month (40% of his White counterpart) and teachers received \$60. Superintendent Marr's salary for the 1919-1920 year was \$2,100. Janitors at the White schools received \$70-75 per month.

In July 1919, the board appropriated \$3,700 "without any deduction" to HPNI—whether that means it had deducted payments previously (or even made payments previously) is unclear. It also used a donation from NY Friends to subsidize an expansion of the school's building. In doing so, it determined that the children attending Fairview would paint the school without compensation—there are no notes ever indicating that White students were used in a similar fashion.

Disparate Spending and Overcrowding of African American Schools

In January 1920, the Board listed the value of the equipment at each school building owned by the city. South Main Street topped the list at \$12,000. Elm Street was next at \$4,000. Fairview was last on the list at \$1,200 (10% of the value of South Main). In June 1920, the board indicated that it had spent \$46,126.50 on White teachers' salaries and \$6,610 (14%) on Black teachers. They spent \$738.92 on repairs at White schools and \$18.87 (2.5%) at Black schools, \$1,489.26 for furniture at White schools, and \$798.09 (54%) at Black schools.

In March 1920, Principal Davis and 200 African American citizens petitioned the board for better accommodations and facilities at their "very much overcrowded school." They asked for an auditorium with a seating capacity of at least 500, "sewerage, a heating plant," and a "domestic science room for the girls" and "manual training room for the boys." At the same meeting, Superintendent Marr read a letter submitted by Daniel Brooks on behalf of the Black population in northern High Point. The letter requested "more ample school facilities for the accommodation of our youth" because "the present facilities are inadequate for such training as is desired for the development of our people." The letter later states "Realizing we are part of the inhabitants of this great City...we respectfully petition your Honorable Board to erect us a building for our own people that will be in keeping with the times and the growth of our City."

The board took no action at this meeting but did note the next month its requirement to "equalize school facilities between the two races." Board Chair C.F. Tomlinson, in a letter to the mayor dated April 27th, 1920, stated that "this provision of the law, it seems, has not been complied with in the City of High Point." He also questioned whether the contract with the New York Friends to operate HPNI violated the 1897 Act that created the city's school system.

Perhaps in response to this concern, the Board began to articulate the amount of monies spent on the White and "colored" schools in the 1920-21 budget. In January 1921, in response to the appearance of "five colored people" in front of the Board "asking for consideration in the Educational program," the chair stated that a second school for "colored people" was the Board's "next important move after the Central High School proposition is disposed of."

For the 1920-21 school year, salaries of heads of departments ranged from \$3,200 to \$1,800. Neither Principal Griffin nor Principal Davis (the two Black principals) were listed in this group. Salaries for White teachers ranged from \$1,200 to \$850. "Colored teachers' maximum salary" was \$75/month, which totals \$675 (between 56% and 79% of White teachers) for a nine-month contract.

In March of 1921, the board indicated they had not yet begun the sanitary improvements on the sewage problem at Fairview because there was no money available. The same month, they indicated that sanitation improvements for Elm Street School were underway, with the girls' toilets renovation nearly completed.

In the fall of 1921, the city opened Leonard Street School, the second public school for Black children; there were five private schools in the city for Black children at the same time, an indication of a demand not being fulfilled by the city. S.S. Whitted was hired for \$1200 as principal of the school, while the Fairview principal's salary remained \$900 (not sure why, since both men were Black).

Throughout the 1920s, inequities in practice, as well as salaries, continued. For example, in 1922 the Board installed a "signal system" (perhaps a predecessor to intercoms) in the White schools but not the Black schools. When the White schools wanted pianos, the board paid for them; when Fairview wanted a piano, the money was raised through donations from children and their families (though later in the year the Board paid for a piano for Leonard Street). A September 1922 reception for teachers at the Sheraton Hotel was only open to White teachers.

In 1923, the New York Friends sold HPNI to the city, on the condition that the property always be used for the education of Black students; if not, the land would revert back to the Friends. The city decided to discontinue the boarding school after an inspection of the grounds and a determination that the renovations needed would make the project too expensive. The Black community sought to keep the boarding school open and endeavored to raise funds in support of this project, but the Board deemed the boarding program financially unsustainable.

When the Friends sold the school to the city, they donated the leftover equipment and house to Principal Griffin, in recognition of his long service to the school. The Board of Education complained about this donation and claimed that it kept the school from being accredited by the state director of Negro schools. In response, the lawyer for the New York Friends sent a letter with the following commentary:

"I have read your letter carefully and confess that I am inclined to smile at the complaint which is made, for as I remember the pianos, library equipment, etc., the whole business was so meager and worn out that a very few dollars would cover the value of the whole outfit. It seems to me that the Educational Department of High Point is trying to magnify a very small matter into an excuse for doing nothing...it was certainly the expectation of the Trustees of New York Yearly Meeting, when High Point accepted their offer of the ground and buildings, that High Point would equip them in a proper manner to carry on the work of the school and not rely on the old worn out stuff that was all New York Yearly meeting had to turn over."

In June 1923, the Board laid out the salaries for each teacher in the system. All 101 of the White teachers were listed first, with salaries ranging from \$3,300 for the high school principal to \$870. Only 10 earned below \$1,000, with most elementary school teachers earning between \$1,000 and \$1,500 and the majority of high school teachers earning \$1,500 to \$1,800. There were teachers at the Black schools, with salaries ranging from \$1,500 (Mr. Curtright, principal of HPNI)



FIGURE 18- WILLIAM PENN SCHOOL

to \$495. Only the three principals and Mr. Griffin, the former principal of HPNI and now the teacher of history and arithmetic, earned \$1,000 or more. In November 1924, the Board refused to reimburse Mr. Curtright \$150 in automobile expenses in connection with his duties as the Compulsory Attendance Officer for the Negro Schools.

For the 1924-25 school year, the Board did not lay out individual salaries. Instead, they listed the proportion of the salaries the city was paying (the rest being covered by the county) based on race, with the principal of the White high school receiving \$720 and the Black high school \$300 (42%). The six principals of the White elementary schools received \$2,550, for an average of \$425; the two principals at the Black schools received \$480, for an average of \$240 (56%). The 24 teachers at the White high school averaged \$304.67, the five teachers at the Black high school averaged \$189.40 (62%). The 93 White elementary school teachers averaged \$218.79; the 22 Black teachers averaged \$129.17 (59%).

In this budget, the Board also laid out library purchases for the year. The two newest schools, Ray Street (White) and Leonard Street (Black) received the largest budgets, but Ray received \$673.55, more than twice as much as Leonard's \$314.37. The rest of the schools received from \$220 (Elm St) to \$52.96 (Emma Blair). Fairview received \$84.24 and HPNI \$0.

In May 1925, the total salary for each principal appears in the Board minutes. They range from \$3,850 for the principal of the White high school to \$1,200 (31%) for Mr. Davis, the principal of Fairview. The three Black principals were the three lowest paid (from \$1,500 to \$1,200), while the Music Supervisor for the city received \$3,000 and the secretary to the Superintendent received \$1,800. In September of that year, the salary for the head of maintenance was listed at \$1,800.

In May of 1926, the principals' salaries are listed again. The White principals received raises ranging from \$100 to \$150. The Black principals received \$50, with Mr. Curtright receiving no raise but an extra \$250 for his work as a truant officer for the Black schools.

In October 1926, the Board hired Mrs. Geddie Strickland as the physical education teacher for both the White and Black elementary schools.

In April 1927, the Board received a proposition that it turn over Congdon Hall, one of the unused dormitories at the school now called William Penn (the name was changed from HPNI at some point during the mid-1920s) as a "Negro hospital" because there was no such facility in the city. The board rejected this idea in June 1927.

In December 1927, the Board budgeted \$750 for equipment for Domestic Science and Home Economics at the "negro high school." At the same time, it budgeted \$1,000 for four pianos for

White schools and another \$1,000 for instruments for the White high school's band and orchestra, with receipts from musical events during the year used to offset these costs.

In March 1928, when Fairview needed a fence around its grounds, the Board agreed to pay for half of it. The same month, it agreed to build a fence for the White Emma Blair school without any similar constraints.

In May 1928, principals' salaries were listed again. The principal at the White high school now received \$4,740. Mr. Curtright was still at \$1,500 (32%). The principal of the new White junior high school received \$2,700. There was no junior high school for Black students. The principals at Leonard Street and Fairview each received \$1,350; the lowest salary for a principal at a White elementary school was \$1,900. White teachers received an average of \$1,325 that year; Black teachers received an average of \$859 (65%).

In July 1928, the Board agreed to finance an expansion that would add three classrooms to Leonard Street School. By June 1929, no progress had been made on this addition. A year earlier, the city had opened a new building for Central High School at a cost of \$500,000 plus architect's fees.

In September 1928, the Board gave the superintendent authorization to provide financial support for a student newspaper at the White high school. No such authorization was offered for William Penn.

In September 1930, William Penn received a bequest of \$1,000. After removing \$150 for attorney's fees, the Board determined to use the money for the purchase of equipment and books for the school's library.

In January 1931, the Board listed the statement of its building fund, with \$104,629 going to the new Fourth Ward school, \$61,979 (59%) to "Negro High," and \$7,507 to Oak Hill School. It's much harder to determine the racial inequities of the building process; clearly, the Board built many more schools for White students than for Black students, but once the schools are built we don't see a consistent pattern of inequities in upkeep or expansion. The Board consistently accepts the lowest bid for any construction project they undertake, which is presumably an indication of their constant lack of funding.

In 1931, the High Point Board of Education reported spending of \$43.03 per White pupil vs. \$24.33 per Black pupil

In February 1931, the Board listed the amounts spent per pupil by the major cities and towns in NC and divided those numbers along racial lines. High Point was spending \$43.03 per White pupil, which placed it 13th in the state. It was spending \$24.33 per Black pupil, which placed it eighth in the state. HP was closer to equality than many other communities, but still only spent 56% on Black students of what it spent on White students.

The same report shows the average number of students in each classroom for six cities in NC. In White classrooms, High Point averaged 33.1 students, which was among the highest. In Black classrooms, it averaged 36 students per classroom, which was not as wide a disparity as in Charlotte, Winston-Salem, or Durham, but lagged behind Greensboro where the ratio was nearly equal (indeed the Black classes were slightly smaller).

Wage Disparities between White and African American Schools (1930-1940)

For principals' salaries, High Point was consistently among the highest for White employees (ranging from \$4,800 to \$2,000) and consistently among the lowest for Black employees (ranging from \$1,620 to \$1,350). This statistic is the most damning in the report.

For 1930-31, White teachers' salaries ranged from \$2,900 to \$1,000, with most between \$1,500 and \$1,000. Black teachers' salaries ranged from \$1,250 to \$720, with most clustered between \$900 and \$765 (60 to 76%).

In June 1931, the Board hired cafeteria managers for the White high school and junior high school, Ray School and Elm Street. No manager was hired for any of the Black schools (not clear whether those positions existed or not, but most employees get rehired on a yearly basis according to the minutes so we can assume they do not exist).

In August 1931, the board waived book fees for the year in classes through fifth grade and maintained them for sixth grade through high school. It is not clear whether these policies included Black students.

In the 1931-32 budget, all principals took a pay cut during the Depression. Most of the White principals took a 10% cut, though one took 16%. The Black principals took cuts from 11 to 13%, with one declining from \$1350 to \$100 (there are obviously some extenuating circumstances here, but we cannot tell what they are).

In 1932, William Penn was approved as a fully accredited high school by the Association of College and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. In 1935, the same organization dropped the accreditation of High Point High School because the class sizes at the school were too large, it did not meet the required number of days in a school year, and teacher salaries were too low. Since Black teachers' salaries were consistently lower than those of White teachers, clearly the organization had a different set of standards for White and Black schools. (Pierce 58-59)

For the 1923-33 school year, both White and Black teachers took pay cuts ranging from 5 to 10%. Black teachers continued to have lower salaries than the White teachers.

In May 1933, the Board allowed the use of one of the vacant buildings at William Penn for a "Negro library," as long as the schools did not incur any of the expense for the institution.

In July 1933, the board noted that it was receiving poll tax and fine money from the county as part of its funding for the city schools. The use of poll taxes to fund the schools represents a continuing practice that dates back to the system's origins in 1897.

In October 1933, Principal Burford and the head of the William Penn PTA requested to use the same vacant building mentioned above as a cafeteria. This request confirms the theory that the school didn't previously have a cafeteria and indicates that the library never came together. The Board agrees to consider the request.

In July 1934, a proposal came before the board for dental clinics at High Point schools. No statement as to whether the program would include Black schools.

In March 1936, the Board proposed improvements to White schools at a cost of \$131,000, and to Black schools at a cost of \$39,000. With a student population that remains approximately 30% Black, that distribution of 29% of monies to Black schools is roughly equitable.

In June 1937, the Board had all the city's school buildings assessed for fire insurance. The White high school was evaluated at \$350,000, and the Brentwood and Junior High School at \$300,000. William Penn was assessed as the fourth most valuable building at \$69,800. Leonard Street was third to last at \$32,500. Fairview was assessed least valuable of all the schools at \$27,200.

For 1937-38 school year, White substitute teachers were paid \$3.50 a day, while Black substitutes were paid \$2.50 a day, a reduction of 40%.

In November 1938, the Board purchased ten outside drinking fountains for Leonard Street and Fairview at a cost of \$681.50. This leads us to wonder why so many outside fountains were needed.

The same month, the Board authorized \$500 for uniforms for "the high school band." Since the Board always defines William Penn as "the negro school," this is presumably the White school. No indication of band uniforms for William Penn.

In April 1939, the Board authorized \$67.61 to be paid for sporting equipment purchased by William Penn in 1931-33. The board also indicated that "henceforth no such indebtedness would be recognized." This statement reinforces the earlier hypothesis that the Board would not spend \$500 on uniforms for William Penn.

In September 1939, the Board reported that Leonard Street did not "conform to the North Carolina fire safety requirement." No other school is mentioned as having similar failures.

In November 1939, the minutes mention a series of citywide teachers' meetings held in the auditorium of the junior high school. No mention is made of whether these meetings were segregated, but a history of the High Point schools indicates that during the segregation era, Black teachers sat in the balcony at year-opening events at Central High. (Pierce 109)

Continued Overcrowding and Wage Disparities (1940-1950)

In April 1940, the Board transferred seventh graders from Leonard Street to William Penn because Leonard Street was overcrowded. The city still did not have a junior high school for Black students, despite having opened one for White students in 1932 (Pierce 52)

In July 1940, the board appropriated \$2,000 for the band and musical instruments. No indication is made of whether the Black schools received any, but the interviews in the William Penn collection indicate that the students at the school were constantly short of instruments and uniforms for their musical groups.

In September 1940, the Board applauded the city's teachers for all having received Class A Professional Certificates. The "Negro teachers" had accomplished this task in 1939, with the White teachers completing it in 1940.

In October 1940, the Board noted a decrease in enrollment in schools during the first month of the school year, with most of that decrease coming from White schools (William Penn's enrollment increased by 14). It is unclear what this statistic means.

In August 1941, the Board purchased a concert grand piano for High Point High at the cost of \$2,520, with funds borrowed, if necessary, from the Maintenance Funds. No such piano was purchased for William Penn. The same month, the Board authorized the spending of \$4,000 to construct tennis courts at High Point High.

For the 1941-42 school year, the Board listed the total amount of salaries expended and divided those numbers based on race. Since they did not state how many teachers, it is not possible to calculate an average for this school year. (They begin listing the entire rosters of teachers later, so it is possible to calculate those numbers).

In September 1941, the Board again assessed the value of its buildings for insurance purposes. High Point High School was assessed at \$580,000. The Junior High School was assessed at \$320,000. William Penn was assessed at \$116,200. Leonard Street was tied for the third lowest appraisal at \$54,000. Fairview was second lowest at \$51,000. Ada Blair was assessed at \$46,000.

In November 1941, the White teachers petitioned for a pay increase. The Board stated that these employees were "justly entitled to an increase in salary," but stated that they had no funds available. The Black teachers were not part of this conversation, but their salaries remained lower than those of the White teachers.

At the same meeting, the Board approved the installation of lights outside William Penn for the safety and convenience of those attending night functions at the school, but not for other reasons. The staff of William Penn had asked for lighting across the grounds to prevent "immoral conduct" that was happening on the grounds.

In February 1942, it was reported that the White teachers went around the school board and asked the City Manager if more funds were available. He told them funds were available in the utilities fund; the Board denied knowledge that such money would be available. It seemed to be quite the kerfuffle, but nowhere in the debate are the Black teachers and employees mentioned at all. This controversy does suggest that the Board was not aggressive in its efforts to procure fair pay for its teachers.

At that same meeting, the Board listed the salaries for the 1941-42 year, divided by certification, years of experience, and race. For teachers with the same qualifications and years of experience, Black teachers received approximately 86% of the salary that White teachers received. In the interpretation of the data that followed, the Board notes an effort by the 1941 General Assembly to close the racial gap in salaries between White and Black teachers. Indeed, these salaries are closer to equity—we can track moving forward whether they continue this trend.

The report also notes that principals' salaries are dependent on the number of teachers in the building, but that statement does not appear to match the data that presented a consistent rise in the salaries of White principals and stasis or at least a much slower rise in the salaries of their Black counterparts. There is no indication in the Board records that White student enrollment was increasing faster than that of Black students—indeed, the evidence noted above indicates the opposite was occurring. We will keep track of this trend moving forward.

In June 1942, Superintendent Carroll reiterated his effort to equalize salaries across races. The salaries for that year do reinforce his statements, with Black teachers cumulatively receiving about a 60% salary increase (there is no way to determine individual numbers based on the data they offer), White high school teachers receiving about a 55% increase, and White elementary school teachers receiving about a 30% increase.

In February 1943, the Board noted that Black and White students were dropping out to take civil service jobs that were paying approximately 20% more than the salaries of the city's White teachers.

In May 1943, the system started an elective Bible study program that operated only in White schools.

In November 1943, the Board still had not installed lights outside of William Penn. The Negro Advisory Council once again requested the lights, along with cement walkways and drives throughout the campus. They were finally installed in January 1944 at the cost of \$85, which is the equivalent of \$1,482 in 2023.

The same month, the city signed an agreement with the Federal Works Administration to operate nursery schools. White families were charged a \$2 weekly fee and Black families a \$1.80 cent weekly fee.

In February 1944, the city began investigating the possibility of getting federal funds for “industrial education for Negroes” that would help Black men 16 and older who wanted to qualify for jobs working at federal defense plants.

In April 1944, the High Point Normal Industrial School alumni asked the Board to establish another elementary school for Black children in the eastern part of the city. The Board noted this request but did not respond to it.

In June 1944, the Board presented employee salaries for the coming year. They only divided the salaries by race without indicating how many teachers there were in each group, so there is no way to calculate average or individual salaries.

In July 1944, the Board increased insurance on some of the elementary school buildings. Fairview and Leonard Street were both increased (from \$45,000 to \$50,000 and \$48,000 to \$54,000, respectively) but they were the two lowest appraised buildings of the seven listed.

In January 1945, the Board again assessed buildings for insurance purposes. Though the values of the buildings increased their relative rates were the same, with William Penn third after the White high school and junior high school, and Fairview and Leonard Street valued as two of the bottom three schools.

In February 1945, the Board purchased a stoker for Fairview at the cost of \$323.19. The other bids came in at much higher costs, but the choice fits the pattern of the Board of accepting the lowest cost bid whether for a Black or White school.

The same month, the Board granted permission for the planting of a victory garden at William Penn.

In March 1945, the Board noted the occurrence of hearing tests for third and fourth-grade children at the city’s White schools. There is no indication that these tests occurred at the city’s Black elementary schools.

In June 1945, the Board listed expenses for the upcoming year. Again, there is no way to determine average or individual salaries because the only division is by race. However, we can determine that White Home Economics teachers were paid more than twice what Black teachers were paid (\$4,140 to \$2,020). We surmise that this indicates two White and two Black teachers, but we cannot be sure. We can also note that the budget called for \$1,200 in instructional supplies for White schools and \$300 for “colored” schools.

The same month, the Board noted that it was appropriating \$260 for grounds improvements at Leonard Street after the school’s PTA had already raised \$480. This occurrence continues a pattern of the Board requiring Black schools to contribute to their own improvements that is not in evidence in the Board minutes when dealing with White schools.

In March 1946, the Board noted the closure of White schools for a day in May so that a Teachers' Chorus could participate at a convention in Asheville. There is no indication that such an opportunity was made available to Black teachers since their schools remained open that day.

The same month, the Board noted that the planting of the victory garden at William Penn had begun and indicated that it was "understood no hogs were to be kept on these premises." Were hogs regularly kept on the premises at William Penn?

In May 1946, the Board listed the deferred maintenance to be done on schools during 1946-47. Of the \$118,290 budgeted, only \$1,000 (less than 1%) was scheduled to go to a Black school (William Penn, for a cafeteria addition). Other maintenance for the forthcoming school year totaled \$71,570, with approximately \$1,300 (2%) going to a Black school (plumbing at Leonard Street).

In July 1946, the Board noted the difficulties teachers were experiencing in finding housing. Though the comment did not mention race, it is fair to recognize that Black teachers would have had a more difficult time than their White peers to find acceptable housing.

In August 1946, the Board noted that an additional 25 to 30 students would be attending William Penn High School because of the closing of the high school for Black students in neighboring Florence. At the same meeting, the Board noted that it was granting permission to the Carl Chavis YMCA to use the William Penn gymnasium. There is no notification of the need for Ys to use the gyms at White schools.

In November 1946, the Board noted the purchase of six pianos for the city's schools. None of those pianos went to Black schools.

In March 1947, the Board received a letter from leaders of the Black community asking for a commercial course at William Penn and suggesting that such a course could "absorb an average of about four persons a year in this endeavor".

At the same meeting, the Board suggested expanding Bible study to the city's Black schools, if the "negro community" would pay for 1/3 the cost of the endeavor. They expanded the program into the White junior high school and high school without such qualifications.

In May 1947, the Board listed its capital outlay for its budget for the preceding year. Most of the money went toward work on William Penn (\$300,000) and the White 1st Ward Elementary School (\$350,000). This is another example of how it's hard to determine the racial disparities in the city's spending on schools. Though the Black school buildings were consistently appraised at lower values than the White schools, the yearly spending does not show consistent disparities. For many years, more money was spent on White schools; less often, such as this year, the spending tilted more toward Black schools.

In the 1947-48 budget, the Board allocated \$3,375 for supplies for White schools and \$600 for Black schools. Given the relatively consistent 30% of the student population that was Black, allocating 84% of the funds to White schools represented a significant disparity.

In October 1947, the Board approved an allocation of \$600 for musical instruments for Fairview as long as the school raised another \$600, continuing a pattern that it did not follow with the White schools.

In March 1948, the William Penn PTA requested a secretary for Principal Samuel Burford. Though the principal at High Point High had a secretary, the Board determined they could not afford to fill such a position at this moment.

For the 1948-49 school year, the Board listed the entire roster of teachers in the city. This information allowed us to determine that White elementary school teachers earned an average of \$974, while Black elementary school teachers earned an average of \$494, which was just under 51% of the salary received by their White counterparts. White high school teachers received an average of \$834, while William Penn teachers received an average of \$469, which calculates to approximately 56% of the White total. The numbers seem a little off here because the high school teachers make less than the elementary teachers; perhaps the county added in money for the high schools. Regardless of this anomaly, the pattern of racial disparity is consistent.

In April 1948, the Board noted that the William Penn community was attempting to raise money for band uniforms. They determined to wait on making any appropriations until they saw how much the community could raise. Again, no similar pattern for White schools.

In May 1948, the Board presented a study that showed the actual enrollment at schools versus recommended student capacities. Of the elementary schools, only one White school (Ray Street) was over its recommended capacity; it was recommended at 595 and contained 607, or 2% over capacity. Both Black schools were much more over capacity—Fairview was recommended for 365 and contained 418, which made it 15% over capacity and Leonard Street was recommended for 595 and held 660 (a difference of 65), which made it 11% over capacity.

In January 1949, the principal of High Point High School requested funds for a school radio station, at a cost of \$2,000-2,500, “to be raised from various sources.” In March, the Board agreed to appropriate \$3,000 (the equivalent of \$38,000 in 2023) for this project. No other school in the system had access to such a resource.

For the 1949-50 school year, the average salary supplement (beyond state allotments) for Black elementary school teachers was \$609, 58% of what White teachers received (\$1,051). The average supplement for Black high school teachers was \$339, 25% of what the White high school teachers received (\$1,326). The Board budgeted \$3,600 for supplies in White schools, and nothing for supplies in Black schools.

In August 1949, the board agreed to take 40-50 additional students at William Penn from Trinity Archdale provided that these communities pay the cost for an additional teacher and a \$25 per pupil fee.

The proposed music budget for 1949-50 included \$311.15 for White schools and \$261.70 for Black schools for repairs. The budget for instruments was \$2,618 for White schools and \$400 (15%) for Black schools. For choral, High Point High School received \$275, and William Penn \$100 (the same as the junior high school). For the band, High Point High School received \$400, and William Penn \$100 (same as the junior high school). High Point High School received \$200 for orchestra, the junior high school received \$100, and William Penn received nothing.

As the Board considered plans for a William Penn expansion, they proposed putting the shop and music rooms together to keep the noisy areas of the school in one place.

Delayed Improvements (1950-1960)

In February 1950, the Board received a “communication” from leaders of the Black community requesting improvements to the plans for renovating William Penn. The requests included full lockers rather than half lockers, storage and recreational space in the basement of the building, and particularly improvements to the gymnasium to bring it up to par with the White schools. The group reminded the Board that the Supreme Court required that separate facilities for Black schoolchildren need to be equal and the “makeshift gymnasium at the William Penn High School is outmoded, inadequate, and dangerous, and is in no comparison with the gymnasium at the Senior High School. We are, therefore, respectfully petitioning you to include in the above plan a gymnasium, separate from the other buildings, that is adequate and in some degree of comparison with the gymnasium of the Senior High School.” They also asked for a business course, as the Senior High School had, a room equipped with typewriters for the course, and a physical education course with a full-time qualified instructor. The Board responded with an extended discussion with the group and promised to build a separate gymnasium “at such time as funds are available.”

In March, the Board offered a substantial response to these requests, which basically stated that the gymnasium and business courses would be done with the expansion, but that there were “more critical needs throughout the system” that needed to be addressed first. They also responded to the repeated request for a secretary for Mr. Burford by saying that only the two largest schools in the system (presumably the Senior and Junior High) had clerical assistance and that the money for such a position was not available at the time. In April the conversation continued, and the Board offered a teacher of business who could serve as a part-time clerical assistant for Principal Burford in lieu of providing a study hall.

For the 1951-52 school year, the city’s portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,179, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$613—the city was paying

Black teachers 52% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$825 and the Black teachers \$613—the city was paying Black high school teachers 74% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$2,400 and the Black schools was \$600. Since there were ten White schools and three Black schools, the average for White schools was \$240, and for Black schools was \$200, which means the White schools received 20% more than the Black schools did.

In October 1950, the Board chair expressed a need for a new elementary school for “Negroes” in the second ward of the city large enough to hold 300 students.

In May 1951, the Board decided to sell unused buildings on the William Penn property. It is unclear why the Board is so burdened financially, and why they chose to sell these buildings rather than repurpose them.

For the 1951-52 school year, the city’s portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,358, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$703—the city was paying Black teachers 58% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$1,358 and the Black teachers \$760—the city was paying Black high school teachers 55% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$4,326 and the Black schools were \$2,500. Since there were ten White schools and three Black schools, the average for White schools was \$432, and for Black schools was \$833, which means the Black schools received almost double what the White schools did.

In October 1951, the Board reiterated the need for another elementary school in the second ward. They appointed a committee to study the situation. The next month, the committee recommended the construction of this new school. An architect was hired in March 1952.

In November 1951, the Board approved the purchase of a grand piano for the William Penn Auditorium.

In March 1952, the Board had the city’s schools appraised again. William Penn remained the third most valuable property, after the White senior and junior high schools. It was appraised at \$575,000, 38% of the senior high school (\$1.475 million) and 65% of the junior high (\$875,000). Fairview (\$137,000) and Leonard Street (\$170,000) were appraised as two of the three lowest-valued schools. The new First Ward elementary school was appraised at \$430,000, more than double the value of Leonard Street and triple that of Fairview. Most of the elementary schools were appraised between \$238,000 and \$259,000. If you average those numbers (\$248,500) and average the Black elementary schools (\$153,500), the Black school were worth an estimated 62% of the White schools.

In April 1952, the Board set rental rates for the various schools within the system. What emerges from these numbers is an indication that William Penn did not have a classroom for shop, but both the junior high and the White senior high did.

In May 1952, the Board appropriated \$500 for junior high band uniforms. No requirement was made that the school raise money to match board funds.

For the 1952-53 school year, the Board listed the teachers without reference to their school or race therefore we have no way to calculate average salaries. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$5,400 and the Black schools was \$1,600. Since there were ten White schools and three Black schools, the average for White schools was \$540, and for Black schools was \$533, which means the budget was roughly equitable.

In August 1952, the Board appointed Dean B. Pruette, formerly the principal of the junior high school, as the new school superintendent. He would be the superintendent throughout the integration process. The same month, the Board mentioned again the need for a new gymnasium at William Penn.

In December 1952, the Board began plans for a “modern home economics department” at High Point High School. No indication of any similar program at William Penn. In the same month, the Board determined to take a census of “Negro children” north of the railroad (presumably to determine the possible population of the new elementary school?). In April 1953, the Board decided to name the new school after former William Penn principal A.J. Griffin.

In March 1953, the Board presented plans for a new cafeteria for High Point High. In April, the Board approved the purchase of 24 new typewriters for the White high school at the cost of \$3,000.

In May 1953, the Board hired a landscape architect to lay the ground for two tennis courts at William Penn and level and expand the size of the playing field. Tennis courts were built at the White high school in 1941.

The same month, the Board approved \$500 for Senior High band uniforms. No requirement was made for the school to raise funds.

In August 1953, the Board determined that it still was not feasible to provide a secretary for William Penn.

For the 1953-54 school year, the city’s portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,459, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$885—the city was paying Black teachers 61% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$1,015 and the Black teachers \$338—the city was paying Black high school teachers 33% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$5,795 and the Black schools was \$1,429. Since there were ten White schools and three Black schools, the average for White schools was \$579, and for Black schools was \$476, which means the Black schools received 82% of what the White schools did.

In November 1953, the Board purchased a 24-foot by 24-foot wrestling mat for the White high school at the cost of \$900. No similar mat was purchased for William Penn.

When the State Federation of Negro Women's Clubs asked for a reduced rate to rent William Penn for an organizational meeting in November 1953, the Board declined to offer such a rate.

The same month, the Board presented plans for a new cafeteria and Home Economics department for the White high school.

Following the Brown versus Board of Education Supreme Court decision in May 1954, the Board made a statement "that there was no issue before the Board at this time." It noted that the state powers superseded its own powers, so any action or statement by the board at this point "would be inappropriate at this time." In William Chafe's book *Civilities and Civil Rights*, he notes on the first page that the Greensboro School Board agreed to follow all decisions handed down by the courts. (1) The High Point board did not even go that far.

The Capital Outlay budget for 1954-55 did include \$148,000 for the gymnasium at William Penn.

In September 1954, the Board approved the purchase of a piano for William Penn at the cost of \$500. In the same month, they established insurance coverage for the players on the Senior High varsity football team, but not the junior varsity or junior high school. There is no mention of the William Penn football team.

In December 1954, the Archdale Machine Company asked to establish a course training loopers at William Penn for their new mill. The Board denied the request because it would favor one company over others and because it would require the use of electricity and heat at times when those services would not normally be offered. In January 1955, the Board approved a looping course offered for both races.

The same month, the Board approved a driver's education course at William Penn that would not require any expenses to the Board.

In April 1955, the head of the City of High Point Parks and Recreation reached out to the Board to discuss the establishment of playgrounds at Fairview and Leonard schools because of the general lack of play spaces for Black children in the city. At the current time, Black children were going to the Ada Blair (White) school for playgrounds, and the new playgrounds would probably keep them at their own schools instead.

In May 1955, the Board began discussing the possibility of constructing a second junior high school in the city. At this point, the Black community still did not have access to any junior high schools.

In June 1955, the Board began discussing an addition to High Point High School of 18 classrooms at the cost of \$250,000.

For the 1955-56 school year, the city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,277, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$713—the city was paying Black teachers 56% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$713 and the Black teachers \$327—the city was paying Black high school teachers 46% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$5,500 and the Black schools was \$1,600. Since there were ten White schools and four Black schools, the average for White schools was \$550, and for Black schools was \$400, which means the Black schools received 73% of what the White schools did.

In August 1955, in response to the second Brown decision (which called for the integration of American schools “with all deliberate speed”), the Board made a statement that emphasized the need for calmness, patience, and forbearance. They argued that schools could not operate effectively in an environment of tension and that people who were facing conditions different from their customs would need “understanding and consideration.”

That same month, Dr. Murray Davis (a Black physician and son of the initial principal of Fairview) appeared before the Board to explain that many members of the Black community were less concerned with integrating schools than with ensuring that Black children have the same opportunities as their White peers. He mentioned that the Black community still did not have a junior high school and that courses such as Diversified Occupations, Distributive Education, and Metal Work were available at High Point High School but not at William Penn (whereas William Penn had bricklaying classes that the White high school did not).

At the same meeting, the Board received a petition from more than fifty parents as well as the head of the High Point NAACP to “take immediate steps to reorganize the public schools under your jurisdiction on a nondiscriminatory basis.” They ended the letter by stating the Board was “duty bound to take immediate concrete steps leading to early elimination of segregation in the public schools.”

In January 1956, the Board began to accept bids on a health and physical education building for the junior and senior high schools. No similar building was considered for the Black schools.

The same month, the North Carolina Advisory Committee on Education recommended the Board establish a local Study Committee on segregation. The Board took no action on this matter.

In February 1956, the Board discussed the appropriate manner for celebrating Robert E. Lee's birthday in the schools. In October, the Board Chair encouraged teachers to begin to make plans for the holiday observation.

In August 1956, William Penn's administration indicated that their band instruments were badly worn out. The Board approved the purchase of new instruments.

In September 1956, the Board received a request to build a running track and improve the athletic fields at the Junior and Senior High Schools. The board expanded upon this request to include umping pits, improvements of the baseball field, and play areas for Senior High girls.

In October 1956, a case of arson occurred at the Fairview School. The damages to the building amounted to \$2,787.

In February 1957, the Board accepted bids for the building of a shop at the junior high school. As far as we can tell from the minutes, William Penn still did not have such a shop.

In May 1957, the Board changed the process for assigning students to schools. Power for making such assignments was given to the Board in every case. If a student, parent, or guardian wanted to change that assignment, they had to apply to the Board. If the application was rejected the individual was entitled to a hearing by the Board, but no such hearing would happen until after the application was submitted and denied by the Board. The Board also reserved the right to change any assignment at any time if they felt such a decision was in the best interest of the student, the school, or other students in the system. This process seems designed to make the application for reassignment more complicated and conducive to delay.

For the 1957-58 school year, the city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,867, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$1,028—the city was paying Black teachers 55% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$1,072 and the Black teachers \$875—the city was paying Black high school teachers 81% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$9,000 and the Black schools was \$3,000. Since there were ten White schools and four Black schools, the average for White schools was \$900, and for Black schools was \$750, which means the Black schools received 83% of what the White schools did.

In January 1958, the Board reported on continued progress on the development of the second junior high school for the city. At this point, there was still no junior high school that Black students could attend.

When the capital outlay budget for 1958-59 was released in May 1958, there was no money included for updates on Black schools.

For the 1958-59 school year, the city continued to divide teachers' and principals' salaries along racial lines. The city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,700, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$1,249—the city was paying Black teachers 73% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$1,146 and the Black teachers \$1,172—the city was paying Black high school teachers 2% more than what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget for White schools was \$10,000 and the Black schools was \$4,000. Since there were eleven White schools and four Black

schools, the average for White schools was \$909, and for Black schools was \$1,000, which means the Black schools received 10% more than what the White schools did.

Throughout the 1958 school year, the board was repeatedly defining and clarifying the boundaries of its school districts. This practice seems likely to be tied into debates over desegregation, which wasn't happening yet.

In January 1959, the Board decided to transform the Alfred J. Griffin School into a junior high school for Black students and shift the elementary school children to a new school on Boundary Street. This was the first junior high school for Black students; the first White junior high school opened in 1932.

For the 1959-60 school year, the city continued to divide teachers' and principals' salaries along racial lines. The city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,948, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$1,552—the city was paying Black teachers 80% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$1,592 and the Black teachers \$1,068—the city was paying Black high school teachers 67% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget is no longer divided based on race.

Integration (1959-1969)

In August 1959, the Board received its first requests to reassign Black students to White schools. Thirteen families requested such reassignments, and the Board approved only two of those requests: for Brenda Jean Fountain to attend Ferndale Junior High rather than William Penn, and for Miriam Lynn Fountain to attend Ferndale Senior High rather than William Penn. The Board offers no reasons why it approved these two requests and rejected the other eleven, but conversations with multiple members of the Black community indicate that the reason was that the Fountain sisters had previously attended integrated schools in the North. The book on the history of the High Point Schools makes the same argument (Pierce, 102). The Board then repeated its request for calmness and forbearance that it made in 1955 after the second Brown decision.

In September 1959, the board denied two hearings on the refusal of reassignment on the basis that the two requestors had not given notice of such a request within the time limit prescribed by North Carolina law. Clearly, the Board was using technicalities to avoid addressing the issue of expanding desegregation in the High Point schools.

For the 1960-61 school year, the city continued to divide teachers' and principals' salaries along racial lines. The city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,377, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$1,506—the city was paying Black teachers 9% more than it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$1,584 and the Black teachers \$1,567—the city was paying Black high school teachers 98% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget is no longer divided based on race.



FIGURE 19- AFRICAN AMERICAN CHILDREN 1960S HIGH POINT

[A note about these post-Brown years. It is possible the Board began to increase Black salaries to paper over past inequities. It is also possible that the specialist teachers' salaries' throw off these averages. Another question that we cannot answer is whether junior high school teachers fit into the categories of high school or elementary teachers. These numbers should be taken as estimates and considered for larger patterns rather than for specific accuracies each year. This is as specific as I can get given the information available.]

In August 1960, the Board received another wave of reassignment requests. Ten were denied because the requests "were not in proper order." The Board granted three requests, one of which was for a Black student Ola Elaine Ford, to transfer to Ferndale Junior High from Griffin Junior High. The Board denied seven other requests for Black students to attend traditionally White schools.

In September 1960, the Board granted seven hearings for Black families whose reassignment requests were denied. One family had no one present to speak. The other six were heard, and the matters were left "open for further consideration." In October, two of the six requests were denied; the other four students were scheduled to meet with the Board members. On November 9th, those four students appeared before the Board alongside an attorney and several local ministers. After this meeting, the four students' requests were approved.

In January 1961, the Board reported a delay in the development of the William Penn and Griffin athletic fields because it had not received sufficient bids to complete the work.

In March 1961, the Board agreed to contribute \$500 toward band uniforms for Northeast Junior High when and if the Boosters actually need the money. At the April meeting, it made the same agreement with boosters of the William Penn band - this seems to be a new policy.

In May 1961, to relieve overcrowding at Ferndale Junior High, the Board agreed to equalize the loads between junior high schools. This process did not include integration, only moving White students from one White school to another.

For the 1961-62 school year, the salaries are still divided by race, but the faculty is not. For that reason, we cannot average salaries for this year.

In August 1961, the Board received seven requests for reassignment from Black families to White schools. It approved three and denied four. In September, the Board approved three requests after hearings and denied one, in part because of overcrowding at Montlieu Avenue and in part because the Board claimed the student did not in fact live closer to Montlieu than Boundary Street where she was assigned.

In January 1962, Board member Dr. Perry Little wrote to the Board that he believed its methods for assigning students violated "the Supreme Court decision' (i.e., Brown). Dr. Little indicated that "attendance areas, disregarding race, are not being observed." He argued that the Board had not

assigned “any Negro student to any desegregated school on the basis of residence,” and that “school boards that acted in good faith regarding the 1954 Supreme Court decision...helped to minimize community tensions and ill feelings.”

In February 1962, at the invitation of Dr. Little, attorney Samuel Chess presented a resolution that a joint committee made up of the Board and community members be appointed for the purpose of recommending to the Board methods for assigning students. Dr. Little made a motion to accept the resolution but received no support from the rest of the Board. In May, Dr. Little motioned to establish a committee to study attorney Chess’s proposal to the Board. The motion was accepted.

In June 1962, a group of more than sixty parents appeared at the Board meeting to discuss the assignment of students. Most of the parents appear to have been concerned with transferring students from one White school to another. The Board took no action following these discussions.

For the 1962-63 school year, the salaries are still divided by race, but the faculty is not. For that reason, we cannot average salaries for this year. We can note that the salaries for the two high school principals seem very inconsistent from year to year. The principal of High Point High School oversees a much larger school, and faculty, which is part of the basis for salaries, so his salary would be larger. However, in 1961-62, the city supplement to the Black principal’s salary was almost 85% of that of the White principal, while in 1962-63, it dropped to only 50%. We are unable to explain this variance without further data.

In August 1962, the Board approved nine reassignments of Black students to White schools. They denied the requests of fifty other Black families. There were also dozens of families (presumably White) looking to leave the Johnson Street School, there is no indication why. Later that month, the Board denied two requests for a hearing because they were not submitted in a timely fashion and granted 28 hearings. In September 1962, attorney Samuel Chess represented the families at the hearing.

At the September meeting, William Penn requested more money for band uniforms given that they had already raised \$5,000. The Board declined to increase its contribution beyond \$500.

In October, the Board reversed its decision and granted three reassignment requests. The other 25 were denied either based on the Board’s decision or on a failure to follow proper procedures.

In November 1962, the Board decided to transfer the ninth grade from William Penn to Griffin, and the sixth grade from Griffin to the Black elementary schools.

In March 1963, a group of Black families filed a lawsuit against the High Point Board of Education enjoining the Board from continuing with a racially discriminatory policy in its assignment of children to schools. They alleged that the Board assigned students, teachers, and other

employees based on race, with all Whites assigned to White schools and all Blacks assigned to Black schools.

In May 1963, the Board adopted a resolution to assign students based on geographic districts designated by the Board and established a policy for applying for a change in assignment that seems nearly identical to the previous process. This new policy would begin with the 1963-64 school year.

For the 1963-64 school year, the Board continued to categorize salaries on the basis of race. In fact, they went back to listing teachers based on their school and there was no effort to reassign teachers from their previous positions. If we include junior high school teachers in this group, the city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,190, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$397—the city was paying Black teachers 33% of what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$2,353 and the Black teachers \$1,428—the city was paying Black high school teachers 61% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget is no longer divided based on race.

In October 1963, the Board approved all 35 requests for student reassignments.

From January 1964 through March 1965, the Board approved 149 reassignment requests and rejected only 13. The Board provided an explanation for only one rejection (the student did not have the credits necessary to attend the school requested). One of the cases denied was the only example of a student requesting reassignment from a traditionally White school (Ferndale) to a traditionally Black school (Griffin).

For the 1963-64 school year, the Board continued to categorize salaries on the basis of race. If we include junior high school teachers in this group, the city's portion of salaries for White elementary school teachers averaged \$1,359, and for Black elementary school teachers it averaged \$1,415—the city was paying Black teachers 4% more than what it paid White teachers. For high school, the White teachers received an average of \$2,339 and the Black teachers \$2,003—the city was paying Black high school teachers 85% of what it paid White teachers. The Instructional supplies budget was not divided based on race.

In February 1965, the Board presented evidence to the judge in *Gilmore et al v. High Point City Board of Education* that it claimed established its compliance with the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In April 1965, the Board, with Dr. Little voting against the motion, approved a plan that indicated its compliance with the Civil Rights Act. This plan, however, showed that while the Board had adopted a geographic plan, all the schools remained predominantly segregated in both their student and faculty populations. The Board emphasized the freedom of choice that allowed students to move to different schools upon request and argued that there was no requirement to deliberately mix staff. The Board concluded that the remaining segregation in the schools was

determined not by its own work but by the de facto segregation of residential neighborhoods in High Point.

Also in April 1965, the High Point City Council and students from High Point Senior High School requested the Board's approval of a Youth Council for Current Affairs. There is no indication in the minutes as to whether this Council was open to everyone.

In May 1965, the Board announced a summer school at High Point Central High School. There is no statement that indicates whether Black students were able to attend this program.

The 1965 school year is the first time when salary totals for city employees are not divided by race. The roster of teachers is also no longer divided by schools—it is simply alphabetical. For this reason, we cannot provide data on racial disparities in salaries from this point on.

During the 1965-66 school year, the Board dealt with hundreds of requests for student reassignment to different schools. It approved the great majority of these requests and did not give reasons for most of the small number of refusals. There were about ten total, and they mostly appear to be requests for reassignment from one traditionally White school to another. As far as I can tell, they were not refusing reassignments for the purposes of maintaining racial segregation anymore.

During the August, September, and October 1965 meetings, the Board discussed an ongoing conversation with the United States Office of Education regarding their compliance with the 1964 Civil Rights Act. The Board indicated that approval was forthcoming based on the plan they had submitted to the judge in the case *Gilmore et. al. vs. the Board*, but that a complaint against their plan had been submitted by a "so-called Education Committee" and that the American Friends Service had shared in the work of this committee. On September 30, the Office of Education released federal funds to the city, though it continued to have concerns about whether the Board was complying with the terms of the plan submitted to the court. For example, the Board was still requiring that families that wished to have their children reassigned go to the Superintendent's Office to pick up forms rather than having the forms mailed to them with assignment announcements as required in the court order. Clearly, the onus for integration remained on the families rather than on the Board. Even though the funds were released, the Office of Education notes that an investigation would be conducted as to the Board's future compliance with the court order.

In the August meeting, the Board indicated that they were still worried that federal funds would not be forthcoming and that programs might have to be curtailed or ended once local and state funds ran out. They also noted that the price of school lunches would have to increase if federal funds were not forthcoming.

In October 1965, the Board was required to report the racial breakdown in its schools to the Equal Opportunities Program at the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The

Board claimed it had not kept records of school populations based on race since 1963, but that was demonstrably false because it continued to break down salaries of its employees based on race until 1965. After doing a survey of the student and teacher populations at the school in 1965, it was clear that the populations remained almost entirely segregated. None of the traditionally Black schools had any White students attending, and the largest number of Black students at the traditionally White schools was 55 out of 1,100 (5%) students at Northeast Junior High. Montlieu Elementary had 40 Black students out of 524 (7.5%). High Point Central had 27 Black students out of 1,795 (1.5%), and none of the other traditionally White schools had more than 8 Black students. The faculty was even more segregated, with only three teachers working full-time in schools that did not traditionally align with their race (one White teacher at William Penn, and one Black teacher each at Northeast Junior High and Cloverdale Elementary).

In June 1966, during a Board conversation about building plans for the next four years, the Chair raised the possibility for the first time of closing William Penn, or alternatively using it as an elementary school. Apparently, there was never any public conversation about integrating William Penn.

The same month, the board approved all reassignment requests without listing them.

In September 1966, the Board began accepting bids for the construction of a new high school in Northeast High Point. This school would become Andrews High School, and it would essentially replace William Penn as the second high school in High Point.

In November 1967, the Board set a geographic dividing line for the assignment of students to High Point Central and the new Andrews High Schools. Students who wished to be reassigned could apply until January 1968.

In January, the Board determined that more high school-age students lived in the Andrews district and fewer in the High Point Central district than their previous survey had indicated. They also stated that if all requested reassignments were granted, there would be “a serious imbalance in the racial composition of the student bodies in the two schools, thereby defeating one of the purposes for closing the William Penn High School.” Thus, all requests for reassignment to Central were granted, but all requests for reassignment to Andrews were denied except for a few exceptions based on geography.

In February 1968, the board announced, “In September, 1968, we will enter a new era in education in High Point. We will have two high schools with student bodies integrated as never before. The administration is now making a full study of academic requirements and will present to the Board recommendations which will eliminate differences that have existed between Central and William Penn. We feel that the Board and Superintendent need expert advice, where available, in this period of transition.” Like most of the educators in North Carolina, as indicated

in William Chafe's book *Civilities and Civil Rights*, the Board used agreeable rhetoric but rarely backed it with its actions.

At the March 1968 board meeting, Wilton Hartzler, Southeast Regional Director of the American Friends Service Committee, asked the Board to clarify the roles of the William Penn faculty at the new high schools. The Board responded that these assignments would come in due course with the arrangement of the schools for the 1968-69 school year.

In April 1968, Superintendent Pruette recommended that Samuel Burford, the longtime (since 1933) principal of William Penn, be promoted to Director of Secondary Education for High Point City Schools. Attorney Samuel Chess asked that the Superintendent reconsider this decision and name Burford principal of the new Andrews High School. Chess believed the promotion would effectively be putting the 62-year-old Burford "out to pasture." Others present at the meeting supported this argument.

The next week, at a special called meeting, the Superintendent explained that he valued Burford's expertise in integrating all of the city's junior and senior high schools and that he feared at Burford's age and with his past health issues that he might be "endangered" by the strenuous activity of opening a new school. The Board asked for alternative recommendations from the Superintendent. He offered the possibility of making Burford assistant principal at High Point Central, which the Board voted down. He next offered the option to make Burford assistant principal at Andrews, which the Board also voted down. He next offered the possibility that Burford could become an English teacher, which the Board "did not look on with favor." The Superintendent then offered two other possibilities for the principalship at Andrews, both of which the Board voted against. He then told the Board he could continue to make further recommendations if they desired, and the Board demurred. Instead, the Board urged him to recommend Burford as the principal for Andrews, which he claimed he could not "professionally and conscientiously" do. The Board then proceeded to appoint Burford principal of Andrews over Pruette's objection.

At the May 1968 meeting, Mr. Burford noted that the staff at William Penn had expressed anxiety about their assignments for the next year. He asked that the Board not only clarify these assignments but also the process by which they would be made. More than one hundred members of the public were present for this meeting (more than could fit in the room), including members of the North Carolina Education Association and the North Carolina Teachers Association. There were "extensive and spirited discussions," particularly about how the appointment of Mr. Burford at the previous meeting did not change the policies for assigning teachers. A particular concern seems to have been whether the Superintendent would have sole responsibility for these assignments. The controversy does not seem to have been clearly decided at this meeting, but the notes suggest that the superintendent would retain control over these decisions.

In July 1968, the Board instituted a new retirement policy for employees of the High Point City Schools compelling employees to retire at the end of the school year when they turn 65. Given the closeness in time to the decision regarding Mr. Burford, this decision certainly seems like a policy intended to limit his time as the principal at Andrews.

In January 1969, the Board commissioned a study to replace the traditionally White Emma Blair School and the traditionally Black Leonard Street School, two of the oldest schools in the system.

In February 1969, the Leonard Street PTA sent a letter to the Board of Education outlining its concerns about the plans to relocate its students. The letter acknowledged the problems with the current building, including outside toilets and cafeterias, leaking roofs, insufficient classroom space, and inadequate heating. The letter does not ask to maintain the current building. However, the PTA was concerned about the idea of moving students to a new school in a different location because the present location of Leonard Street was in an integrated neighborhood, and the parents were concerned both about keeping that integration and how the students would be transported to a different part of the city and at whose cost. They were also concerned about the cost of finding a site for the new school downtown. A petition accompanied the letter, asking the Board to rebuild but not relocate Leonard Street—teenagers had already been moved out of the neighborhood to attend Andrews, so please leave the younger children in their own community.

The same month, the Board noted that the 1964 case *Gilmore et al v. City of High Point Board of Education* had been reopened and answers to interrogatories from the plaintiffs' attorneys were due at the end of the month.

In April 1969, the Board noted that a secondary summer school "open to all students" would be available. That reinforces our interpretation that the 1965 version of this school was not open for Black students.

Desegregation of Faculty and Staff (1969-1972)

In July 1969, the judge in the *Gilmore* case ordered the Board to desegregate the faculty and staff of the school system. The judge also ordered the Board to deliver to the plaintiffs by August a plan for what could be done to further the desegregation of the school system for the coming year and for completing the desegregation plan for the 1970-71 school year.

In its July meeting, the Board moved to assign faculty for the coming year "in such a way that the proportion of Negro and White teachers in each building to the size of the staff in each building will approximate the proportions of Negro and White teachers in the total staff of the High Point City Schools, to be effective immediately." It also moved to "instruct the Superintendent to reassign all students to be in junior high schools in the year 1969-70 among the three junior high schools in such a way that the enrollment by race in each school, proportionate to the capacity of each school, will approximate the proportion of Negro and White students in the total junior

high school enrollment in the High Point City Schools. After these assignments are made no reassignment requests will be approved for the year 1969-70.”

At a special session two weeks later, with more than one hundred citizens present including the leaders of a group called “Citizens for Justice,” the Board rescinded its policy for junior high school students and instead replaced it with a plan to reassign for the 1970-71 school year. It declined to change its policies regarding the reassignment of teachers for the coming year. Regarding elementary school assignments, the Board decided, with Dr. Little voting no, to maintain its assignments of these children “in accordance with the neighborhood school concept, and to continue the policy of freedom of choice.”

The next month, with more than 200 people present, the Board voted to similarly rescind its policy of reassigning teachers for another year because "the climate for the mass reassignment of teachers appeared to be quite unfavorable at this time, due, in part, to the fact that the decision has been made by the Board to delay the reassignment of junior high school students until the year 1970-71."

On August 19, 1969, the judge in the Gilmore case required the Board to assign teachers and staff for the 1969-70 school year on an approximately 30-70 Black-White basis. The court also required the Board to give all students the opportunity to request reassignment at the time when they registered for the 1969-70 school year. Finally, it required the Board to submit by November a complete plan for the integration of the city’s schools for the 1970-71 school year. “The plan will cover all schools at all grade levels and shall provide for elimination of the racial identity of all schools with respect to the pupils, faculty, administrative, and other personnel.”

In November, the Board submitted a plan that indicated no school in the system “shall have a percentage of its student body made up of Black students which exceeds 15% above the percentage of Black students in the High Point City Schools in grades one through twelve in all schools taken as a whole.” “The members of the staff of the High Point City Schools shall be employed and assigned without regard to race, except that, in order to assure racial balance, faculty members shall be proportioned by race among the various schools so as to have substantially the same proportion by race in each school as exists in the staff as a whole.”

In a statement accompanying this plan, the Board stated “We have studied geographic racial distribution in the City of High Point and recognize that our greatest problem in integrating the schools rests in racially segregated housing patterns. We must face the reality of this situation as it now stands and act as the law requires.” “We have been enjoined by many to "do nothing", to let the courts decide the issue and devise an integration plan, and then to appeal from any court order. It is the majority opinion of the Board, that, if such a course were pursued in the face of the prevailing judicial climate, the High Point City Schools would be precipitously projected into

a chaotic mode of operation fostered by outsiders giving little heed to balancing the factors we have just reviewed.”

In February 1970, the Board and the Superintendent faced another conflict over the naming of a new principal at Leonard Street. Superintendent Pruette recommended three people, all of whom the Board voted down. When Dr. Little made a motion directing Pruette to recommend a Black man for the position, the Board affirmed it. At that point, Pruette recommended Roland J. Haines, whom the Board affirmed as the new principal.

In May 1970, the judge in Gilmore approved the Board’s desegregation plan.

In March 1971, the Board received a letter from the PTAs of nine elementary schools raising concerns about the continued disparity of ratios in the elementary schools of the city. The letter noted that some schools have a ratio of 42% Black to 58% White while others have ratios of 18% Black to 82% White rate. The original reason the Board claimed difficulty in correcting these ratios was the need for busing, which parents didn’t want, but now students are being bused and the ratios remained unequal. The parents argued, “It does not seem to us to be acting in good faith to put the largest number of these children in the schools with the lowest social-economic levels, where they stand to gain less, according to the Coleman Report, than they would in schools with a middle-class economic balance.” They requested equalization of the ratios in all elementary schools by the fall of 1971.

In December 1971, the Board began a process of making its system more responsive to the concerns of all stakeholders, and to accommodate broader participation in the decision-making process. The Board decided to hire a public relations director and to begin new processes for school unit reviews and evaluations.

At the same meeting, the Board asked for a committee to study the possibility of building an addition to the Leonard Street School.

In February 1972, the North Carolina Association of Educators requested a meeting with the Board as the representative of most of the professional staff in the city’s school system. They hoped to share in the decision-making process that affects the quality of education in the High Point Schools. The Board agreed to create a committee to meet with the NCAE.

At the February meeting, the Board voted 4-3 to begin using Leonard Street for purposes other than as a regular school beginning with the 1972-73 school year.

At the April 1972 meeting, the city’s Human Relations Commission raised a concern that the Board was not building enough new schools in the southern part of the city. The Board responded that both Black and White populations seem to be moving out of that part of the city.

In April 1972 the Gilmore plaintiffs requested the court to enjoin the Board from constructing new facilities that would further segregation in the city, to require the Board to continue

assigning teachers to maintain a ratio of 70% White and 30% Black teachers in the schools, and to comply with the order offering periodic reports on the racial composition of each school in the city. The plaintiffs argued that the construction of a new junior high school and the closing of Leonard Street were designed to perpetuate segregation in the city's schools.

In May 1972, the Board established a new policy for modifying attendance zones to maintain desired racial ratios but not requiring such modifications any more than every three years to try to keep stability in children's educational experiences.

The same month, the Board offered an effective summation of the process of integration in its schools: "In High Point the first black students were enrolled in a White school in 1959. In 1963, in response to specific court action, the High Point School Board brought out a plan of non-racial geographic assignment of students coupled with "freedom of choice" which resulted in a modest increase in integration. Subsequent court action in 1969 resulted in the equal integration of each school faculty in the 69-'70 school year, the integration of all schools in the '70-'71 school year, equal racial balancing in all schools during this past school year, and the establishment of a policy to maintain this balance in the future."

In July 1972, Superintendent Pruette named a new White principal for Fairview Street over the objection of Dr. Little and Mr. Chesnutt. In September 1972, the judge in the Gilmore case denied the plaintiffs any further relief, which effectively allowed the Board to decide the use of Leonard Street and proceed under the order of 1970. In December 1972, Dr. Little resigned from the Board. These three actions together essentially ended the process of integration in the High Point Schools.

There are additional changes that happened after this point that deserve further study, but they require more extensive knowledge of the economics, politics, and demographics of the city, as well as knowledge of the growing influence of federal funding on the education policies of local school boards. Given the reasons available for this project, we determined that 1972 is a logical place to stop an exhaustive review of the role of race in the former High Point City Schools.

Conclusions

This report presents a wide range of events, decisions, and policies that occurred in the High Point City Schools from the 1890s to the 1970s. The primary themes that emerge from this evidence are:

- **Racial Segregation and Overcrowding of Schools:** School board records and supporting evidence present a clear practice of racial segregation within the school system. From the creation of the High Point public school system until 1915, there were no public schools for Black students in the city. From 1915, when the first Black public school opened in High Point, until the mid-1960s when the federal government intervened, Black and

White students were assigned to different schools, and Black schools were regularly identified as overcrowded in comparison to White schools. There was no Black public high school in the city until 1924 and no junior high school for Black students until 1959 (at which point the White community already had two junior highs).

- **Racial Inequality in Resource Allocation and Facilities:** School board records consistently highlight a disparity between the resources and facilities available to Black and White schools. From the allocation of musical instruments, the difference in building valuations, the absence of certain facilities like lighting and indoor plumbing at the Black school despite repeated requests, and the distribution of amenities like pianos and radio stations, all data indicates a disproportionate amount of funding going to White schools. Even when funding or facilities were provided to Black schools, it was often contingent on their community's efforts to raise funds, a requirement not made for White schools.
- **Racial Disparity in Teacher and Principal Salaries:** There was a clear and consistent discrepancy between the salaries of Black and White teachers and principals at the High Point Public Schools. Even though both groups had the same professional qualifications (and in some cases, Black faculty had superior qualifications), Black teachers and principals regularly earned less than their White counterparts.

These systemic practices in the High Point school system over nearly eighty years have left a clear imprint on the city's educational history. The "separate but equal" mandate, a principle that was supposed to guide racial segregation in education, was grossly violated by the School Board's own admission, with Black students and teachers systematically receiving fewer resources, lower salaries, and substandard facilities compared to their White counterparts. The Board's delay in desegregation post the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision further exemplifies the systemic resistance to ensuring equitable educational opportunities for Black students. Despite legal interventions and relentless advocacy by community leaders and affected families, the Board often responded with passive resistance and bare minimum compliance to court mandates. Based on this data, the city's historical disparities are clearly rooted in the local school system's segregated and inequitable past. Such history underscores the need for continuous efforts towards equitable access to education, acknowledging and addressing the historical injustices.

For the period after 1972, when federal courts concluded their efforts to further desegregate the city's public schools, much more time, resources, and expertise are needed to understand the policies of the school system. A combination of complicating factors, including changing demographics, the rise of federal funding, and the increased influence of national education policies need careful study by scholars who have a background in these contemporary policy issues.

The More Things Change, The More They Stay the Same: Urban Renewal and Model Cities in High Point

Dr. Virginia L. Summey

Introduction

This research analyzes the actions of the High Point City Council regarding issues of racial inequity and discrimination since 1960. Building on the work of local historian Glenn Chavis and his work, *Our Roots, Our Branches, Our Fruit: High Point's Black History, 1859 – 1960* (2010), this analysis focuses primarily on partnerships with the federal government as the City of High Point attempted to address the issues facing its low-income, Black communities. High Point, like many southern cities, was reticent to force desegregation upon private businesses. What High Point did, however, was to take advantage of federal programs targeted at urban renewal, while also forming Human Relations Committees.

A cursory exploration of the shelves in the Heritage Room at the High Point Public Library reveals that in the mid-to-late twentieth century, the City of High Point embarked on many, and spent a large amount of money on, various “improvement” projects and studies aimed at urban renewal. The largest urban renewal project, the East Central project of the 1960s, ultimately resulted in an overall lack of affordable housing, White flight, and the need to address the same issues a couple of decades later. Other projects, particularly those focusing on the Washington Street area, have been met with similar results.

It would be a massive undertaking to find and examine every municipal code that might have negatively affected Black people in High Point over fifty years within the time constraints of the One High Point Commission, although a worthwhile endeavor. Instead, we focused on a few issues that had lasting and permanent effects on the Black community in High Point. Issues such as urban renewal have perpetuated de facto residential segregation, made homeownership for Black residents harder to obtain, and hindered the acquisition of generational wealth. All these consequences determine the lives of current-day Black residents of High Point, North Carolina, and resulted from direct actions of the High Point City Council in the mid-twentieth century.

Urban Renewal Projects

In the 1960s, High Point, like many American cities, embarked on urban renewal projects. These projects were partially federally funded, with apportioned funds from the 1949 Federal Housing Act (FHA). As part of President Harry Truman’s “Fair Deal,” the FHA authorized \$1 Billion in loans to cities to help them acquire slums and blighted land for redevelopment. It also required public

housing authorities to renovate or tear down one slum dwelling for every new public housing apartment constructed.

In 1960 High Point officially embarked on its first urban renewal plan, focusing on the east-central portion of the city. The federal government was to pay two-thirds of the net cost of the overall project. According to the July 17, 1960 issue of the *High Point Enterprise*, “High Point’s blighted neighborhoods contain only 17.5 percent of the city’s dwelling units. They harbor 45 percent of all convicted felons, give rise to 38.5 percent of all residential fires and contain 59 percent of all reported venereal disease.”⁴ City planners described one dwelling as “smaller than two parking spaces at a supermarket,” with no running water or bathroom, serving as a residence for eight to ten people at one time.⁵ Some parts of the urban renewal district were up to 72 percent Black.⁶

In 1962 the Urban Renewal Plan for the East Central Urban Renewal Area outlined its plans for the neighborhood. Its proposed renewal action included:

- “Acquisition and clearance of dilapidated structures, including structures needed for community facilities, and structures incompatible with land use proposals;”
- “Redevelopment of cleared area for public and private use;”
- “Rebuilding and construction of streets, sidewalks, utilities and other public improvements;”
- “Provision and development of community facilities to serve the area adequately;” and
- “Rehabilitation of salvable structures by individual owners and residents.”⁷

High Point’s urban renewal, like projects in other cities across the country, primarily affected its Black citizens. The method used to eliminate slums was to raze entire neighborhoods. Nationally, cities razed one out of every seventeen dwellings. Sixty percent of those dwellings were inhabited by nonwhite citizens. The mass relocation of Black citizens under the name of progress led many to dub urban renewal programs as “Negro Removal” programs.⁸ In 1963 the East Central Homeowners Association filed a lawsuit claiming the Redevelopment Commission offered too little money for their homes. On November 15, 1963 a letter from the East Central Homeowners Protective Association was submitted into the High Point City Council minutes stating, “If we could afford it we would remain silent, but we are too poor, too advanced in years, and too proud of our achievement in becoming homeowners to give up without a struggle.” The response from

⁴ J.W.P. Mooney, “High Point Faces Threat of Blight From Its Spreading Slum Areas, *High Point Enterprise*, July 17, 1960

⁵ J.W.P. Mooney, “Blight Threatening City, Planning Report Warns, *High Point Enterprise*, July 3, 1960

⁶ “Two Areas Studied For Urban Renewal,” *High Point Enterprise*, August 16, 1961

⁷ Summary Report, East Central Urban Renewal Project, N.C. R-23, High Point, North Carolina

⁸ Francesca Russello Ammon, *Bulldozer: Demolition and Clearance of the Postwar Landscape* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 2016) 165.

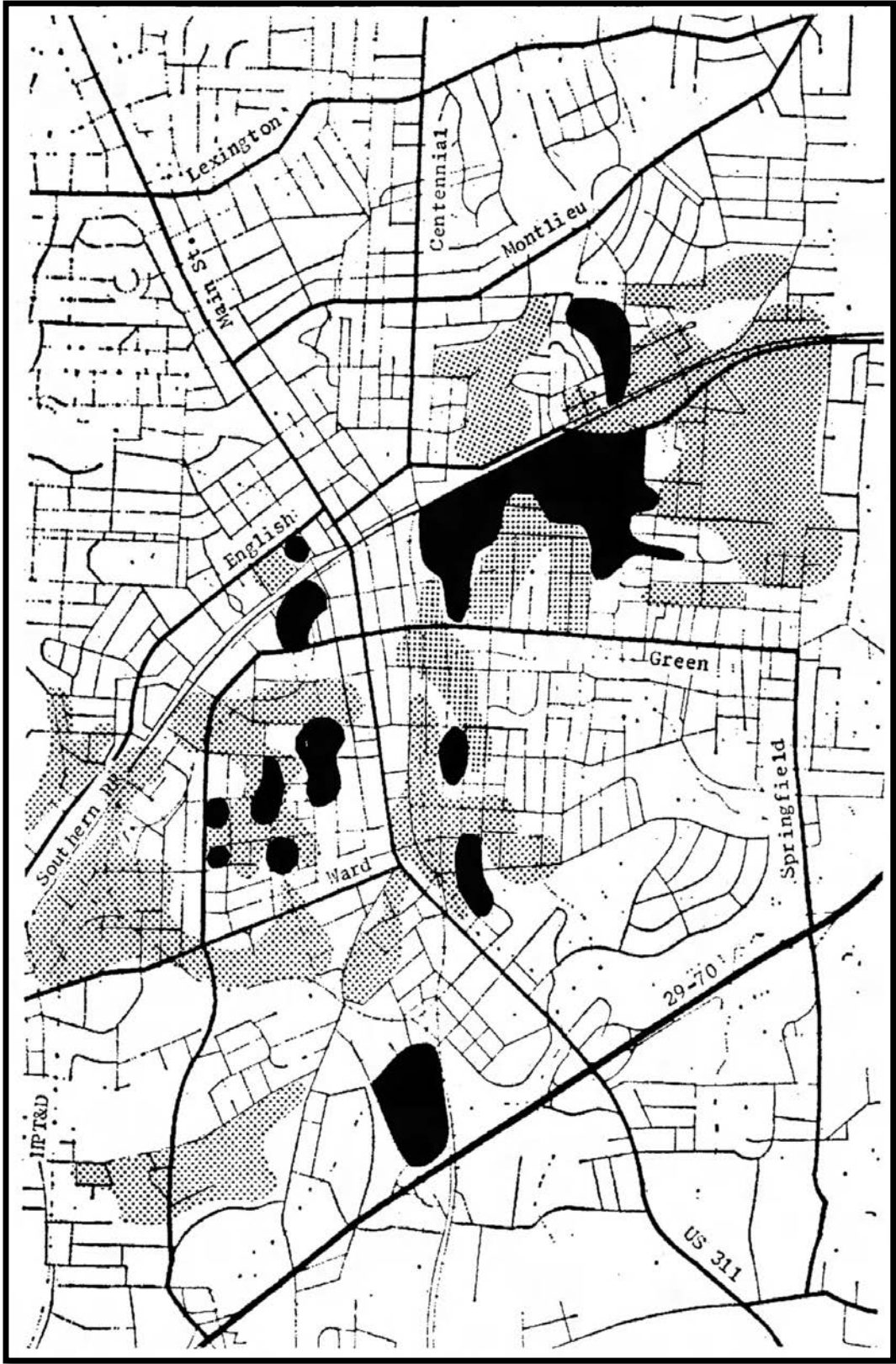


FIGURE 20- EAST CENTRAL URBAN RENEWAL AREA

the City was that no homeowner has been offered less than fair market price for their home as established by the Redevelopment Commission and approved by the Federal Government.⁹

In 1964 the High Point Human Relations Commission addressed the housing issue after being advised that Black residents found it impossible to buy or rent homes outside of their neighborhood. That year the City of High Point contained two public housing communities: Daniel Brooks Homes and Clara Cox Homes, both of which were built in 1942.¹⁰ The city then built Astor Dowdy Towers, Carson Stout Homes, and Cedar Street Homes in 1966, Spring Valley Apartments in 1967, and Beamon Courts in 1974. All these units were built to alleviate the displacement caused by the East Central renewal area. Supply, however, could not keep up with demand. By September of 1967 there were 500 applicants hoping for a place in one of the city's public housing projects. At the time, less than half would receive a unit. Daniel Brooks, Astor Dowdy, and Cedar Street Homes, combined, only contained 276 units.¹¹

Purchasing a home was extremely difficult as well. On a local and national level, segregation in the real estate market and racist lending practices made it difficult to find and purchase homes. "Unequal access to home ownership furthered patterns of economic inequality that have enduring legacies today" Additionally, "prior to the passage of the Fair Housing Act of 1968, women were also denied access to mortgage financing that could help them with relocation of suburban homeownership."¹² Even in public housing, many people displaced by urban renewal found themselves ineligible for these units. In 1969, two years after the completion of the Spring Valley apartments, 31 of the 78 dwellings were vacant, as four out of every five applicants failed to qualify for three reasons: they made too little money, they made too much money, or they had poor credit.¹³

The East Central Urban Renewal project was controversial from the beginning. The project spent many years in court before it could start in earnest. The suits that most delayed the project were those between the High Point Development Commission and private property owners seeking to end the project. Attorney Harriss Jarrell and other interested parties filed suit attempting to stop the urban renewal process in 1963, alleging that tax money had illegally been used for the project. Ultimately Superior Court Judge Allen H. Gwyn ruled that no tax monies had been used. They argued that tax money had been used on the project with the approval of the city's voters.¹⁴ Issues of financing reached the North Carolina Supreme Court upon appeal, where ultimately the

⁹ Minutes of the High Point City Council, December 10, 1963

¹⁰ City records from 1960 indicate that a housing project was approved for Meredith Street. Additional information on this project was not found.

¹¹ Forest Cates, "Public Housing is Running Fast – But Not Keeping Up," *High Point Enterprise*, September 4, 1967, B1.

¹² Ammon, *Bulldozer*, 14.

¹³ Ray Hubbard, "Tenants Can't Be Found for Low-Income Housing," *High Point Enterprise*, October 7, 1969, B1.

¹⁴ Frank Warren, "Urban Redevelopment Clears Series of Hurdles in 1963," *The High Point Enterprise*, December 29, 1963, 2D.

Supreme Court ruled High Point's urban renewal project constitutional, but questioned it on five points: the need for four off-street parking lots, request for evidence that Guilford County would spend \$475,750.00 for additional school construction, if a pedestrian plaza qualified as a park, and an agreement between the city and the Redevelopment Commission regarding ineligible site improvement costs. The case was sent back to the Superior Court where Judge Gwyn signed a restraining order limiting operations on the urban renewal project.¹⁵ Ultimately, after three years of legal wrangling and appeals, the North Carolina Supreme Court ruled that the urban renewal program should proceed.¹⁶

In 1967 the North Carolina Good Neighbor Council released a report entitled "High Point: Progress in Human Relations." The report contained three articles from *The High Point Enterprise* in January and February of 1967 on the East Central Urban Renewal Project, showing that "a community can meet some of its most pressing problems head-on."¹⁷ What the chosen articles reveal, however, is that opinions on the project varied widely by race. One article stated,

"Many Negroes will say that what has happened has changed nothing, that the crux of relations between the two [races] [un]touched. Many whites will say that the changes have been too many and too much, that relations between the two races are as bad as they have ever been. The balance will show, however, that ma[n]y significant changes have altered the pattern of living for both races in High Point. The changes have not been easy; they have not taken place without fear and hatred, agony and determined hope. But they are there now, and they will not be easily altered, or pushed aside."¹⁸

The rest of the article(s) discuss how "Negro citizens have moved broadly into the life of High Point," and the positive impacts of urban renewal.¹⁹

Also in 1967, High Point expanded its urban renewal project to include plans for the Harrison Center area. The project focused on the rehabilitation of buildings and land in a 135-acre area, and the development of Harrison and Thissell Streets into major thoroughfares from Montlieu Avenue to Green Street. Renewal started in 1971 and like the East Central Project, focused on attacking "the growing blight."²⁰ Because the project focused on road widening, there appears to be less displacement of residents than in the previous project. Many residents were still unhappy. One man stated that prior to the Harrison Center project, he had a 35-foot front yard.

¹⁵ "Judge Gwyn Writes Order Without Specific Limits," *High Point Enterprise*, July 25, 1964, 7.

¹⁶ "Supreme Court Says Urban Renewal Okay," *High Point Enterprise*, March 24, 1966, C1

¹⁷ "High Point: Progress in Human Relations. A Brief Report of the East Central Urban Renewal Project," Raleigh: The North Carolina Good Neighbor Council, April 1967.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ Ray Hubbard, "Harrison Center Project Okayed; Start-Up Near," *The High Point Enterprise*, January 7, 1971.

Street widening took 20 feet from his property.²¹ The project was largely finished by 1975 at a cost of about \$4 million.

Overall, between 1962 and 1970, \$23,000,000 in federal funds were spent on the East Central urban renewal, focusing on the acquisition, relocation, rehabilitation, and demolition of structures. The city built additional low- and moderate-income housing, and improved streets, sidewalks, and local utilities.²² These urban renewal programs, however, did not alleviate crucial problems still existing in the areas the city intended to improve. Housing became the primary point of contention, but also access to quality education, continued crime, and poor health outcomes.

In 1976 the City published a report entitled “Racial Housing Patterns in High Point.” In its summary, it stated that the racial composition of several previously all-White areas are now all-Black. It reads, “The reasons for such change are undoubtedly complex; however, prior to the adoption of the 1968 Federal Fair Housing Act, the change was probably encouraged by blockbusting and racial steering. Federal law prohibits such activities today.”²³ The practice of blockbusting, convincing White homeowners into selling their homes at below-market rates out of fear of devaluation when minorities move into the neighborhood, resulted in a White flight to other neighborhoods further away from the city center.²⁴ In the case of High Point, White flight significantly changed the racial composition of the center city. According to the report, in 1960 the Black/White ratio was approximately 50/50. After years of urban renewal, by 1970 it was 75/25.²⁵

On October 21, 1982, the High Point City Council adopted a Fair Housing Report prepared by the Human Relations Commission, but the report was not included in the Council minutes or found in the Heritage Room of the High Point Public Library. In City Council minutes, however, it is noted that “the data indicate a number of positive points. This demonstrates the desire by various aspects of the community to eradicate unfair housing practices.” The Human Relations Committee was commended by Council for their work.²⁶

In July 1986, twenty-six years after the City of High Point began discussing its first urban renewal program, the city adopted the East Central Small Area Plan. In its introduction, it states that “Since the early [19]70s East Central has shown a steady decline in both housing conditions and the general appearance of the neighborhood.” City Council designated the area as one of the target areas for Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) funds to go to neighborhood

²¹ Cathy Packer, “Urban Renewal Draws Strong Criticism,” *High Point Enterprise*, December 12, 1973.

²² City of High Point, “East Central Small Area Plan,” July 1986.

²³ *Racial Housing Patterns in High Point, 1960 – 1976*, 1.

²⁴ Lizabeth Cohen, *Saving America’s Cities: Ed Logue and the Struggle to Renew Urban America in the Suburban Age* (New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 2019) 213.

²⁵ *Racial Housing Patterns in High Point, 1960 – 1976*, 2.

²⁶ Minutes of the High Point City Council, October 21, 1982.

revitalization. At the time, 73 % of the dwellings in East Central were rental units, 66 % of the dwellings were built before 1950, and 14 % of those were deemed dilapidated. The study stated that between 1982 and 1985 there had been little new construction, with only six new single-family units erected. It also cited limited commercial shopping options, which was not addressed by the 1960s-era project. In short, during the 1960s the City of High Point attempted to revitalize an area, left residents with few better housing options, and walked away.

Biracial Committee

In 1963 the High Point City Council unanimously approved the establishment of a biracial committee, joining other North Carolina cities, such as Charlotte, Winston-Salem, and Durham, in exploring solutions to ease racial tension in the city. The goal of the committee was to work towards “equal job opportunities in addition to equal access in other areas of community life.”²⁷ The committee worked with local business owners regarding desegregation, persuading hotels, motels, and eating establishments to serve all people regardless of race. The city council also emphasized a policy proposal of merit-based hiring within the city government without regard to skin color. Another goal was to end civil rights demonstrations in the city and for High Point “to put itself in a position where a federal civil right now would not be needed.”²⁸

The initial report and efforts of the biracial committee, however, was not received with praise from High Point’s Black community. While White leaders pointed to integrated park facilities and schools, the local chapter of the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) stated that not enough progress had been made to end demonstrations. CORE cited that no progress had been made regarding desegregation at the local YMCA, bowling alleys, High Point Memorial Hospital, theaters, and in housing.²⁹ Black attorney and Biracial Committee Member, John W. Langford, praised the progress of the committee, prompting the local chapters of CORE and the NAACP to call for his removal from the committee in favor of someone “who knows and will bespeak the attitudes of the Negro people.”³⁰ The Black community continued to push the Biracial Committee for total desegregation of public facilities in High Point, resulting in mass demonstrations and arrests in August and September of 1963. In September of 1963, the Biracial Committee was disbanded, with a permanent Human Relations Committee taking its place.³¹

²⁷ William A. Shires, “Committee Approach to Race,” *High Point Enterprise*, June 9, 1963.

²⁸ “Council Re-endorses Biracial Efforts,” *High Point Enterprise*, June 21, 1963.

²⁹ Frank Warren, “Resumption of Demonstrations Possible, Says CORE Leader,” *High Point Enterprise*, June 13, 1963.

³⁰ “Racial Progress in City is Noted,” *High Point Enterprise*, July 24, 1963.

³¹ Lynn & Burke Salsi, *Guilford County: Heart of the Piedmont* (Charleston: Arcadia Publishing, 2002) 144; “Human Relations Group Completed,” *High Point Enterprise*, September 25, 1963.

Desegregation

Like many cities, particularly in the Triad of North Carolina, Black residents fought several desegregation battles prior to the 1964 Civil Rights Act. As noted in Glenn Chavis's work, the Blair Park Golf Course was integrated in 1956 (although shower and locker facilities were closed for "economic reasons"), and all branches of the High Point Public Library were integrated in 1959.³²

Specific ordinances repealing segregation in the City of High Point are difficult to find. It appears that matters of integration were left up to specific institutions, and not mandated by the city. The 1958 code of ordinances for the City of High Point, Sec. 2-51 dealing with Human Relations states:

It is hereby declared to be the policy of the City of High Point in the exercise of its general police powers and its governmental authority in the promotion of the public health, safety, and welfare, to encourage understanding and good will between all persons; to promote and develop mutual respect among all citizens toward each other; to work toward the elimination of unfair and unjust dealing between and among its citizens and to work for the elimination of discriminatory practices between and among its citizens because of race, creed, color, sex, national origin, age, handicap, or economic status, within the scope of its legal powers and authority so to do. (Ord. No. 77-85, § 1, 11-17-77)³³

Of course, that did not mean that segregation was not alive and well in High Point. On February 11, 1960, high school students from all-Black, segregated William Penn High School staged sit-ins at Woolworth's downtown. The protests extended to other establishments such as the Paramount Theatre and other dining establishments. These civil rights demonstrations have been well documented by Dr. Paul Ringel's courses at High Point University.³⁴ High Point followed the pattern of many southern cities in dealing with the integration of public spaces after the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In August of 1964, the High Point Chapter of the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) found eight (out of seventeen) dining establishments in town that still refused to comply with the law and serve Black patrons. City Council felt that it was neither their job, nor that of the Human Rights Commission, to enforce the federal law.³⁵ At the September 18, 1964, meeting of the High Point City Council, a statement prepared by the Human Relations Commission was accepted and approved by Council. The statement, however, was not included in City Council minutes.³⁶ By September of 1965, the High Point Human Relations Commission was "in neutral."

³² Glenn R. Chavis, *Our Roots, Our Branches, Our Fruit: High Point's Black History, 1859 – 1960*, High Point Historical Society, 2010, 210, 226.

³³ Code of Ordinances, City of High Point, North Carolina, 1958

³⁴ <https://www.williampennproject.org/>

³⁵ Robert Marks, "Councilmen Tread Softly Around Civil Rights Issue," *High Point Enterprise*, August 7, 1964.

³⁶ High Point City Council Minutes, September 18, 1964.

According to an article in the *High Point Enterprise*, “There appear to be no problems at the moment that require our attention...there appear to be sufficient laws on the books to handle most local racial situations.”³⁷

Model Cities Program

From 1968 to 1974, the City of High Point was one of 150 cities nationwide that participated in the Federal Model Cities Program. The Model Cities Program was part of President Lyndon B. Johnson’s Great Society and War on Poverty. The onslaught of urban renewal projects of the post-war era and their significant shortcomings led to the creation of Model Cities, which aimed to improve relations between communities and municipal governments. It emphasized social projects identified by each city, in addition to continued urban renewal, looking at urban poverty from a more multifaceted perspective, and improved coordination between existing projects. According to Professor Elizabeth Brown, “HUD [Department of Housing and Urban Development] premised Model Cities on solving the problem of the ‘urban ghetto’ – imagined most prominently as a dark, brooding, violent space ready to explode. At the program’s inception, the ‘ghetto’ problem stemmed not from crime...but from a concentration of poor Black people.”³⁸

In High Point, Dr. Otis E. Tillman was chairman of the Model Cities project. According to High Point’s final report, Model Cities gave “the men and women whose problems were the greatest... back a voice in what happened to them... High Point’s citizens realized it was time to try some different approaches to such things as poor housing, poor health, few educational opportunities, lack of daycare, improvement of social services delivery, and underemployment.” The implementation of the program centered around “demonstrations,” and citizen participation, aiming to break cycles of poverty. It focused on the same area as the city’s urban renewal projects, aiming to help about 21 percent of the city’s population.

Ultimately, according to their own report, High Point’s Model Cities failed to make a significant impact on the lack of adequate housing and underemployment. The success of Model Cities in High Point could be found in individuals: “from a simple sickle cell test, to a complete physical examination, from attendance at a summer basketball clinic, to a fully paid year in college, from ridding a home of rats to drug detoxification treatment.”³⁹ This outcome, however, was not unique to High Point. As Professor Brown concludes in her analysis of the Model Cities Program in Seattle, “even though the Great Society ethos sought to undermine the conditions of racial

³⁷ “Human Relations Body ‘In Neutral,’” *High Point Enterprise*, September 27, 1965.

³⁸ Elizabeth Brown, “Race, Urban Governance, and Crime Control: Creating Model Cities,” *Laws & Society Review*, Vol. 44, No. 3/4, September/December 2010, pp 769 – 803.

³⁹ “Model Cities Program Winds Down: Experiment Leaves Residue of Lessons,” *High Point Enterprise*, January 20, 1974, D1.



FIGURE 21 - HIGH POINT MODEL CITIES REPORT 1968-1974

and economic disenfranchisement, Model Cities recreated this disenfranchisement by not allowing state institutions...to be reformed and reconsidered.”⁴⁰ As the program wound down, the *High Point Enterprise* stated that the program “never became an integral part of city government,” and “promises may have been exaggerated in order to stimulate interest on the part of the poor and the [B]lacks who had become apathetic after lifetimes of broken promises.”⁴¹

Washington Street

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Washington Street was High Point’s hub for Black life and culture. It was home to Black professionals, businesses, and the famed Black-owned Kirby Hotel. In 1960, according to Glenn Chavis, “Washington Street’s Black business district had fifty-four businesses within a nine-block area as well as seventy-six residents.”⁴² In the latter half of the twentieth century, Washington Drive began to decay as businesses across the city integrated, and the historic area was largely ignored by the city.

In March of 1981, the City of High Point began a revitalization project of the Washington Drive Community, allotting \$155,000 in Community Development Block Grant funds (CDBG) from the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). A report released in December 1981 stated the funding was used to create a revolving loan fund for commercial development. Unlike the urban renewal attempts of the early- and mid-1960s, one of the goals of the project was to enable community members to be a part of the process. The area faced several problems, including crime, lack of commercial activity and jobs, as well as physical deterioration. There is little available documentation as to what became of the 1981 revitalization project, but it appears as though little changed in the historic area.

The High Point City Council adopted an ordinance on May 3, 1982, designating Kirby Hotel as a Historic Property and authorized \$50,000.00 for the revolving loan fund for Washington Drive. The historic designation, however, did not result in any major improvements to the building.

In 1993, an article in the *Greensboro News & Record* highlighted the Washington Drive community. Fourteen community members drafted eight proposals for the High Point City Council to improve the neighborhood, specifically addressing reducing drug activity, cleaning up vacant lots and renovating older homes. The eight proposals were intended to be the first step in a long-term effort to revitalize the community. One Washington Drive Community member, Al Campbell, was not optimistic though. “Some of these requests have been made since 1970,” he

⁴⁰ Elizabeth Brown, “Race, Urban Governance, and Crime Control: Creating Model Cities,” *Laws & Society Review*, Vol. 44, No. ¾, September/December 2010, pp 769 – 803.

⁴¹ “Model Cities Program Winds Down: Experiment Leaves Residue of Lessons,” *High Point Enterprise*, January 20, 1974, D2.

⁴² Glenn R. Chavis, *Our Roots, Our Branches, Our Fruit: High Point’s Black History, 1859 – 1960*, High Point Historical Society, 2010, 233.



FIGURE 22 - HIGH POINT HISTORIC WASHINGTON STREET MARKER

stated.⁴³ On April 15, 1993, City Council acknowledged the recommendations from the community and placed them on a pending list for further discussion. On July 15, 1993, a report regarding the status of Washington Drive Ad Hoc Planning was acknowledged by City Council. While the report was not included in the City Council minutes archived, the *Greensboro News & Record* outlined what the council approved: \$500,000 in community development funds, repair of streetlights, down-payment assistance from the federal government for potential homebuyers, and increased garbage collection.

In 2007 the City Council adopted the High Point Core City plan to revitalize the historic commercial district. On December 15, 2008, the Washington Drive portion of the Core City plan was unanimously approved by the High Point City Council after a public hearing.⁴⁴ The plan included the preservation of historic buildings, improved transportation, streetscapes, and public spaces, as well as a museum to honor High Point native John Coltrane. Many of these plans, however, never came to fruition.

In 2010 the Washington Street Historic District was added to the National Register of Historic Places. Despite repeated attempts to preserve and restore Washington Drive (Restored to Washington Street in 2010), the Kilby Hotel, a centerpiece of African American culture and history, collapsed during a storm in 2014. Today the site of the hotel is an empty lot.

Conclusion

In the 1976 report on racial housing patterns in High Point, the author states, “The most important question remaining is whether the city is doing everything it can to promote and maintain a high-quality living environment for all its citizens. Concern for equal opportunity and neighborhood stability should help focus the consideration of this question.”⁴⁵ Those are the issues the One High Point Commission is studying forty-seven years later. These are still issues because, in short, the City of High Point has made many promises to its Black residents but failed to fulfill them.

Of course, it is with the benefit of hindsight that we can reflect on the failings of the City of High Point to truly aid and uplift its Black citizens. Programs such as Model Cities made small impacts, but with time those small impacts failed to make permanent changes for the community. While the Human Relations Committee was formed with good intentions, its 1965 statement about a lack of racial issues that require their attention is simultaneously laughable and infuriating. And the paternalistic idea that High Point – along with many other cities – knew what was best for “their” Black citizens has repeatedly been proven wrong.

⁴³ John A. Nagy, “Washington Drive Tries For Better Neighborhood,” *Greensboro News & Record*, April 1, 1993, https://greensboro.com/article_cc81b085-6e8a-5706-bbb0-e02c9b1b9e18.html.

⁴⁴ City of High Point City Council, Meeting Minutes, Monday, December 15, 2008.

⁴⁵ *Racial Housing Patterns in High Point, 1960 – 1976*, 3.

Several historians have written about the lasting effects of urban renewal and projects such as the ones High Point took on in the mid-twentieth century. Lizabeth Cohen writes about the evolution of urban renewal in her book *Saving America's Cities: Ed Logue and the Struggle to Renew Urban America in the Suburban Age* (2019). She contends that despite urban renewal projects of the mid-twentieth century, low-income residents still have few options in urban areas. While their labor keeps our cities afloat, it is now increasingly hard to survive with the influx of white-collar residents leaving the suburbs and moving to downtowns.⁴⁶ The gentrification of working-class and minority-majority neighborhoods, rising rents, and currently inflation has created a national crisis. In 2023 Guilford County ranked fourth in North Carolina evictions among renter households and 63,470 households were considered cost-burdened.⁴⁷ Yet every year the High Point Furniture market makes a \$6.3 Billion economic impact and brings international prestige to the City of High Point, proving Cohen's point that Black labor keeps cities running when they rarely see the benefits.⁴⁸

Cohen also contends, however, that despite the mistakes made, important lessons have been learned. As the City of High Point attempts to atone for past mistakes and to embark on a more equitable future for all its citizens, it must involve the individuals and communities they are trying to help the most. Additionally, as we see with High Point's failures in urban development projects, incremental development as opposed to mega-planning often results in more sustainable success and more community involvement.⁴⁹ Finally, as Cohen writes, "a better understanding of this history will hopefully reawake from a long slumber the will and wherewithal to revitalize cities that still struggle for economic survival, to invest in neighborhoods still lacking adequate services, and to improve the prospects for those Americans still poorly housed or, in worst cases, homeless."⁵⁰ A better understanding of High Point's history can hopefully at long-last remedy its most pressing problems.

⁴⁶ Cohen, *Saving America's Cities*, 16.

⁴⁷ North Carolina Housing Coalition, <https://nchousing.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/NCH-CountyProfile-Guilford.pdf>

⁴⁸ High Point Market, <https://www.highpointmarket.org/economicimpact>.

⁴⁹ Cohen, *Saving America's Cities*, 397.

⁵⁰ Cohen, *Saving America's Cities*, 398.

The Impact of Segregation in High Point: Health & Housing Disparities

Dr. Stephen J. Sills

Segregation in Southern Cities

Throughout the history of the United States, racial discrimination and segregation have been pervasive. In the early twentieth century, racialized planning emerged as a result of laws, zoning, and other restrictive practices in the newly developing Southern cities. These practices led to an uneven neighborhood landscape that impacted the life-course of residents, particularly Black residents. The consequences of racialized planning include limited access to good jobs, education, and amenities, as well as poor health outcomes and social vulnerabilities. Despite efforts to address these issues, the effects of past policies continue to persist.

In the early 1800s, Black and white residents in the South typically lived in close proximity, albeit with clear social and legal separations. As cities grew in the mid-1800s and after the Civil War, Black enclaves and neighborhoods began to form separately from white neighborhoods. During this period, Black citizens gained limited access to public resources but faced increasing legal and social pressures.

The Civil Rights Act of 1875 aimed to address racial discrimination and segregation that was beginning to emerge in the reconstruction era, but it was struck down by the Supreme Court in 1883. The Plessy v. Ferguson ruling in 1896 further solidified segregation by upholding the doctrine of "separate but equal." The ruling represented a missed opportunity for the abolition of race in America and led to further division and segregation. In the decades following the Plessy decision, urban segregation increased drastically as Black residents moved to city centers and white residents moved to outer neighborhoods and suburbs. White urban leaders pursued policies of racial containment, often resorting to violence to resist the influx of Black residents into their neighborhoods.

Cities in the South experienced racial sorting, with white and Black neighborhoods becoming increasingly separated. Racial politics and planning influenced the spatial evolution of cities like Charlotte, Greensboro, Atlanta, and Montgomery. As a result, communities of color were left with separate commercial, educational, religious, and recreational spaces.

Racial zoning and racial covenants were key policy tools for maintaining segregation in the South. Early racial zoning practices in cities like Atlanta, Birmingham, and Louisville designated certain neighborhoods as white-only, effectively controlling where Black residents could live or do business. Although the Supreme Court struck down race-based zoning in Buchanan v. Warley (1917), exclusionary zoning practices persisted in segregating communities indirectly.

In response to the *Buchanan v. Warley* ruling, individual homeowners and neighborhood associations turned to restrictive covenants as a means to exclude Black residents from white-only neighborhoods. These legally enforceable contracts attached to property deeds were supported by the National Association of Real Estate Boards and legitimized by the Supreme Court in *Corrigan v. Buckley* (1926). While the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) successfully challenged racial covenants in *Shelley v. Kraemer* (1948), white planners and elected officials found other ways to restrict and exclude Black residents, such as single-family zoning and restrictive building code requirements.

Federal policies in the early-to-mid 20th century also promoted racial segregation in housing markets. Agencies like the Federal Home Loan Bank Board (FHLBB) and the Home Owners' Loan Corporation (HOLC) limited access to capital and constrained housing choices for Black residents. The HOLC, in particular, was instrumental in implementing "redlining" practices, wherein predominantly Black communities were deemed unsafe investments for banks. The City Survey Program, which produced maps for 239 cities, used race as a factor for scoring and reinforced neighborhood racial segregation. These maps graded neighborhoods on a scale from A (most desirable) to D (least desirable). Redlined neighborhoods (Grade D) had the lowest homeownership rates, house values, and highest vacancy rates. Researchers have found strong evidence that HOLC maps contributed to the rise of urban racial segregation and the decline of Black neighborhoods during the post-WWII period.

The HOLC was not the only agency that limited access to capital for Black residents. The Veteran's Administration adopted mortgage policies based on Federal Housing Administration (FHA) requirements, which defined the presence of African Americans as an undesirable occurrence. The GI Bill of Rights, enacted in 1944, provided various benefits for returning World War II veterans, including guaranteed low-interest mortgages and other loans. However, while white veterans quickly took advantage of these benefits, Black veterans faced significant barriers. Only a fraction of eligible Black veterans received federally insured VA mortgage loans, effectively shutting them out of homeownership opportunities and wealth accumulation.

The exclusion of Black veterans from the GI Bill's mortgage benefits has had a lasting impact. If Black veterans had not been excluded, there would have been nearly 500,000 additional Black homeowners in the post-WWII period, allowing for intergenerational wealth acquisition and improved educational opportunities for their children.⁵¹ The fight against discriminatory federal policies persisted for decades before any meaningful changes occurred.

The Wagner-Steagall Housing Act of 1937 aimed to provide public housing by establishing the United States Housing Authority (USHA) and allocating \$500 million in loans for low-cost housing

⁵¹ Woods, Louis. (2018). "The inevitable products of racial segregation: multigenerational consequences of exclusionary housing policies on African Americans, 1910–1960." *The American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 77(3-4), 967–1012. DOI: 10.1111/ajes.12229

projects. Local Housing Authorities (LHAs) were created to select locations, finance construction, and manage housing through rent. Public housing was initially meant for the white working class who had been displaced by the Great Depression. However, the Housing Act of 1949 brought additional subsidized housing programs for low-income individuals, increasing the concentration of poverty, particularly in Black neighborhoods.

The segregated nature of public housing and its location in primarily poor and Black communities reinforced other government efforts to devalue housing in Black neighborhoods, making them undesirable. The concentration of poverty and race led the U.S. Department of Housing and Economic Development to attempt to disperse low-income communities throughout municipalities. In 1974, Congress authorized the Section 8 Housing Choice Voucher Program, but due to fair market rent cut-off points and the limited number of landlords accepting vouchers, most Section 8 units remained concentrated in poor neighborhoods of color.

Urban renewal, authorized under the Housing Acts of 1949 and 1954, aimed to clear slums, improve neighborhoods, and provide cheap land to private developers. However, too few units of public housing were built to replace those that were destroyed. The demolition of Black neighborhoods and replacement with high-density housing in other Black neighborhoods was one strategy of racial containment. Whites used urban renewal to extend the "color line," a long-standing and deeply destructive phenomenon of American society.

Urban renewal involved the demolishing of Black-owned businesses, churches, and residential neighborhoods to develop new parks and green spaces, expand hospitals and universities, and extend the nation's growing highway system. This led to the loss of thousands of Black-owned businesses, churches, and other institutions, further draining social and economic capital from these neighborhoods. Urban renewal lasted well into the 1960s, with over 2,100 projects and the loss of more than 425,000 housing units. The majority of those displaced (80 percent) were Black. The impact on individuals, institutions, and the social fabric of Black communities was significant, resulting in substantial financial costs for the displaced, increased debt, social and moral support removal, and lingering hostility and suspicion toward the white establishment.

The promise of urban renewal to municipalities included the removal of blight, reduction in crime, improvement in transit, increased quality of housing, more greenspaces and recreation, and an increase in the tax base. However, the results for the Black community were further concentration of poverty and social exclusion, gentrification and displacement of long-term residents, loss of wealth and homeownership, and loss of long-standing religious and economic institutions. Urban renewal could have brought redevelopment without displacement and accomplished most of the goals of renewal if it hadn't been infused with racism from the beginning and had included Black residents in the planning process.

Urban Renewal & the City of High Point

The City of High Point was founded on May 26, 1859, taking its name from surveyors of the North Carolina Railway who described the location as “the highest point on the line of survey” (High Point Museum 2015). Beginning with a small population of less than 300, High Point grew quickly during the late nineteenth century when burgeoning manufacturing economies were taking root across North Carolina’s Piedmont region. High Point’s first furniture factory was established around 1892, and by 1910 the city was home to more than 60 manufacturing enterprises (Farriss 1915; Whittington and Hoover 1910). In addition to furniture production, High Point industries included manufacturers of “paper, glass, trolleys, cash registers, organs, and machinery” (High Point Report 1987:12).

As workers migrated to the city for jobs, the demand for housing increased greatly. The early twentieth century saw a residential construction boom in High Point: “for the past five years... the town made the incomparable record of building a house every day in each year” (Whittington & Hoover 1910). During the 1920s the town’s population grew to over 22,000 residents (City Plan 1926). As a result of continued growth and following the Supreme Court decision which legalized zoning codes in the *Euclid v. Ambler Realty* case of 1926, High Point’s first city plan was developed in 1928 (Knowles 1928). The plan was “designed to improve the existing municipal facilities and to define a policy of development sufficient to provide for an anticipated growth of 50 years into the future” (Knowles 1928). Priorities identified in the plan included improvements to High Point roadways, along with the construction of new schools and recreation facilities.

The city hosted its first furniture exposition in 1921. During subsequent decades, the furniture industry in High Point grew rapidly, remaining centralized in the city core (Phillips 2014). As a result, a large majority of existing housing within High Point’s core city area was constructed before 1950 (High Point Core City Plan 2007). After growth declines experienced during World War II, the city’s industrial base experienced a second wave of rapid growth during the middle twentieth century. Other industries, such as textiles, were added to High Point’s manufacturing base. Also in this post-war period, the quality of furniture produced in High Point increased drastically. Warehouses were rapidly constructed up to the 1960s, and attendance at what is now known as the city’s International Home Furnishings Market grew.

Since the early 1970s, High Point has experienced a significant erosion of its manufacturing base. The globalization of trade, which has accelerated since the early 1990s, has compounded losses to the city’s economic fabric. Because of these large shifts, many of the structures, homes and neighborhoods built in earlier years have fallen into disuse and disrepair, leading to significant urban decay in High Point’s core city areas.

The East Central Area of High Point (US Census Tract 139) has been consistently recognized as one of the more blighted areas in the city core and was targeted for redevelopment in plans from

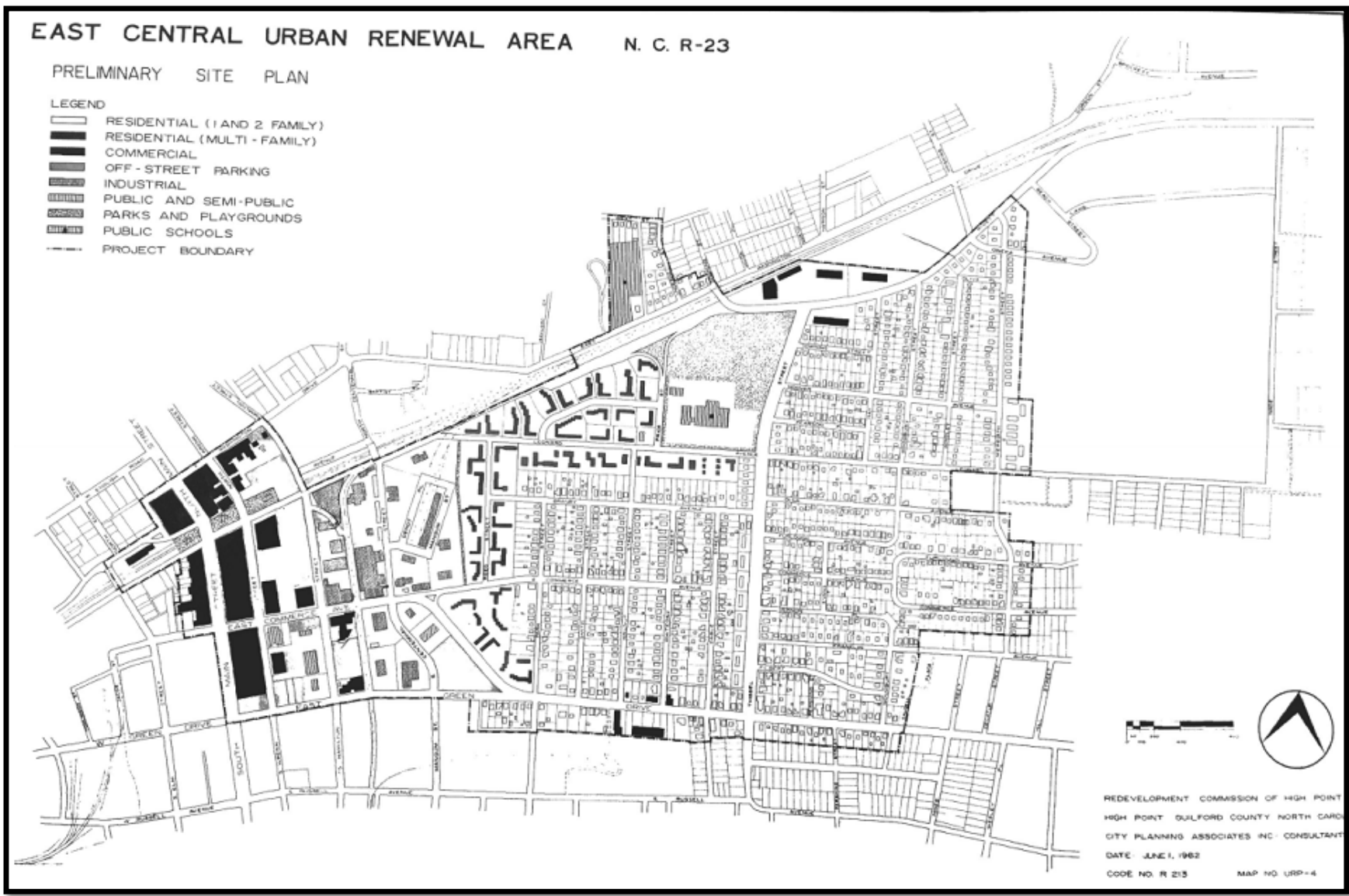


FIGURE 23 – EAST CENTRAL URBAN RENEWAL AREA (1962)

the 1960s and 1980s, in part based on racial composition of the neighborhood. As part of a 1962 urban renewal plan developed for this area, Planning Associates Inc. conducted external and internal assessments of properties in East Central High Point. In their final report, the surveyors classified 77% (1,061) of structures in this area as deficient. They cited several “blighting” influences in the area. These included obsolete buildings not suitable for rehabilitation or

conversion, buildings converted to unsuitable living uses, inadequate street layout, and undersized structures used for habitation. Planners proposed five renewal actions: 1) acquisition and clearance of dilapidated structures; 2) redevelopment of cleared areas for public and private use; 3) rebuilding and construction of streets, sidewalks, utilities and other public improvements; 4) provision and development of community facilities to serve the area adequately; and 5) rehabilitation of salvageable structures by individual owners and residents.

In 1986, the East Central Small Area Plan identified seven principal points of focus for revitalization efforts. These included: 1) the age, condition and appearance of existing housing stock, 2) economic conditions and neighborhood commercial investment, 3) optimal provision of city services, 4) recreational opportunities and facilities, 5) transportation infrastructure and services, 6) updating land use classifications and zoning codes, and 7) garnering community support and investment in revitalization efforts. Between 1985 and 1987, the City Council committed \$331,179 of CDBG funds to the East Central area. However, this budget fell short in meeting the required costs of the recommended development initiatives and housing rehabilitation efforts. Also, the CDBG grants were not guaranteed after 1987. Thus, the revitalization plans included reliance on growing private investment in the area to accomplish all of these goals.

The enduring legacy of segregation continues to impact the residents of High Point, as the exclusionary practices of the twentieth century have resulted in the persistent concentration of poverty and race, disinvestment in historically Black neighborhoods, limited educational and occupational opportunities, and restricted access to banking and credit. Moreover, these practices have prohibited homeownership and intergenerational wealth accumulation, creating social vulnerabilities that have led to increased risk for chronic and communicable diseases and lowered life expectancy. In this section, we will draw upon a series of studies conducted in High Point between 2015 and 2022, which examine racial disparities in health, workforce development, education, housing, transportation, community resources, and infrastructure. We repeatedly see in these reports the lasting impact of racialized planning on the residents of High Point.

Market Segmentation Study (2015)

Racial disparities in housing manifest in various ways, including limited access to essential amenities, substandard living conditions, and the repercussions of gentrification. The 2015 Market Segmentation Report conducted by UNC Greensboro for the City of High Point serves as a microcosm of the broader housing challenges faced by minority populations in the United States. The 2015 report utilizes the market segmentation methodology, which is the process of dividing an area by natural geographic boundaries and demographic, social, economic, political, and cultural divisions. The report details the market segmentation of various neighborhoods in High Point's Core City area, providing a brief description of each neighborhood, its population, and economic factors. The report highlights that many of the city's poorest neighborhoods, predominantly inhabited by racial minorities, lack access to good schools, healthcare, affordable and nutritious foods, retail shopping, and quality childcare. Furthermore, inadequate public transit systems exacerbate the difficulties faced by residents in these areas.

Recommendations for each neighborhood are also provided, with a focus on code enforcement, neighborhood associations, and targeted rehabilitation of properties. The full report can be found online at: <https://www.highpointnc.gov/DocumentCenter/View/7024>. The report categorizes neighborhoods into Stable, Functioning, Constrained, Weak, and Extremely Weak designations:

- **Stable Neighborhoods** are characterized by high property values, owner occupancy, and limited vacant land. Recommendations include enhanced code enforcement, neighborhood associations, targeted rehabilitation of properties, and infill opportunities.
- **Functioning Neighborhoods** have a mix of strengths and weaknesses. Recommendations focus on community action plans, addressing vacancy rates, stabilizing areas with high proportions of renters, and encouraging owner-occupancy through home-buyer assistance programs.
- **Constrained Neighborhoods** face challenges such as high rental and vacancy rates, high poverty, and unemployment. Recommendations include strategic investment, land banking or land trusts, owner-occupancy encouragement, code enforcement, and discouraging industrial development in some areas.

- **Weak Neighborhoods** are marked by high turnover, low owner-occupancy, and substandard housing conditions. Recommendations include home repair programs, neighborhood cleanup events, strategic investment, and planning for residential and industrial development.
- **Extremely Weak Neighborhoods** suffer from the highest levels of poverty, vacancy, and substandard housing. Recommendations involve large-scale investment, long-term planning, vacant lot infill, rehabilitating substandard housing, encouraging owner-occupancy, and selective residential development to avoid gentrification.

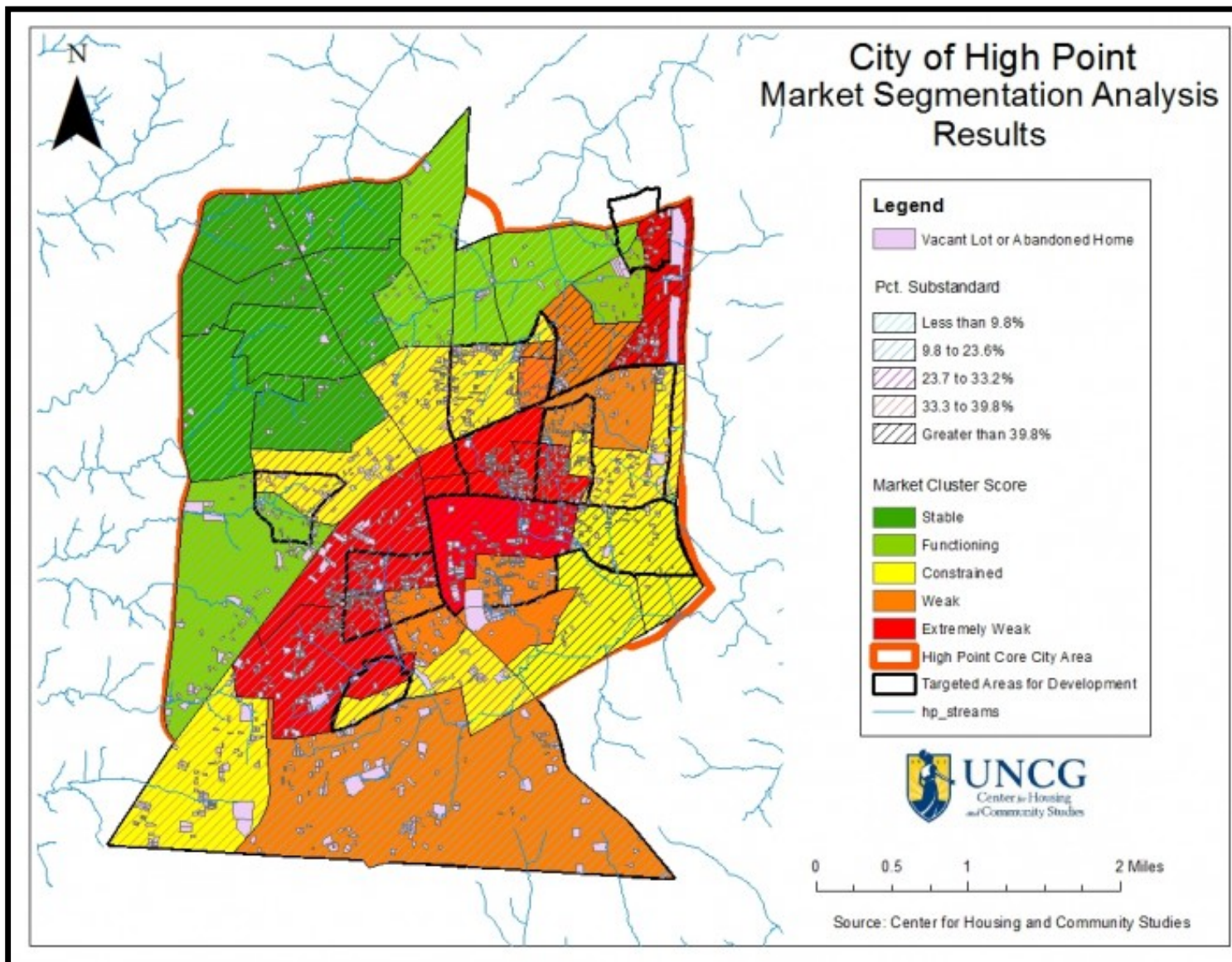


FIGURE 24 - MARKET SEGMENTATION MAP FOR HIGH POINT CORE CITY (2015)

Concentrated poverty, linked directly to historical racial planning and segregation, significantly impedes fair housing choices as those living in impoverished areas must spend more time and money to access essential goods and services, entertainment, and work opportunities. This situation also impacts children's well-being, as parents struggle to find suitable daycare options while they work. Consequently, these disparities in housing and access to resources often perpetuate a cycle of poverty for marginalized communities.

To combat racial disparities in housing and promote equitable development, the report suggests prioritizing inclusionary zoning codes, mixed-income housing developments, and affordable housing in areas with better opportunities. At the same time, it recommends attracting young renters and homebuyers to the city's core area through incentives, mixed commercial land use, and investments in environmental and neighborhood amenities, green spaces, walkability, and integrated public transit systems. These strategies can help create vibrant, diverse, and sustainable urban centers that benefit all residents, regardless of their racial or socioeconomic background. To achieve these goals, building public-private partnerships, developing equity-focused planning strategies, and effectively targeting scarce public resources is crucial. Engaging community members in the decision-making process is also essential to ensure that redevelopment efforts are sensitive to the needs of existing residents and avoid unintentional displacement or gentrification.

High Point Health Report Card (2016)

Racial disparities in health outcomes are an important issue that has garnered considerable attention within the United States. In 2016, the Foundation for a Healthy High Point commissioned a "Health Report Card" by researchers at UNC Greensboro. The information used in the analysis was derived from various sources, including the State Center for Health Statistics, the CDC 500 Cities Project, and the High Point Regional Hospital. By exploring the impact of race and ethnicity on health outcomes, the report card sheds light on the need for tailored interventions to address these disparities and promote health equity. An interactive map and data collected for the project are available at: <https://tinyurl.com/HealthyHighPoint>.

The report found that one in five individuals lives in a census tract that is low income and has low access to food (22.6% or 24,429 individuals). Low-income, low-food access neighborhoods are limited to shopping at small neighborhood convenience and corner stores, where fresh produce and low-fat items are costlier or in short supply. Households with limited resources and access to healthy food substitute energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods at relatively low prices. These foods have been linked to obesity, type 2 diabetes, and heart disease. In High Point, one-in-ten adults consume less than one serving of fruits or vegetables daily. Neighborhoods that lack access to supermarkets have much higher rates of not eating fruits and vegetables.

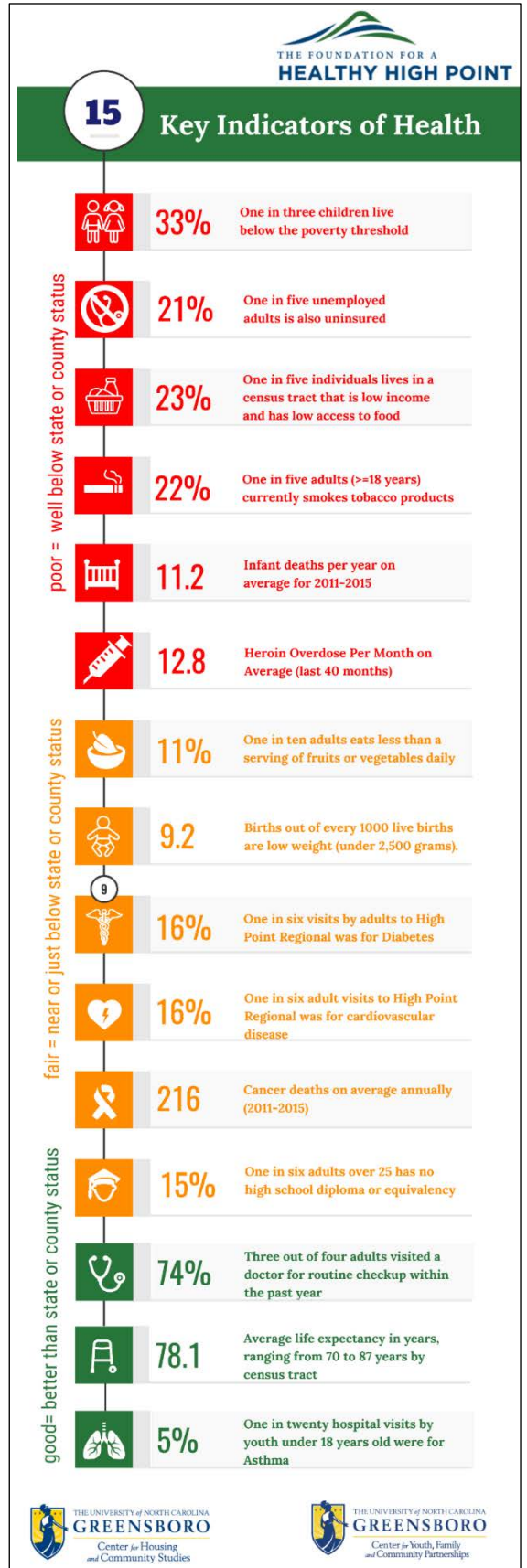
Poverty is a fundamental cause of negative health outcomes. Children living in impoverished households are at higher risk for a wide variety of health and social problems and poverty is a predictor of long-term negative outcomes and fewer life-course opportunities. High Point struggles with a higher rate of child poverty compared to both North Carolina and Guilford County. In High Point, 32.9% of children live below the poverty threshold, a rate that is 8.4 percentage points higher than the state average and 7.9 percentage points higher than Guilford County.

High Point's infant mortality rate is higher than both the state and Guilford County averages. While North Carolina's rate is 7.2 deaths per 1,000 live births and Guilford County's rate is 7.9, High Point accounts for 23.2% of infant deaths in the county but just 20% of the population.

Alarming, there is a significant difference in infant mortality rates by race and ethnicity, with African American infants experiencing double the rate of non-Hispanic white infants. Addressing this racial disparity and reducing the overall rate of infant mortality should be prioritized, as infant mortality is an important measure of a community's health care quality and access to preventive care.

Similarly, 9.2 out of every 1,000 live births in High Point result in infants weighing less than 2,500 grams. This rate is slightly higher than the state average of 8.8 live births per 1,000 and slightly lower than the Guilford County rate of 9.8 live births per 1,000. A goal was made to reduce the rate of low-birth-weight babies to the North Carolina level or lower.

In High Point, chronic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and cancer have significant implications on the overall health of the community. The city experiences disparities in the prevalence and outcomes of these diseases, with certain racial and ethnic groups disproportionately affected. One in six of all adult visits to High Point Regional Hospital were attributed to cardiovascular disease (2017). The rate of cardiovascular



diseases in the city ranges from 53 per 100,000 to 522 per 100,000 (three times the state average of 163 per 100,000) depending on the census tract. By comparison, Guilford County has a rate of 143.1 per 100,000. Reducing the overall rate of cardiovascular disease and hospital admissions should be a priority for the community.

Diabetes is another prevalent chronic disease in High Point, with 16.1% of all adult visits to High Point Regional Hospital attributed to this condition. According to the CDC, 11.2% of adult residents in High Point have diabetes, compared to 9.9% of adults in North Carolina. Reducing the overall rate of diabetes to the level of the rest of the state and minimizing hospital admissions should be a priority.

Cancer is the second leading cause of death in the United States, with various genetic, lifestyle, and environmental factors contributing to its development. In High Point, cancer accounts for 19.5% of deaths, which is on par with its proportion of the population in Guilford County. However, the data does not provide specific information on the distribution of cancer deaths across different racial and ethnic groups. Nonetheless, it is well-established that racial and ethnic minorities, particularly African Americans, suffer disproportionately from various forms of cancer, such as lung, breast, prostate, and colorectal cancers.

Asthma is a significant health concern for children in High Point, Guilford County, and North Carolina. In 2015, 5.1% of hospital visits by youth under 18 years old in High Point were for asthma, with one zip code (27260) accounting for nearly half of all cases. The [2015-2016 Guilford County Community Health Assessment](#)⁵² identifies asthma as the leading health condition among K-12 students in Guilford County Schools for the 2014-2015 academic year. Asthma rates are influenced by higher-than-average poverty and uninsured rates, which are more prevalent among racial and ethnic minority populations. Disparities in asthma prevalence are evident by race, ethnicity, and geospatial segregation, largely among residents of rental units.

The connection between unhealthy housing and the prevalence of asthma has been established in several studies. These studies show that racial and ethnic minorities, particularly African Americans and Hispanics, are more likely to reside in areas with substandard housing conditions, resulting in increased exposure to allergens, pollutants, and other asthma triggers. Moreover, they are less likely to have access to quality healthcare services and preventive measures, exacerbating the disparities in asthma prevalence and management.

In the 40 months before the report, there had been an average of 12.8 heroin overdoses per month, a significant increase from 6.4 in 2015. According to the North Carolina Department of Health and Human Services, the opioid death rate for Black residents had increased 154%

⁵² <https://cdn.atrriumhealth.org/-/media/wakeforest/clinical/files/about-us/health-needs-assessment/fy-17--19-hprh-chna.pdf>

between 2015 and 2020.⁵³ This rise was a serious concern for the City of High Point, as overdose deaths also increased. Programs were created to increase the availability of treatment and naloxone, a medication that reverses the effects of opioid overdoses.

Life expectancy is a summary indicator of mortality and, by proxy, the health of a community. In High Point, the average life expectancy is 78.1 years, which is slightly lower than the mean for Guilford County (78.9 years) but higher than the North Carolina average (77.7 years). However, life expectancy varies significantly within High Point, with a difference of up to 17 years depending on the area of residence.

This variation in life expectancy can be attributed to a combination of factors, including food and nutrition, access to healthcare and preventive medicine, basic living standards, lifestyle, and education. Racial and ethnic minorities, particularly African Americans and Hispanics, are more likely to face challenges in these areas, resulting in a lower life expectancy compared to their White counterparts. For instance, access to quality healthcare services and preventive measures is often limited for racial and ethnic minority populations due to factors such as lower socio-economic status, lack of insurance, and language barriers. Additionally, these populations are more likely to reside in areas with limited access to healthy food options, leading to higher rates of obesity and chronic diseases. Furthermore, racial and ethnic minorities often face challenges related to lower educational attainment, limited job opportunities, and higher levels of stress due to discrimination and social isolation, all of which contribute to poorer health outcomes and lower life expectancy.

Behavioral Health Study (2017)

In 2017, the Foundation for a Healthy High Point commissioned a behavioral health study by researchers at UNC Greensboro. The project aimed to identify the most impactful behavioral health issues affecting Greater High Point, identify preventative and intervention resources and actions currently addressing these behavioral issues, identify community outcomes that can be realized by addressing these issues, and recommend actions to either support existing prevention or intervention work or to support the establishment of new prevention/intervention actions.

The methodology included a conceptual framework, contextual framework, and interviews/focus groups with behavioral health services informants. The conceptual framework involved a systematic approach to identify behavioral health issues and ensure that the information gathered was comprehensive and accurate. The contextual framework helped to understand the community's characteristics, including demographics, history, and culture. Interviews were conducted with 21 professionals involved with behavioral health services in Greater High Point, and two focus groups were held involving these informants.

⁵³ <https://www.ncdhhs.gov/opioid-and-substance-use-action-plan-data-dashboard>

The first two steps of the behavioral health needs assessment involved conducting key informant interviews and focus groups. Key informants identified anxiety and depression as the major perceived behavioral health issues for individuals in High Point. Focus group sessions further identified specific themes, including the need for residential and outpatient services for homeless individuals with severe psychiatric diagnoses, increased access to resources for reporting mental health and substance use incidents, and establishing community day centers for homeless individuals with psychiatric diagnoses.

Life-stage was identified as an important factor in determining the likelihood of experiencing certain behavioral health issues. Adolescents are more prone to developing conditions such as depression, anxiety, ADHD, autism, physical fights, alcohol use, and substance abuse. In adults, the most common behavioral health issues are depression, anxiety, opioid use, substance abuse, schizophrenia, and bi-polar disorder. As people age, they may continue to experience depression and anxiety, but these conditions become even more prevalent in older adults. The study emphasized the need for healthcare providers and caregivers to understand the specific behavioral health issues that can arise at different life stages to provide appropriate treatment and support to those in need.

The study identified various population groups that are most impacted by behavioral health issues, including substance users, those with a criminal record, veterans, homeless individuals, older adults, and Hispanics. Risk factors for behavioral health issues were also discussed, including poverty, lack of education, adverse childhood experiences, genetics, and homelessness. The study noted that individuals with behavioral health issues affect their families and communities through indirect impacts, such as increased taxes to support social services, and collateral crimes associated with substance misuse and addiction. Available resources to address the issue included churches, community clinics, public service programs, and peer support services. However, barriers to addressing behavioral health needs were also identified, including access to services, engagement, lack of case management, and funding.

The study revealed various barriers to behavioral health care, including limited insurance coverage, lengthy intake processes, lack of follow-up care, lack of residential recovery programs and medication therapy, insufficient mechanisms for screening and assessing behavioral health issues, and stigma around seeking assistance. The lack of prevention services and services for adolescents, as well as resources for police officers, were also identified as barriers. The report also noted that ineffective drug laws and inherent biases in treatment and the criminal justice system contribute to the problem. The study recommended increased investment in public education and mental health education to address these issues.

Addressing racial disparities and transitional justice may have significant implications for addressing behavioral health issues in the Greater High Point community. For instance, racial and ethnic minority populations were identified as one of the specific populations directly impacted

by the lack of available resources in the area. This indicates a need to address any existing racial disparities in access to behavioral health care services and resources. Addressing these disparities could involve increasing funding and resources for community clinics, public service programs, and peer support services in areas with larger minority populations. The study recommended several solutions, including new programs with law enforcement and criminal justice systems, supervised substance abuse facilities, public education, and partnerships between hospitals and homeless shelters. Other potential topics for discussion included the broken or ineffective systems in place, inherent racial/ethnic bias in treatment, and the need for more job programs and public education.

Additionally, the experts noted that inherent biases in treatment and the criminal justice system contribute to the problem. This highlights the need for transitional justice measures to address systemic biases and promote equitable access to behavioral health care. Such measures could include reviewing and reforming drug laws, establishing new programs with law enforcement and criminal justice systems, and partnering with hospitals and homeless shelters.

Resilience High Point Needs Assessment (2019)

The Resilience High Point needs assessment study was commissioned by the Hayden-Harman Foundation to provide a baseline as Resilience High Point began its process of community revitalization, addressing issues of trauma among High Point residents, and enhancing service coordination between agencies service families in the community. The study included a review of the most recent socio-demographic and economic data, interviews with key informants, and surveys of residents, and focus groups with residents to seek community input. The full report can be found at: <https://chcs.uncg.edu/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/FINAL-Report-Resilience-High-Point.pdf>

The needs assessment identified five key issues that the community must address to achieve success: 1) community violence as an economic issue, 2) lack of safe affordable rental housing in high opportunity neighborhoods, 3) limited access to food, medical care, behavioral health services, and jobs, 4) availability and cost of childcare, and 5) substance use. The report provided recommendations for each issue. These disparities cut across various aspects of life, including housing, employment, education, healthcare, and criminal justice. The persistence of these disparities indicates the need for action to address the structural and systemic factors that sustain them.

Concerns over safety and crime were found to be a significant issue for High Point residents. According to survey data collected, 60.9% of High Point residents worry about crime. Respondents to the survey also expressed concerns about unsafe living conditions, bad housing conditions, and poor public transit. Community members in focus groups and write-in responses expressed fear of crime, increasing violence, gangs, and the need for more policing. The number



Resilience High Point Community Needs Assessment



#1

ADDRESS COMMUNITY VIOLENCE

Treat violence as an symptom of economic issues. Increase social/recreational options specifically targeted to young men in southwest and southern neighborhoods. Link services with mentorship, GED, job training, and paying apprenticeship programs. Create workforce development and entrepreneurship programs that link k-12, community college, and economic development together. Recognizing addiction as a work-force readiness issue.

#2

SAFE AFFORDABLE HOUSING

Develop affordable housing units especially for households whose incomes are less than 30% of the Area Median Income in high opportunity areas. Simultaneously, push for local inclusionary ordinances and revise single-family zoning preferences may open new opportunities for development outside of the Core City. Aligning land-use policy, significant funding, political will, and public support will take a coordinated effort.

#3

ACCESS TO FOOD, HEALTH CARE, JOBS

Promote and encourage the use of Hi Tran among all social service agencies, government services, medical and health facilities, and even retail establishments by providing subsidized or free unlimited ride 30-day passes to families in target neighborhoods. By increased ridership, institutional partnerships, and through increased public petitioning to Hi Tran for more frequent service, later evening service, and more routes.

#4

PROVIDE CHILDCARE

Provide programs for low cost or free childcare in target neighborhoods and at key service providers. Provide parent and staff education on the role of trauma and chronic stress in children's compromised development and training to encourage the development of protective factors to buffer stress. Consider a "Resilience" approach which addresses both adverse childhood events (ACEs) and trauma-informed practice.

#5

TREAT SUBSTANCE USE

Addiction and substance use should be treated as public health issue rather than criminal justice issue. Public health intervention must be multipart and include: Prevention, Diversion, Deterrence, Harm Reduction, Detox/Rehab, and Long-term Recovery. Attempts must be made to address the local need for detox facilities, recovery programs, and of long-term recovery support. Mental health services should be greatly expanded.

FIGURE 25 - COMMUNITY RECOMMENDATIONS

of violent crimes in High Point declined from 832 in 2007 to 505 in 2014, but it had begun to rise again in 2019. The highest rates of violent crimes were in the core of High Point, either in an urban, industrial space or along a busy highway corridor. The West End neighborhood and the West Fairfield neighborhood had the highest rates of violent crime.

High Point's centrality and its proximity to major highways and an airport have contributed to the illicit trade of opiates. The highest rate of opioid deaths occur in the Burns Hills neighborhood and Harvell Park historically had the highest rates of opioid and unintentional death rates. Community members noted issues with substance use and drugs and expressed concerns about the lack of substance use programs and the impact of adverse childhood experiences on substance use.

One of the most striking examples of racial disparities in High Point was the lack of safe, affordable rental housing in high-opportunity neighborhoods. As the report notes, more than half of renters in High Point are cost-burdened, meaning they pay more than 30% of their income towards rent. This puts around 10,000 households at risk of eviction due to unforeseen circumstances like car repairs, hospitalizations, or high-utility bills. The lack of affordable choices in neighborhoods with good schools, low crime rates, and nearby employment opportunities was an underlying issue that further segregates those with low incomes in precarious communities with few assets.

Another significant example of racial disparities in High Point was limited access to food, medical care, behavioral health services, and jobs. Transportation issues emerged as a key barrier to accessing these resources. Low-income individuals and families often lacked the means to access these services due to inadequate public transportation options or high transportation costs. The report recommends promoting and encouraging the use of public transportation among all social service agencies, government services, medical and health facilities, and even retail establishments by providing subsidized or free unlimited ride 30-day passes to families in target neighborhoods. Encouraging Medicare recipients, senior citizens (age 60 and over), and disabled persons to take advantage of half-fare programs can also increase ridership. The report suggests that increasing transportation choices and decreasing transportation costs may lead to better immediate outcomes, especially when paired with SNAP/EBT or other benefits.

The report also highlights the need to address community violence as an economic issue. Community violence and safety concerns were pervasive in all conversations with residents in High Point. Poverty, crime, violence, and substance use are all geographically concentrated in the center and south of the city and attributed largely to youth who have poor educational attainment, few employment opportunities, and few social/recreational options. The report recommends providing more social/recreational options specifically targeted to young men in southwest and southern neighborhoods. These services should be linked with mentorship, GED, job training, and paid apprenticeship programs in industries like housing construction, skilled

trades, electronics, and manufacturing. Creating workforce development and entrepreneurship programs that link K-12, community college, and economic development together can create a pipeline to employment rather than prisons. Addressing unemployment, underemployment, and low wage part-time employment as economic issues is critical. Recognizing addiction as a workforce readiness issue is also essential.

A final area of significant racial disparity in High Point was access to affordable childcare. Childcare is essential for parents to be able to work, engage in civic activities, access education and medical services, and address issues related to poverty, food insecurity, and employment. The report notes that more options for families are needed to increase access to childcare, especially for those with limited means. The report recommended creating proactive approaches for serving children in poverty-impacted communities. Early brain development research has demonstrated that birth to age five is a critical period in the development of language, executive functioning, and emotional regulation. Extra efforts should be made to provide programs for low cost or free childcare in target neighborhoods and at key service providers.

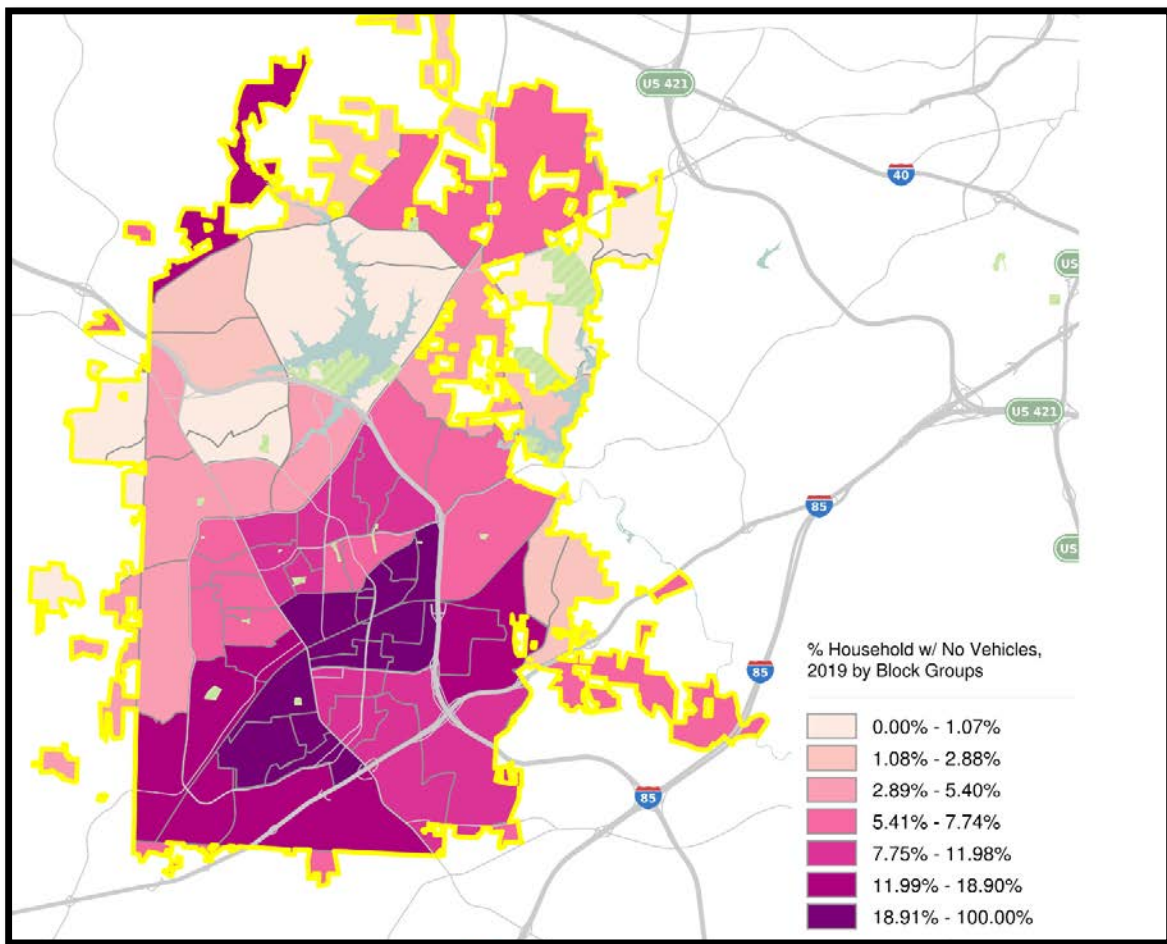


FIGURE 26 - HOUSEHOLDS w/NO VEHICLE (2019)

Residential Drinking Water Quality Study (2020)

Drinking water quality is essential to public health as it plays a crucial role in preventing waterborne diseases and ensuring overall well-being. Access to safe and clean drinking water is a basic human right. However, in many areas, this right is not equally distributed, leading to significant disparities in water quality and the subsequent impact on health outcomes. Census Tract 143 in High Point serves as a case study to explore the importance of drinking water quality to health and its relationship with racial inequality.

Clean drinking water is vital for maintaining good health. Contaminated water can lead to a range of illnesses, including gastrointestinal disorders, neurological disorders, and reproductive problems. In some cases, exposure to contaminated water can be fatal. Drinking water quality is regulated by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in the United States, which establishes primary and secondary standards for various contaminants to ensure the safety of drinking water supplies. A study conducted by researchers from the University of North Carolina Greensboro in 2020 assessed the drinking water quality in Census Tract 143 of High Point, North Carolina. Census Tract 143 in High Point is a diverse community with a significant proportion of African American, Hispanic, and low-income residents. According to the American Community Survey (2014-2018), nearly half of the households in the area earned below \$25,000, and about 64.3% of individuals were living below the poverty line. The community also experiences higher rates of chronic diseases and lower life expectancy compared to other areas in Guilford County.

The study found that several contaminants, such as lead, mercury, chromium, nitrate, and sulfate, exceeded national standards in some homes. Of particular concern was the presence of lead, a neurotoxin that can have severe health effects, especially on children's cognitive development. The study found 50% of homes tested high in mercury, 25% for lead, and 7% chromium higher than US-EPA drinking water standards.

Racial inequality plays a significant role in the disparities observed in drinking water quality in this community. Older and lower-income neighborhoods, which are predominantly occupied by people of color, are more likely to have aging water infrastructure and lead pipes. This increases the likelihood of exposure to contaminants such as lead, which can have long-lasting health impacts. Moreover, the community's socioeconomic status may limit residents' ability to invest in home water filtration systems or access alternative sources of clean water. The high rates of chronic diseases and lower life expectancy in this community can be attributed in part to the poor quality of drinking water, highlighting the need for targeted interventions to address racial disparities in water quality and infrastructure. Findings from the study are reported in the *Journal of Exposure Science and Environmental Epidemiology* at: <https://rdcu.be/cnkHZ>.

Assessment of Social Health Drivers for High Point (2022)

A 2022 study by the National Institute of Minority Economic Development commissioned by the Foundation for a Healthy High Point aimed to identify disparities in healthcare access and health outcomes based on income, race, gender, and other social attributes, and to recommend strategies for improving health equity in the region. Indeed, the report found that the diverse and growing population of over 113,000 residents in High Point faces significant challenges in ensuring equitable access to quality healthcare for all its citizens.

High Point faces significant health challenges, including high rates of chronic illnesses such as obesity, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, arthritis, and diabetes. Unhealthy behaviors like insufficient sleep, lack of physical activity, smoking, and binge drinking further exacerbate these health issues. Additionally, as of February 2022, only 60% of Guilford County residents were fully vaccinated against COVID-19, with higher vaccination rates observed in areas north and west of High Point.

Life expectancy in High Point varies significantly, with the average life expectancy in the region being 75.6 years, with a range of 15 years from 69.3 to 84.5 years. Most neighborhoods within High Point fall below the estimated life expectancy for North Carolina, which is 78.1 years. Cancer and heart disease accounted for approximately 39% of all deaths in 2019, highlighting the significant impact of chronic illnesses on the city's population.

The study found that life expectancy, used as the outcome variable in the Health Equity Score, was highly correlated with social determinants such as poverty, home ownership, access to preventative care, the prevalence of chronic health issues, and community safety. Preventative care was positively associated with longer life expectancy and better health equity within a neighborhood. Moreover, individuals experienced access to and quality of healthcare differently based on social characteristics such as age, race/ethnicity, gender or sexual identity, and other social statuses. The majority (87.6%) of survey respondents believed that some groups received better healthcare than others, with non-white respondents reporting more severe barriers to care than white respondents.

High Point's household median income is about 20% lower than state averages, with 18% of the population living in poverty. The city displays significant income variability, with some neighborhoods having high median household incomes (above \$75,000) and others having a median of less than \$13,500. Median household income was found to be one of the strongest predictors of life expectancy.

Educational attainment in High Point is linked to economic opportunity and income. Approximately 18.9% of the adult population has less than a high school education, and the proportion of the population with a college degree (BA or higher) is about 6% lower than the

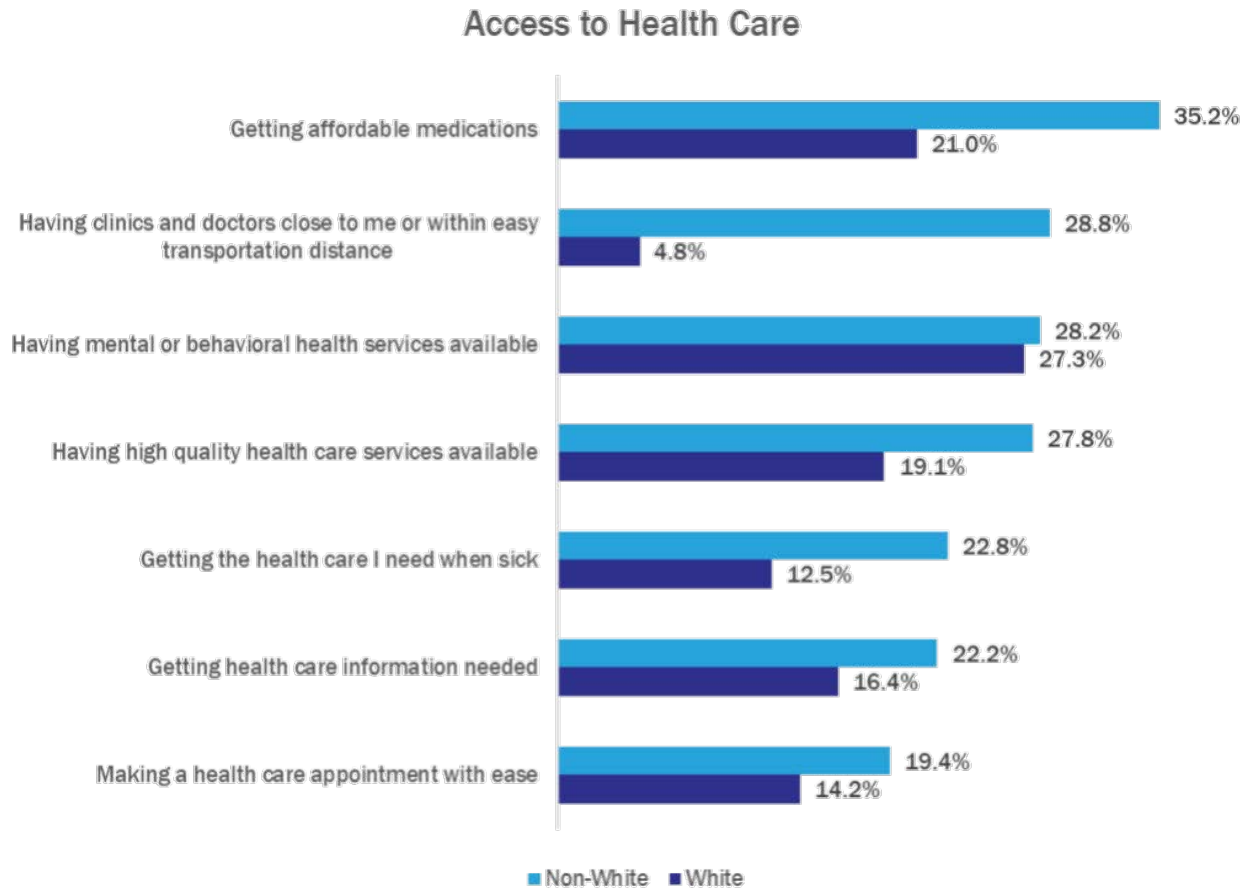


FIGURE 27 - RACIAL DISPARITIES IN SELF-REPORTED HEALTHCARE ACCESS

average for Guilford County. Unemployment rates in the city remain higher than in neighboring Greensboro, and certain census tracts have unemployment rates twice the city average.

Community violence, often related to poverty, mental health, and substance misuse, significantly impacts health through premature death, fear of victimization, and reduced access to health-promoting resources. High Point has a higher crime rate compared to both the state and the nation. Perceptions of safety and crime in one's neighborhood were found to be negatively correlated with life expectancy.

The built environment in High Point affects community health through factors such as housing, transportation, walkability, and access to parks and recreational facilities. Many low-income neighborhoods have limited access to affordable, healthy food options and quality housing, which further contribute to health disparities.

Access to healthcare services, including preventative and specialty care, was identified as a significant barrier to achieving health equity in High Point. The city has a lower rate of primary care providers and mental health professionals compared to state and national averages. Furthermore, the city has fewer medical facilities per person than neighboring Greensboro, and

transportation barriers limit access to care for many residents, especially those without a personal vehicle.

A Health Equity Score was computed and mapped for High Point. This score compares health and well-being relative to other census block groups within the city. The socio-demographic, community safety, preventative health care, chronic disease, and wellness indicators were compiled. Above zero means more protective factors related to health outcomes and below zero means more negative population health metrics or social determinants. From the map, you can see that relative to other blocks in the city, those in the Core City have the worst health outcomes and health equity issues.

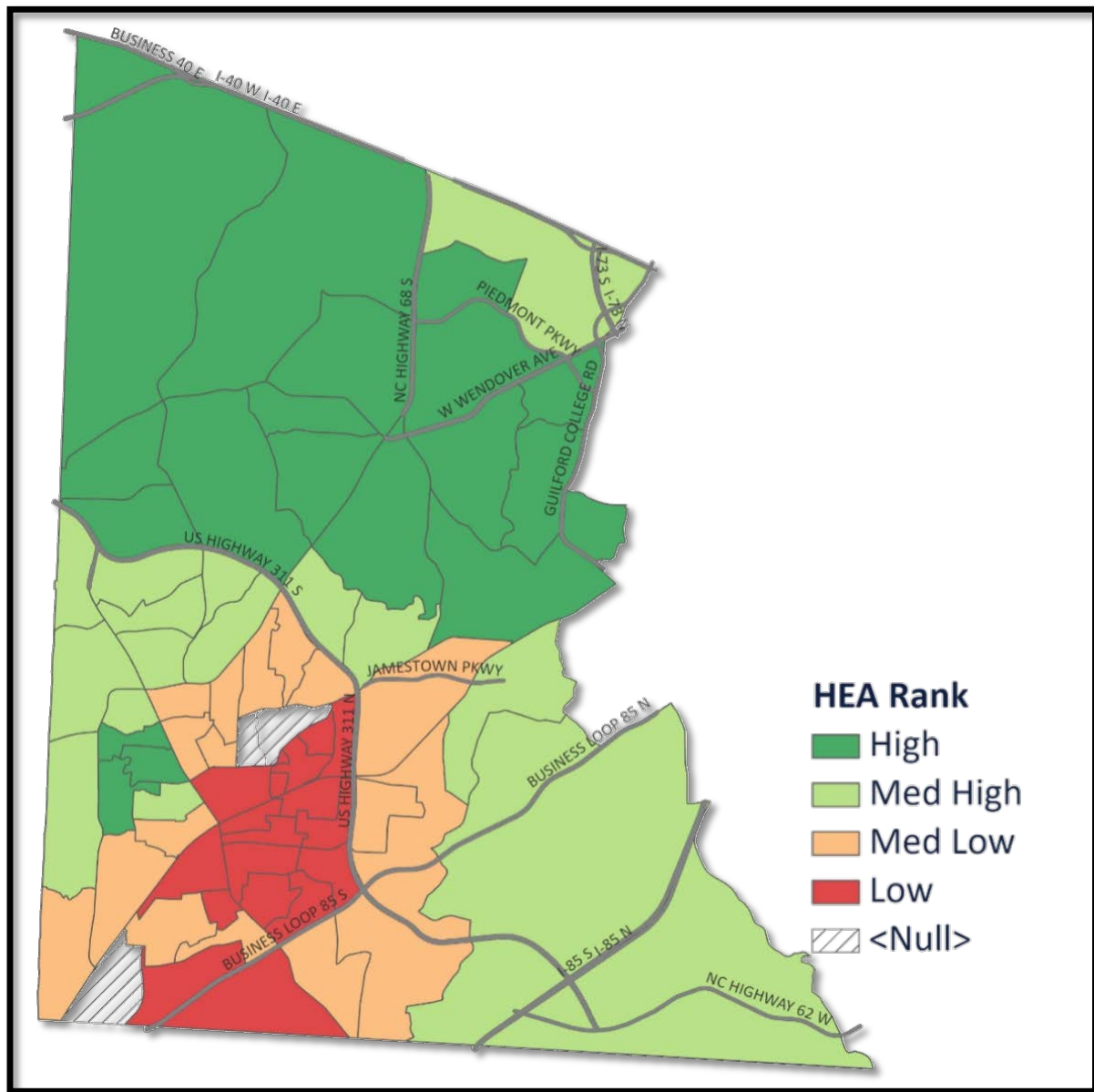


FIGURE 28 - HEALTH EQUITY SCORE

HealthySteps Needs Assessment (2022)

In 2022, researchers from the National Institute of Minority Economic Development conducted a study of the HealthySteps program in High Point North Carolina. The HealthySteps program is a model of population health that places a child development professional within a pediatric care team leveraging the pediatric practices as a primary point of contact for engaging parents and caregivers in educational training and resource referrals. Primary data collected for the study included 13 stakeholder interviews, 3 focus groups, and a parent survey (n=213). The full report may be found at: <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1cYUzLuYwYUzvS6v-zXMCUnrSU8v8K3fl/view>

Community members, pediatricians, medical center staff, and parents all reported positive experiences with the HealthySteps program. Clinical staff benefitted from the ability of HealthySteps Specialists to continue engagement with parents well after office visits and to work on addressing social drivers like transportation, food, housing, and other issues.

The report found that the High Point area has a rapidly growing and diversifying population, with a majority of its residents facing moderate to high social vulnerability. Additionally, poverty and lack of economic opportunities were identified as underlying issues for High Point residents, leading to challenges with transportation, housing, food insecurity, and community violence and crime. Throughout the report, we see that the underlying issue for High Point residents is the lack of availability of well-paying jobs and high rates of poverty. Low wages lead to a lack of personal vehicles and difficulties with transportation, substandard or precarious housing conditions, food insecurity, and even community violence and crime. The impacts of poverty can be seen among the parents who participated in the study. Addressing low wages, lack of economic opportunities, lack of affordable childcare, and workforce equity issues should be a concern for all providers working with children and families in High Point.

Survey results showed that non-white respondents faced greater barriers to access to social services. Transportation is a major issue with a quarter of survey respondents not having personal vehicles. Three-quarters (74.4%) of non-white respondents also reported not having clinics and doctors within easy transportation distance and problems with getting healthcare information needed for their child (compared to 41.6% of white respondents). Disproportionate barriers by race/ethnicity were also seen in getting information regarding child development or milestones, having adequate insurance, ability to afford co-pay, and getting after-hours care for a child when he/she is sick. The report offers several recommendations to ameliorate the structural barriers and inequalities that limit low- and middle-income families and improve the HealthySteps program

In the past 12 months, how much has each of the following been an issue for you or your children?

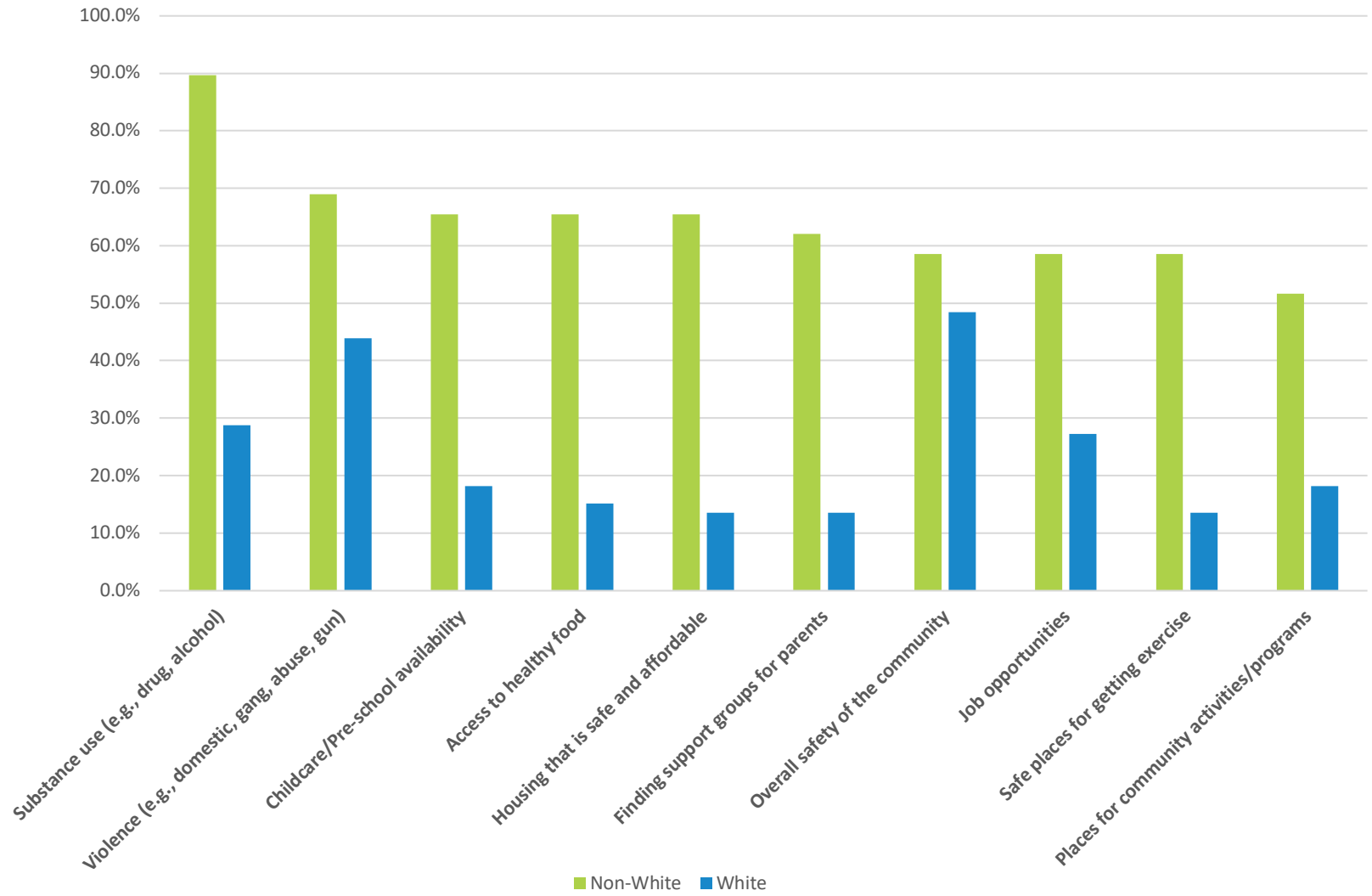


FIGURE 29 - SOCIAL DRIVERS OF HEALTH BY RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENTS IN HIGH POINT

Guilford County Workforce Needs Assessment (2023)

The National Institute of Minority Economic Development conducted a study on the workforce needs of Guilford County, North Carolina in 2023. The study found that vulnerable populations, including minorities, women, justice-involved individuals, individuals with disabilities, LGBTQ+, limited English proficient, older workers, and veterans, are being disadvantaged by systemic issues and structural causes. The pandemic has exacerbated existing inequalities, particularly for employed or job-seeking women. Non-white job seekers faced greater barriers to accessing social services. Among the most vulnerable of populations excluded from labor markets and some social benefits are those who have had justice involvement. The full report may be found at: <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1UWJkfTsYMalIG6JFgCLBs77qS2pBhMfb/view>

The report found that while employers and workforce development professionals talked about a worker shortage, jobseekers were having a difficult time. Many jobseekers are finding that their skills are not aligned with the demands of the current labor market, making it difficult for them to find employment. The current labor market is highly competitive, with many jobseekers competing for a limited number of good and well-paying positions available. This can be particularly challenging for individuals with limited experience, education, or skills. Or for retirees, women, and justice-involved individuals who are returning to the job market.

Despite low unemployment rates, many workers are facing stagnant or declining wages, making it difficult for them to make ends meet and achieve economic security. Many workers, particularly those in low-wage or part-time positions, lack access to benefits such as health insurance, paid time off, and retirement savings plans. This can make it difficult for them to manage their health and financial well-being. Jobseekers from marginalized communities, including people of color, women, and individuals with disabilities, often face discrimination and bias in the hiring process, making it difficult for them to find employment that matches their skills and experience.

Challenges faced by ethnic and racial minorities included limited opportunities and disparities in education and employment. Respondents emphasized the lack of diversity in leadership positions within organizations and highlighted efforts being made to address these issues through targeted programs. The survey data also indicates that some respondents perceive discrimination, particularly non-White individuals and women.

The report highlights several key issues facing the community, including access to adequate and affordable housing, reliable and affordable transportation, and education. Poor housing conditions, such as overcrowding, lack of basic amenities, and exposure to environmental hazards, can lead to poor health outcomes, including respiratory diseases, injuries, and stress-related conditions. Access to affordable and safe housing is also linked to better health outcomes, improved educational outcomes, and increased economic stability. Lack of access to

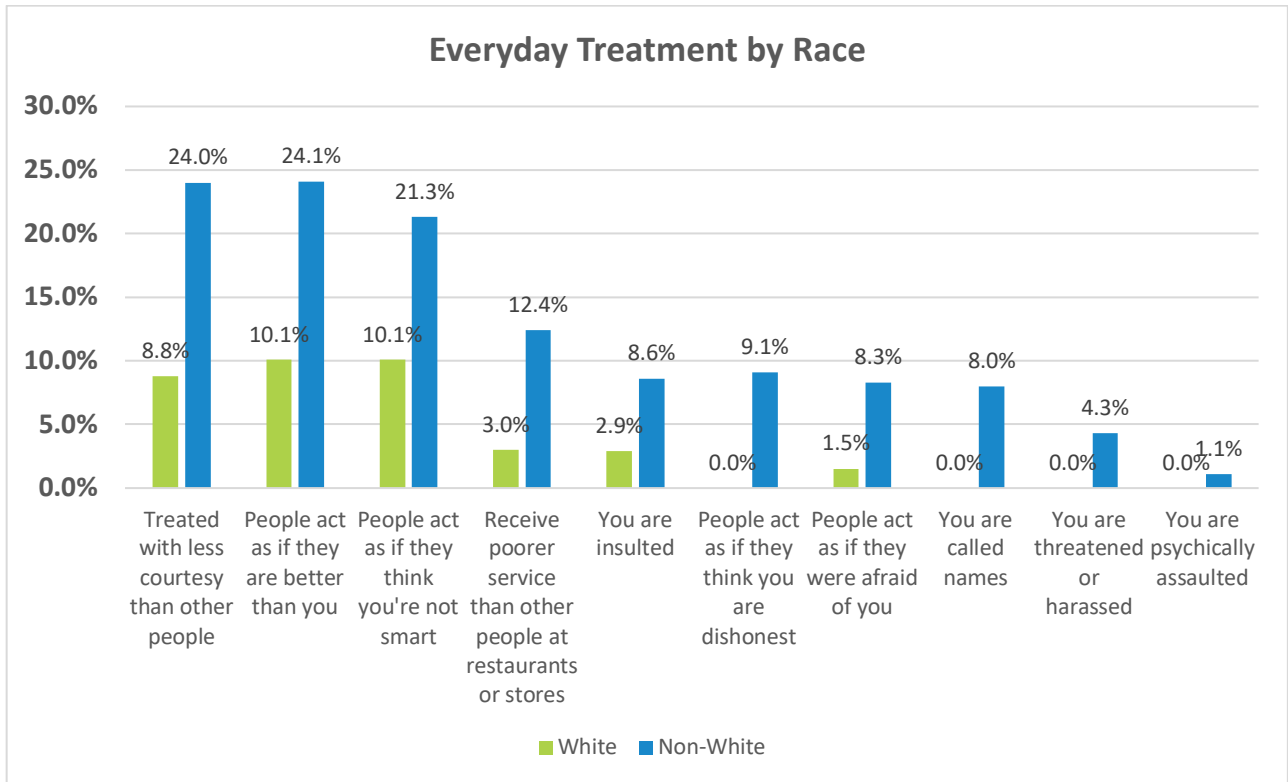


FIGURE 30 – EVERYDAY TREATMENT WHITE/NON-WHITE (WEEKLY OR MORE OFTEN)

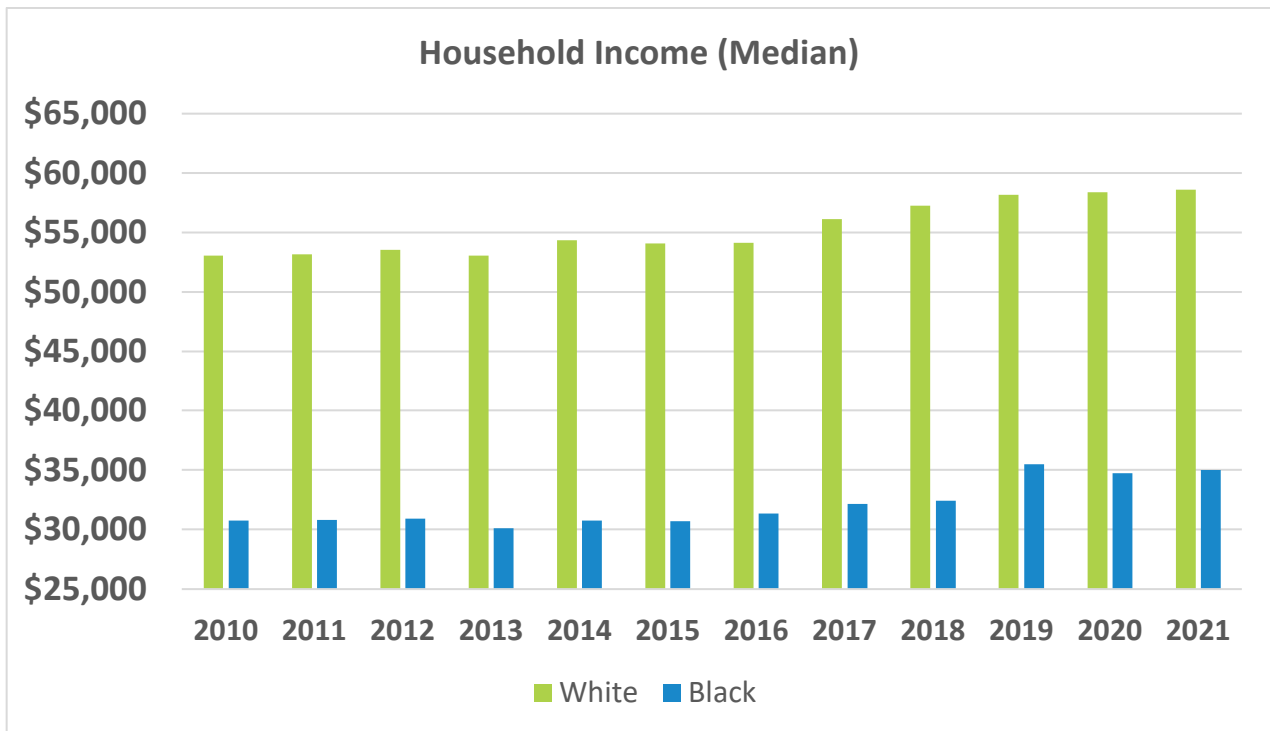


FIGURE 31 - MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME (ACS 2021)

transportation can limit access to health care, reduce economic opportunities, and increase social isolation. Inequities in the education system, including inadequate funding, inadequate facilities and resources, and disparities in academic achievement, can limit access to educational opportunities and limit the future prospects of marginalized groups.

The report also identified several key issues facing the community beyond workforce development, including inadequate and unaffordable housing, lack of access to reliable transportation, and inequities in education. These issues can impact not only employment opportunities but also health outcomes and overall well-being.

To address these challenges, the report offers several recommendations. One key recommendation is to improve tracking of referrals and communications between community partners, social service agencies, health systems, and workforce development organizations. This can be achieved through increased utilization of NCCARE360, a centralized system of care designed to support individuals and families as they navigate the health and human services system in North Carolina.

Key Themes across Studies

After thoroughly reviewing the reports, several interconnected themes emerge, all of which highlight the complex challenges faced by racial minorities in High Point.

A crucial thread running through all the reports is the marked economic disparity and lack of substantial job opportunities for racial minorities. Low wages and disproportionately high poverty rates are significant concerns in these communities. The lack of well-paying jobs and economic opportunities leads to low wages and high poverty rates, which in turn can cause a cascade of other issues such as lack of access to healthcare, inadequate transportation, unstable housing conditions, and food insecurity. Additionally, the labor market is highly competitive, and many job seekers find that their skills don't align with current market demands.

Racial minorities in High Point are significantly disadvantaged regarding access to healthcare services. Transportation issues and distance from medical facilities pose significant barriers to accessing needed healthcare. This lack of access is compounded by insurance concerns, such as the ability to afford co-pays and obtaining after-hours care. The deficit in primary care providers and mental health professionals in the area exacerbates the situation. Racial disparities in healthcare access further manifest in the availability of health-promoting resources, with a particular impact on non-white respondents as reported in the HealthySteps Needs Assessment.

Disparities in education emerged as a prominent theme in these reports. Racial minorities face significant challenges in achieving educational outcomes on par with other demographics. This limitation directly affects employment prospects and overall quality of life. There is a noted

deficiency in diversity within leadership positions, pointing to structural inequities that need addressing.

Access to quality, affordable housing and reliable transportation emerged as significant issues for racial minorities in High Point and Guilford County. Substandard housing conditions contribute to adverse health outcomes, while a lack of personal vehicles or access to public transportation can limit access to healthcare, economic opportunities, and social engagement. These factors interplay and contribute to an overall degraded quality of life for these communities.

Underlying all these issues is the theme of systemic discrimination. Racial minorities, in particular, face significant barriers to accessing social services, gaining employment, and obtaining economic security. This systemic bias is evident in the workforce, housing market, education, and healthcare systems, contributing to a cycle of marginalization and disadvantage.

Reparations and Restorative Justice

The history of racial segregation in the United States has created a legacy of disparities in housing, education, health, and wealth accumulation for Black communities. The perpetuation of these inequalities has been facilitated by policies and practices that have systematically devalued and disinvested in Black neighborhoods and Black people. As we have seen, these disparities have persisted into the twenty-first century, with the effects of historical segregation continuing to impact Black families through factors such as school segregation, limited access to resources, and health disparities.

As we have documented, racially-biased housing policies such as redlining, restrictive covenants, and urban renewal have systematically devalued and disinvested in Black neighborhoods. The historical practices of devaluation and disinvestment in Black neighborhoods persist in various forms in the twenty-first century. Single-family zoning practices, building codes and ordinances, Homeowners Associations, school catchment areas, location of parks and green spaces, lack of sidewalks and walkability, retail redlining, food deserts and food apartheid, and limited access to employment contribute to the ongoing segregation and devaluation of Black neighborhoods. As a result, homes in Black neighborhoods are worth less than those of equal quality in white neighborhoods. This reality continues to impact the 40% of Black families who own homes, as it reduces the potential for intergenerational wealth accumulation.

School segregation plays a significant role in maintaining segregated housing markets. Although racial segregation in schools in the South improved somewhat in the years following the Civil Rights movement, it has since returned to levels comparable to those 50 years ago. The correlation between Black-white neighborhood and school segregation within metropolitan areas remains extremely high and increased between 2000 to 2010. Housing costs are directly related to school demographics. Middle and upper-income Black households have left historically Black neighborhoods, resulting in increasing concentrations of lower-income students in schools

serving these areas. This leads to low-income African Americans attending predominantly Black and low-income schools.

These practices have resulted in a significant wealth gap between Black and white households, as well as limited access to resources and opportunities for Black communities. Moreover, school segregation, a direct outcome of segregated housing, has further perpetuated the cycle of inequality by denying Black students access to quality education and opportunities for social mobility. The disparities in health outcomes are also striking. Research has established a direct link between racial residential segregation and disparate health outcomes, with Black communities facing higher rates of chronic health issues and lower life expectancies. Furthermore, the COVID-19 pandemic has exposed and exacerbated these underlying inequalities, disproportionately affecting Black populations in terms of unemployment, health impacts, and housing instability.

To address these deeply ingrained inequalities and heal the wounds of past injustices, racial reparations must be considered as a necessary step towards reconciliation and progress. Reparations can take various forms, such as direct financial compensation, targeted investment in education, housing, and infrastructure, and policies aimed at closing the racial wealth gap. The goal is to actively dismantle the structures of racism and inequality that have shaped American society for centuries, creating new opportunities for all residents, regardless of race or background.

One of the primary arguments in favor of racial reparations is the need to rectify the historical injustices that have contributed to the persistent racial wealth gap (Darity & Mullen, 2020). Reparations could help address this disparity by providing financial compensation, educational opportunities, and other resources to Black Americans, ultimately promoting social and economic mobility (Hannah-Jones, 2019). Moreover, reparations can serve as a symbolic gesture acknowledging the harm caused by centuries of racial discrimination and offering a path toward national healing (Coates, 2014). By addressing the past, reparations can facilitate a more inclusive future and contribute to a more just society (Seitles, 1996).

It is crucial to recognize that simply moving people to better quality housing with more diverse schools is not a solution by itself. The Moving to Opportunity (MTO) experiment conducted by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development from 1994 to 1998 demonstrated that academic improvement only occurred in a small number of children, with most faring no better than those in the control group. The project did not provide employment support, transportation help, or educational assistance, and families in the experimental group often did not want to move, as they lost supportive social networks. Later studies revealed that the barriers to moving to high-opportunity areas were far more than just financial and included providing social supports and resources for capacity building.

According to economist William A. Darity Jr., one of the best ways to address reparations for Black Americans is through direct payments (Darity & Mullen, 2020). Darity argues that these payments would help to close the racial wealth gap and promote economic stability for Black families. Furthermore, he suggests that eligibility for reparations should be based on two criteria: having at least one ancestor who was enslaved in the United States and self-identification as Black or African American for at least ten years prior to the implementation of a reparations program (Darity & Mullen, 2020). However, Darity and Mullen note that reparations of this sort should not be pursued by municipal governments. Darity and Mullen (2020) highlight the role of the federal government in initiating and enforcing systemic racial discrimination policies, such as slavery and Jim Crow laws, which subsequently created and widened the racial wealth gap. As a result, they argue that the responsibility for reparations lies primarily with the federal government.

They contend that while municipal and state reparations can contribute to rectifying local disparities and historic injustices, these programs cannot fully address the systemic and structural inequalities perpetrated at a national level. Given the magnitude of the economic disparity that is a direct result of federal policies, Darity and Mullen (2020) assert that federal reparations are necessary to meaningfully address the enduring wealth gap. Further, they suggest that a comprehensive reparations program, aimed at closing the racial wealth divide, must be enacted at the federal level to ensure uniformity and equity in its application. In essence, they believe federal reparations would offer a more holistic and fair solution, considering the national reach of systemic racial injustice.

Others such as Andre Perry and Rashawn Ray at the Brookings Institution (2020) agree that the federal government would be best for providing a comprehensive reparations package that includes individual cash payments, college tuition assistance, student loan forgiveness, housing grants, and business grants for descendants of enslaved Black Americans. They also underscore the importance of enforcement of federal anti-discrimination policies and advocate for determining eligibility for reparations based on lineage and consistent identification as Black American.

In recent years, various municipalities and states have explored reparations programs to address the historical injustices faced by Black Americans. Cities are leveraging various funding sources, including general funds, cannabis taxes, and federal relief programs like the American Rescue Plan Act, to invest in reparations strategies. In 2019, the City of Evanston, Illinois, approved a reparations program aimed at addressing the wealth and opportunity gaps faced by its Black residents. Similarly, in 2020, Asheville, North Carolina, approved a reparations plan that included investments in areas such as housing, education, and economic mobility for Black residents. Other cities, such as St. Louis, Providence, St. Paul, Boston, Tallahassee, and Berkeley, are also exploring or implementing reparations strategies at different stages.

One key focus of these reparations programs has been to address economic mobility and wealth-building of Black people and communities. Increasing access to homeownership for communities of color, recognizing that homeownership plays a crucial role in wealth accumulation and intergenerational transfer of assets, is a key goal of many of these programs.

Many of these cities are framing reparations as a form of restorative justice. Restorative justice is a philosophy and approach to justice that focuses on repairing the harm caused by a crime or conflict. It emphasizes healing, reconciliation, and restoring relationships between the victim, the offender, and the community. Restorative justice seeks to address the underlying causes of harm and find ways to repair the harm done. Restorative justice typically involves bringing together the parties affected by conflict in a facilitated dialogue or mediation process. This allows them to share their experiences, express their feelings, and discuss the impact of the harm. The goal is to

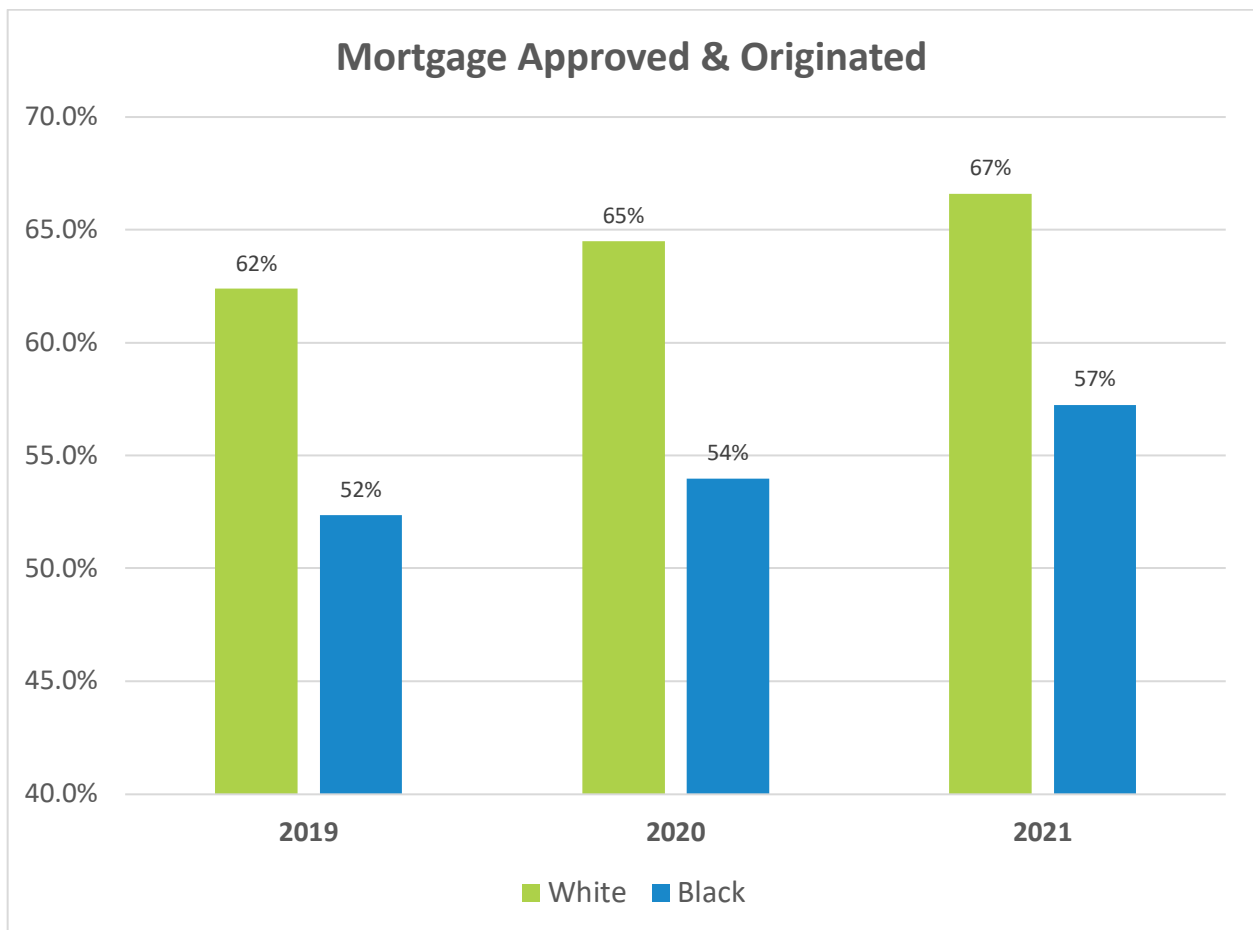


FIGURE 32 - DISPOSITION OF LOAN APPLICATIONS, BY RACE OF APPLICANT, 2019-2021

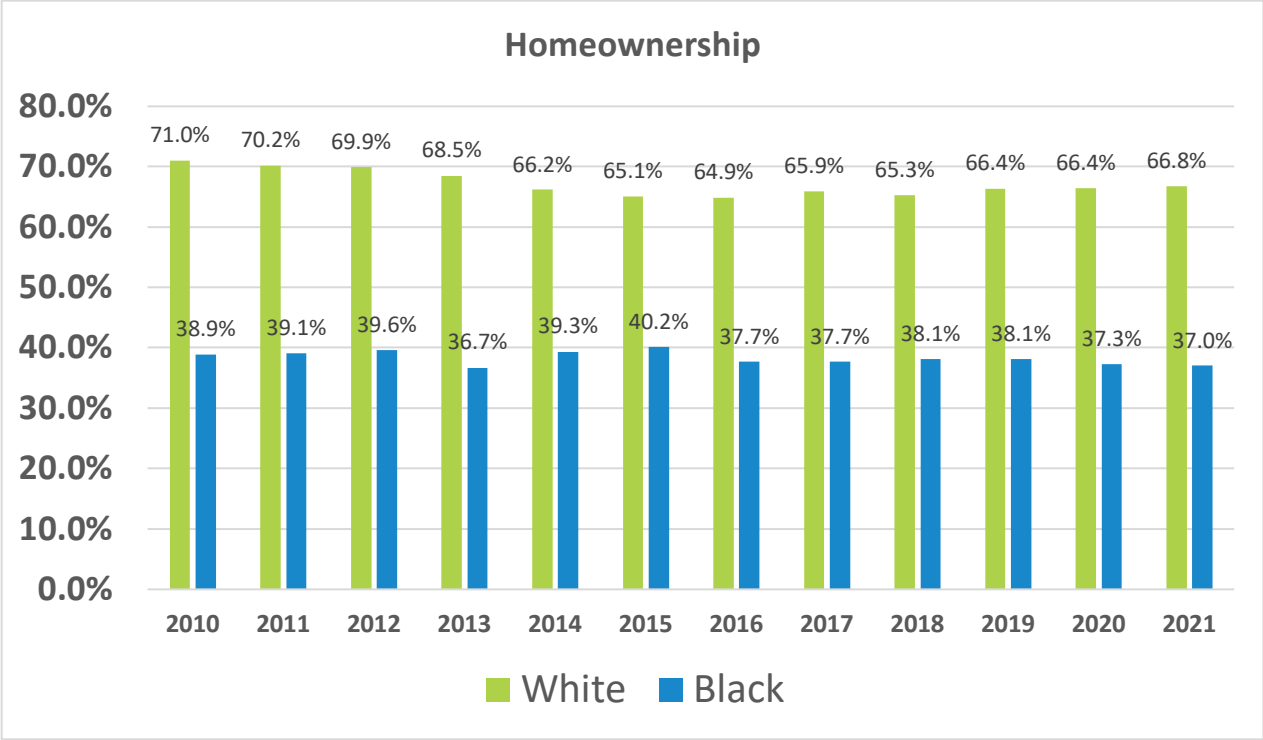


FIGURE 33 - HOMEOWNERSHIP RATE

foster understanding, empathy, and accountability. Through this process, the parties may work together to develop a resolution or agreement that addresses the needs and interests of everyone involved. Restorative justice emphasizes the importance of repairing the harm caused by the offense rather than solely punishing the offender. It often involves actions such as apologies, restitution, community service, or other forms of making amends. The focus is on promoting healing, restoring relationships, and preventing future harm.

Restorative justice, when applied in the context of racial justice and reparations, aims to address the historical and systemic injustices faced by marginalized racial and ethnic groups. It seeks to repair the harm caused by oppressive systems, policies, and actions that have disproportionately affected these communities. This holistic approach aims to foster understanding, promote healing, and work towards eliminating racial disparities in society.

Ultimately, the cost of inaction is too great. It will take a concerted anti-racist effort by local planners and policymakers to make good on the promise of this policy and deliver truly inclusive opportunities for all residents. The cost of repairing the negligence and harm caused by over a century of structural racism in policies governing housing, education public health, economic development, and policing will be significant. However, the cost of inaction is being felt by health systems, schools, employers, public housing, and policing agencies in every municipality in the South. To do nothing and allow the status quo to continue is no longer an option. It is time to affirmatively further new opportunities and work towards a more equitable future for all.

Conclusions

Racial and ethnic disparities in High Point, North Carolina, have been well-documented through a series of studies conducted by researchers from the National Institute of Minority Economic Development and UNC Greensboro between 2015 and 2023. These studies highlighted the complex web of factors contributing to disparities, such as racialized planning and zoning, community disinvestment, and informal redlining of the past. By examining these studies in detail, we can identify patterns, unique challenges, and common recommendations that have been suggested to address the issues facing High Point's marginalized populations.

The racism inherent in historical planning and zoning practices has led to the current racial and ethnic disparities we see in High Point. The reports have revealed that historically marginalized communities, such as those predominantly occupied by African Americans, have been disproportionately affected by policies that allowed for the concentration of industrial and commercial land uses in these areas. The resulting environmental hazards, such as exposure to air pollution, contaminated water, and lead, have had severe health impacts on these communities, exacerbating the disparities in access to quality healthcare, education, and economic opportunities.

The “Market Segmentation Study” (2015) found that the High Point community is divided into distinct neighborhoods based on income, race, ethnicity, and socio-economic status. These divisions have resulted in disparities in access to quality housing, education, healthcare, and employment opportunities. The study also highlighted the racial and ethnic disparities in High Point, where non-white residents face significant challenges in accessing economic and social resources. Furthermore, the study underlined the importance of understanding and addressing the unique needs of each neighborhood to promote equitable development and improve the overall well-being of the community.

The “Health Report Card” (2016) revealed that High Point residents experience several health disparities, particularly in terms of chronic diseases, mental health, and substance abuse. Child poverty and infant mortality and well-being were also linked to racial disparities. The health outcomes for non-white populations, including African Americans and Hispanics, were found to be significantly worse than those for white residents. Factors contributing to these disparities include access to healthcare, social determinants of health, and the presence of environmental hazards in low-income neighborhoods. The report card emphasized the need for targeted interventions and policies to improve health outcomes and reduce disparities among High Point's diverse population.

The “Behavioral Health Study” (2017) examined the prevalence and impact of mental health and substance use disorders in High Point, finding that these issues affect a significant portion of the population. The study highlighted the barriers to accessing behavioral health services, which

include a lack of awareness, stigma, and limited availability of providers. The study also found that certain populations, including racial and ethnic minorities, face unique challenges in accessing mental health care and are more likely to experience negative outcomes related to untreated mental health issues. The study recommended the expansion of behavioral health services, increased awareness and education campaigns, and targeted interventions for populations with unique needs.

The “Resilience High Point Needs Assessment” (2019) is a report that analyzes the strengths and challenges faced by the High Point community in North Carolina. The assessment focuses on six key areas: economic development, education and workforce, health and wellness, housing and neighborhoods, public safety, and social capital and community engagement. The report identifies several strengths in the community, including a strong sense of community pride and engagement, a diverse population, and several successful community programs. However, the assessment also highlights several challenges, including poverty, unemployment, a lack of affordable housing, and a need for more resources for education and health. The assessment emphasized the need for targeted interventions to build resilience, including improving access to affordable housing, enhancing economic opportunities, and addressing environmental risks. The report concludes with recommendations for addressing these challenges and building on the community's strengths to create a more resilient High Point.

In the report entitled “Residential Drinking Water Quality Study” (2020), researchers investigated the quality of drinking water in High Point and identified issues related to water contamination, particularly in low-income neighborhoods. It found that certain areas of the city, predominantly occupied by racial and ethnic minorities, were more likely to be exposed to contaminated drinking water due to aging infrastructure and environmental hazards. The study recommended targeted interventions to improve water quality, such as upgrading water infrastructure, implementing regular water quality monitoring, and increasing public awareness of water safety issues.

The “Assessment of Social Health Drivers for High Point” (2022) explored the social determinants of health in High Point, focusing on factors such as education, income, employment, and access to healthcare. Non-white residents face more significant challenges in accessing resources and experience worse health outcomes compared to their white counterparts. It found significant disparities among different racial and ethnic groups in the community, with non-white residents facing greater challenges in accessing resources and experiencing worse health outcomes. Non-white residents experience more barriers in accessing healthcare services, including a lack of clinics and doctors within easy transportation distance and problems obtaining necessary healthcare information for their children. The assessment highlighted the need for comprehensive strategies to address these disparities, including promoting educational equity, expanding economic opportunities, and improving access to healthcare services.

In the study titled "HealthySteps Needs Assessment" (2022), the researchers identified a rapidly growing and diversifying population in High Point, with a majority of residents facing moderate to high social vulnerability. The underlying issues for High Point residents were found to be poverty and lack of economic opportunities, leading to challenges with transportation, housing, food insecurity, and community violence and crime. Notably, non-white respondents faced greater barriers to accessing social services, with significant disparities in accessing healthcare, insurance, and child development information.

The "Guilford County Workforce Needs Assessment" (2023) focused on workforce development in Guilford County, North Carolina, and found that vulnerable populations, including minorities, women, justice-involved individuals, and other marginalized groups, were disadvantaged by systemic issues and structural causes. These populations faced challenges such as low academic achievement, competition for jobs, stagnant wages, inadequate benefits, and bias and discrimination in the hiring process.

Conclusions to the One High Point Commission Report

This report is the result of several years of work by a committed staff of individuals who were brought together by a common interest in justice. The High Point NAACP was pivotal in raising the issue of reparations, advocating for a formal, public process to consider reparations, and being steadfast in the face of opposition. The City Council of High Point considered proposals to create a commission to study reparations, and after much debate and discussion, created a commission in 2021. Citizen volunteers and two city council members were seated as the One High Point Commission and met in monthly public meetings and topical work groups for a year and a half. Local and regional scholars were engaged to provide in-depth research on topics related to the connection of the slave trade, U.S. and North Carolina slavery, and Jim Crow to the City of High Point and its present-day residents; the former segregated school system and its lasting impact on the community; actions taken by the city government in housing and economic development that have had lasting deleterious effects; and current statistics on the disparity between the Black and nonblack population in High Point across a range of indicators of individual and community health and wealth. Lastly, a partner was engaged to provide project management and compile this final report, encompassing, history, data, and policy recommendations.

In this process, the contributors to this final One High Point Commission report have coalesced around a common set of beliefs:

1. The impacts of racially codified slavery, Jim Crow, and government-sanctioned racial discrimination are real, pervasive, and long-lasting.
2. The present-day racially identifiable disparities between Black and White Americans in wealth, health, and education can be directly tied and attributed to systemic racism.
3. It is appropriate and necessary for the progress of the City of High Point that past and present racial divisions and discrimination be researched, documented, widely shared, and addressed.
4. Citizen participation and transparency are essential to a successful and sustainable process.

Many advocates for reparations assert that the only true reparations are cash payments to descendants of enslaved Africans. The One High Point considered the arguments set forth by William Darity and Kirsten Mullen in *From Here to Equality* (2020) where they argue that cash reparations to the descendants of enslaved Africans are just and necessary but can only be carried out fairly and completely by the federal government. Accepting that premise, the One High Point Commission began its research into selected topics based on crafting restorative policy recommendations that will significantly close wealth and achievement gaps and improve the lives and prospects of High Point's Black residents and historically Black neighborhoods.

Dr. Omar Ali set the historical context, giving an overview of the enormity of the transatlantic slave trade and the internal slave trade within the United States. He emphasized the pecuniary benefits to slaveholders and the systems that supported slavery, which starkly contrasted with enslaved people's impoverished and human suffering.

Dr. Paul Ringel reviewed public records from High Point Public Schools from their creation through integration in the early 1970s. He highlighted how the school system deliberately and continuously underfunded segregated Black schools and underpaid Black teachers and staff. His work made us think about not only the lost educational opportunities for the underfunded students, but the lost economic opportunities of the dedicated educators who taught them for generations and were paid, on average, less than 65% of what White employees with similar education and job requirements were paid.

Dr. Virginia Summey explored the role that Urban Renewal and Model Cities programs of the mid-20th century played in creating concentrated areas of poverty and disinvestment in Black neighborhoods. These programs were sold as ways to improve 'slums' and 'ghettos' but in practice seemed to mostly displace Black residents and businesses to make way for new infrastructure and downtown development. One does not have to be a planner or a sociologist to look at decades of maps of central High Point and see that the early segregated Black neighborhoods, which were the focus of federally funded, locally controlled projects, and the areas that currently rank lowest on several health and wealth indicators, are almost identical.

Dr. Stephen Sills synthesized more than a decade of recent research and information he has compiled on educational attainment, health status, housing conditions, and wealth disparities in High Point and Guilford County. This data gave the Commission stark examples and reliable statistics on the differences that they aim to bridge through the policy recommendations in this report.

Lastly, the National Institute for Minority Economic Development assisted the Commission in putting forth a range of recommendations designed to address the disparities that were the focus of the research and discussion of the One High Point Commission. Many of these recommendations are tied to examples of cities that are similar to High Point in size and local economy. An emphasis was placed on providing examples from other communities in North Carolina.

The recommendations contained in this report are not exhaustive. They represent a wide range of viable, tested policies and programs that are designed to address the education, economic opportunity, and health disparities highlighted in the report. With additional time and financial and human resources, the City of High Point can, and should, continue to explore the impacts of slavery, Jim Crow, and government-sanctioned racial discrimination on many other areas of life

in High Point, like policing, infrastructure investments, and municipal hiring and employment practices.

Throughout the One High Point Commission process, Chair Joe Alston reminded the group that this is the beginning, not the end. It has been a privilege for all involved to contribute to the vital discovery, repair, and reconciliation process for which this report is an early step.

OHPC Restorative Policy Recommendations

Reconciliation and Community Dialogue

Policy changes and new programmatic initiatives are most successful when they have broad community support. The history, collected data, and firsthand accounts of racial discrimination against African Americans, and the collected data on present day disparities and continued harms to the African American residents of High Point, must be clearly and thoroughly shared with the residents and policy makers of High Point. Greater understanding among the voting public should support the acceptance and implementation of the restorative policies in this report and those that arise subsequent to further research.

Apologize for City Sponsorship and Enforcement of Racial Discrimination Against African Americans

Acknowledging the inhumanities and injustices which were wrought on African Americans in High Point, is an appropriate first step in fostering reconciliation. Internationally, African and European countries involved in the Transatlantic slave trade have made formal public apologies for the atrocities. The United States House of Representatives issued an [apology for slavery](#) in 2008. Several state legislatures, including [North Carolina](#), have apologized for slavery and racial oppression. Cities such as [Charleston, South Carolina](#) have also issued apologies for slavery from their governing bodies.

Create a Truth and Reconciliation Process

Despite the groundbreaking, history making nature of the creation of the One High Point Commission, the Commission was not created with unanimous support from the High Point City Council. There has been little public engagement in the monthly public meetings, and very little press coverage. The July 27, 2023 public hearing and August 15, 2023 interactive community event, both scheduled after the publication of the final report, will help in generating community interest and support both for implementation of policies, and for continued exploration and discussions of the issues discussed as a part of the Commission's deliberations.

In order to create more shared understanding and public support for restorative policies, the City of High Point, with stakeholder support, should create a 'truth and reconciliation' process that will share the results of the One High Point Commission's work and subsequent research with a wider audience in High Point. There are many precedents for Truth and Reconciliation Commissions, from South Africa after the end of Apartheid, to the Greensboro Truth and Reconciliation Commission, which examined the causes, precursors, facts and lasting impacts of a specific incident of racial violence.

Address Housing Disparities

Housing stability and housing affordability are fundamental to human health, progress, and development. The ability to own property and benefit from its market appreciation or intergenerational transfer are the most common ways that family wealth is created in the United States. African Americans have been denied opportunities to purchase homes and land, and to finance these purchases fairly, for several hundred years. Legal and defacto residential segregation and redlining has resulted in African American residents of High Point not having free choices about where to live and how to benefit from property ownership. The City of High Point underinvested in infrastructure and housing development in historically African American neighborhoods since its founding. These practices have resulted in extreme racial segregation and a correlation between majority African American neighborhoods and neighborhoods with high levels of dilapidation, vacancy, and low property values.

The City of High Point should focus on historically African American neighborhoods and those areas demolished and ‘redeveloped’ under Urban Renewal programs. Designating all or a subset of these of these neighborhoods as Redevelopment Areas by City Council action will provide the City with enhanced abilities to deploy federal funds in those areas.

Some of the programs that the City of High Point can implement or expand within designated communities include:

- **Create a loan pool, with lending institutions as partners, that can support homeownership and affordable housing construction.** This loan pool could provide flexible, affordable financing or loan guarantees for real estate developers and home buyers.
- **Create a program to assist existing homeowners in substantially African American neighborhoods.** Building on the City’s experience assisting homeowners with urgent repairs and home renovations, assistance to existing homeowners could be expanded to cover more homeowners, at higher household incomes, than existing programs allow. This assistance can take the form of forgivable, low-interest loans and grants for home rehabilitation.

Example: Affordable Housing Financing Programs - City of Charlotte, North Carolina

The City of Charlotte offers a comprehensive menu of loans and grants to homeowners, home buyers, and affordable housing developers. The city funds housing development through a Housing Trust Fund utilizing voter approved bonds, as well as HUD funds, local government general funds, and philanthropic funds acquired by nonprofit partners.

[Resources for Developers and Contractors - City of Charlotte \(charlottenc.gov\)](https://www.charlottenc.gov/resources-for-developers-and-contractors)

- **Provide financial support to nonprofits that assist low to moderate-income property owners in resolving heirs' property issues.** This will ensure that property owned by High Point families for generations is not lost to tax foreclosure or abandonment.

Example: Legal Aid of North Carolina – Heirs Property Project

Legal Aid of North Carolina launched the Heirs Property Pro Bono Project in 2023 to expand their ability to help owners of properties that have been inherited without clear title. The City of High Point can provide grant funds or engage on a fee-for-service basis with organizations such as Legal Aid of North Carolina or Land Loss Prevention Project, a North Carolina based nonprofit that has assisted property owners for forty years.

[Land Loss Prevention Project](#)

[Wells Fargo Foundation and Legal Aid NC announce expansion of housing-justice services in Eastern NC - Legal Aid](#)

- **Create a down payment assistance program for targeted neighborhoods that prioritizes current neighborhood residents and potential residents who can document a family residential connection to the targeted neighborhoods.** Prioritizing current residents and persons with ties to the community will not prevent new people from moving into targeted areas but may decrease the likelihood that neighborhoods will change drastically as more residents embrace living in the urban core. This can also promote the intergenerational transfer of wealth through real estate for long-term families in the community.
- **Incentivize the development of infill units and renovation of existing vacant units for rent or purchase by current or former city residents.** This will support the growth and stability of existing neighborhoods. Incentives may include subsidizing or providing infrastructure to connect to housing, rebates of fees for completed units, or an expedited planning review process, among others.

Example: Neighborhood Partnership - Chapel Hill, North Carolina

In Chapel Hill, North Carolina, a unique partnership between the historically African American Northside Neighborhood, the Marian Cheek Jackson Center, Self-Help Credit Union, UNC Chapel Hill, and the Town of Chapel Hill has used time-tested and innovative approaches to prevent the total studentification of a once thriving African American community.

[The Marian Cheek Jackson Center – for Saving and Making History](#)

- **Create incentives for contractors and developers who commit to residential development in neighborhoods that encompass historically African American neighborhoods and those areas demolished and ‘redeveloped’ under urban renewal programs.** These incentives can include those listed above, as well as credit

enhancements for construction financing and support for small business support services in the community.

Example: City of Asheville Developer Incentives

The City of Asheville has a set of affordable housing incentives for developers, which are listed on their website. Having an easily accessible menu of incentives for developers makes the process of accessing incentives more transparent and potentially attracts developers looking for municipal partners who are proactive in offering subsidies and other assistance.

[Affordable Housing - The City of Asheville \(ashevillenc.gov\)](http://ashevillenc.gov)

Example: Community Developers Roundtable – Dallas, Texas

This program is kicking off its second cohort of minority and women developers in the greater Dallas area focused on affordable and workforce housing. As they network, they receive technical assistance and mentoring on their proposed projects, as well as access to capital and connections to local government resources to make complex financing structures work.

[Home \(communitydevelopersroundtable.com\)](http://communitydevelopersroundtable.com)

- **Create a robust Fair Housing Assistance Program** to provide city residents with local assistance with and enforcement of fair housing laws.

Example: City of High Point Fair Housing Ordinance and Proposed Program

[High Point Fair Housing Ordinance](#)

Address Health Inequities

African Americans in High Point, as in many other cities across America, disproportionately live with diseases and disabilities that are magnified by the social determinants of health: lack of sufficient income to purchase healthcare, limited access to healthy food and safe recreation, as well as limited access to healthcare facilities and professionals. For these reasons and more, High Point’s predominantly African American neighborhoods highly correlate with the neighborhoods that have lower-than-average life expectancy.

- **Partner with public and private healthcare stakeholders to support sustained health interventions in neighborhoods that lack healthcare facilities.** This could take the form of partnering with hospitals or health systems to build or renovate community health centers as well as providing incentives for medical professionals to locate offices within target neighborhoods.

Example: City of Greensboro - Cone Health Partnership

Cone Health and the City of Greensboro have partnered to improve life expectancy and community-based healthcare in East Greensboro through the development of several health and wellness facilities located at public libraries and community centers.

- **Invest in lead abatement and indoor air quality improvement in concentrated areas of poverty and targeted neighborhoods to decrease preventable respiratory and developmental damage to residents.** These interventions can be coordinated with home repair and rehab programs to ensure that homes are healthy, as well as safe and affordable. Through partnerships with local hospitals, the City can identify neighborhoods that represent disproportionate numbers of emergency room visits for asthma and other acute conditions linked to the environment.

Example: Lead Safe High Point

The City of High Point, through the Department of Housing and Community Development, has previously managed programs targeted at lead abatement in residences. The most recent HUD-funded program, Lead Safe High Point, ended in 2015. The U.S. Department of HUD has a Lead Abatement Hazard Reduction Grant Program that regularly makes funds available, on a competitive basis, to reduce lead hazards in older homes, especially those built before 1960 and homes in low-income and minority neighborhoods.

[Lead Safe | High Point, NC \(highpointnc.gov\)](#)

[FY 2022 Lead Hazard Reduction Grant Program | HUD.gov / U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development \(HUD\)](#)

- **Promote and support community gardens and urban agriculture.** One source of fresh produce, in addition to economic stability and community cohesion, is the increased production of fruits and vegetables at home, in community gardens, and through larger-scale urban agriculture. Vacant lots and city-owned or donated property can be put to productive use by community residents. To sustain interest and increase the chances of success, the city can provide ongoing technical assistance and small grants to support these activities.

Example: Briggs Avenue Community Garden – Durham

Briggs Avenue Community Garden in East Durham is a 45-acre community garden and urban agriculture educational facility that seeks to serve low-wealth and underserved members of the Durham community. The garden is a joint project of community members, Durham County, and North Carolina Cooperative Extension.

[Briggs Avenue Community Garden | Extension Marketing and Communications \(ncsu.edu\)](#)

Address the Education Gap

While the current school system is run and primarily financed by Guilford County, the City of High Point can play important roles in fostering the improvement of both the neighborhoods in which schools are located, transportation that supports students and staff, and other community supports for education.

- **Create policies that incentivize new construction and rehabilitation of schools in current and historically African American neighborhoods.** New and renovated schools attract new interest from families and employees and can help a neighborhood grow. Conversely, a lack of schools can cause a neighborhood to slowly die, as families choose where they live based on the location of schools.
- **Create policies that incentivize comprehensive community development in conjunction with the development of new schools.** A school is a major investment in construction and site work that can be leveraged to attract new housing, amenities, and businesses in close proximity. School construction projects are also an important opportunity to employ local residents and contract with local businesses.

Example: Grove Park Community – Atlanta, Georgia

A group of community stakeholders, guided by a local community foundation, leveraged the building of a public school to collocate health care, recreation, and more.

[Grove Park Community Marks the Beginning of a New Chapter for Children and Families - Purpose Built Communities](#)

- **Facilitate the availability of convenient, affordable high speed internet access** to allow all High Point residents to successfully access education and complete homework online.

Example: City of Wilson, North Carolina

The City of Wilson created a community broadband that has received national accolades for their commitment and innovation in providing high speed internet connectivity for local government offices, public housing residents, and the central business district. There have been legal and financial hurdles for a North Carolina municipality to embark on a project of this scale. However, Wilson’s story and lessons learned provide a set of guideposts for other cities and towns.

[Greenlight Community Broadband | Home Greenlight \(greenlightnc.com\)](#)

Example: City Broadband Initiative - City of Durham/Durham County/Duke University

Duke University reached out to City of Durham, Durham County, and Durham Housing Authority to connect to the university’s internal state-of-the art network. This local network will ensure

high speed internet for local government and public housing residents. CARES Act funds hastened the implementation of this solution that has been in development for several years.

[City Broadband Initiative | Durham, NC \(durhamnc.gov\)](#)

Address Economic Opportunity

The City of High Point can support economic opportunity and address disparate access to economic opportunity through supporting bridges to employment and work supports. The City can also support small business development and growth, as small businesses hire locally, reinvest in the community, and anchor main thoroughfares in neighborhoods.

- **Create and expand youth employment programs, emphasizing youth from target neighborhoods.** Programs like YouthBuild, service corps and conservation corps provide meaningful employment and connections to career pathways. They also provide opportunities for teenagers and young adults to participate in the renewal and rehabilitation of their own communities.

Example: Elizabeth City, North Carolina YouthBuild

River City Community Development Corporation in Elizabeth City houses a YouthBuild program that has successfully completed multiple YouthBuild grants over the past two decades. Participants in the program have the opportunity to work on affordable housing developed by the CDC.

[YouthBuild | River City CDC](#)

Example: Central Carolina Community College YouthBuild

Central Carolina Community College in Sanford, North Carolina, houses a YouthBuild program within its community college campus. While all YouthBuild programs feature a connection to postsecondary education and skill building through community and technical colleges, this community college location allows for a convenient transition from the program to further education in an environment in which students have already been supported and built relationships.

[YouthBuild, CCCC - Central Carolina Community College](#)

Example: Hickory, North Carolina YouthBuild

Nu-Dimensions and the Hickory Housing Authority co-sponsor a YouthBuild program employing youth ages 16 to 24 who are not enrolled in school. Sponsorship by a public housing authority fosters participation by youth who are living in its units.

[Programs | Hickory Housing](#)

- **Create a business microloan program.** This loan program can be seeded with CDBG, local funds, or funds for which the City can compete. The program could match small community-based businesses, start-ups, and sole proprietors in target communities with technical assistance and business coaching as well as seed capital, in order to assist inexperienced and low-wealth business owners to progress through the business financing ecosystem.

Example: Community Works, South Carolina

Community Works, a CDFI that covers the state of South Carolina, offers microloans and small business loans to assist entrepreneurs from the beginning of their business through scaling up. These microloans start at \$900 and allow an individual to build their personal and business credit while they test ideas and prove their concept.

[Small & Microbusiness Loans - CommunityWorks Carolina](#)

- **Support social enterprises and social entrepreneurs.** Make seed funding available for social entrepreneurs who have innovative ideas to tackle the disparities highlighted by the High Point Commission.

Example: City of Winston-Salem Transformative Grants

The City of Winston-Salem North Carolina made ARPA funds available on a competitive basis to organizations that proposed transformative solutions to identified community problems. As of the submission of this report, the grants have not been awarded. However, a review of the submitting organizations shows that there are dozens of community-based organizations that stepped forward to promote community solutions.

[Transformative Grants Program | City of Winston-Salem, NC \(cityofws.org\)](#)

Address Transportation Access

The lack of adequate transportation is a recurring and persistent concern for High Point residents, especially lower-income residents and residents of core city neighborhoods that are historically predominantly Black. Transportation that is affordable, convenient, and available most of the day, seven days a week, is a crucial ingredient to ensure that High Point’s residents can take part in all aspects of community life and economic activity.

- **Identify and implement improvements in public transportation** that will move persons and communities with lowest income and lowest rates of car ownership, to centers of employment, education, amenities, and services.
- **Expand routes and hours for public transportation to facilitate access to employment, education and training** that accommodates all shifts of work and

connects city residents to new and existing employment and education sites outside of the city limits.

Example: Microtransit

Cities across the country are looking at microtransit to fill specific gaps in their public transportation services. Smaller vehicles on crucial routes from neighborhoods to large scale employers could be a better solution than the ways in which public transportation has traditionally been provided.

[Microtransit - American Public Transportation Association \(apta.com\)](https://www.apta.com)

Review and Revise Municipal Operations

The City of High Point's own official records confirm that discrimination against African Americans by the city government was common practice. Discrimination occurred in the hiring, compensation, and promotion of municipal employees, as well as in the application of zoning ordinances, permits, licenses and other official business. While the City of High Point does not knowingly engage in practices that are discriminatory, there may be vestiges of racial discrimination embedded in the City's policies, procedures, and business practices.

- **Engage an experienced and qualified firm to analyze current municipal policies and practices** to ensure that they are not currently creating or reinforcing bias in services to the community, employment within the city government, and vendor contracting opportunities.
- **Institute an organizational program to correct systemic bias**, as identified and documented through a transparent process, as well as a program to implement policies centered in equity, targeted toward redressing identified and documented previous unfair or harmful practices.

Example: City of Asheville Cease Harm Audit

The City of Asheville and Buncombe County jointly advertised for professional services to conduct a comprehensive review of city and county government policies, procedures, and practices to ensure that government action does not continue to do harm to the Asheville and Buncombe County African American community.

[Cease Harm Audit RFP.pdf \(buncombecounty.org\)](https://www.buncombecounty.org)

Recommendations for Other Stakeholders

Community Stakeholders

- Enhance the history of African Americans, slavery, resistance, Jim Crow, and the Civil and Voting Rights Movement covered by the High Point history museum.
- Increase the teaching of local African American history and the present-day impacts of slavery, Jim Crow, and segregation on the community, as well as ways that community members and community-based organizations can address these impacts.

Guilford County

- Engage an experienced and qualified firm to analyze current county policies and practices to ensure that they are not currently creating or reinforcing bias in services to the community, employment within the county government, and vendor contracting opportunities.
- Institute an organizational program to correct systemic bias, as identified and documented through a transparent process, as well as a program to implement policies centered in equity, targeted toward redressing identified and documented previous unfair or harmful practices.
- Increase access to preventative care and public health services throughout the county, focused on underserved areas and areas of concentrated negative health indicators and outcomes.
- Enhance the history of African Americans, slavery, resistance, Jim Crow, and the Civil and Voting Rights Movement taught in history classes.

State of North Carolina

- Institute an organizational program to correct systemic bias, as identified and documented through a transparent process, as well as a program to implement policies centered in equity, targeted toward redressing identified and documented previous unfair or harmful practices.
- Strengthen and expand the teaching of African American history, the Transatlantic slave trade, Jim Crow, and systemic discrimination in North Carolina, in North Carolina public schools.

Federal Government

- Advance Comprehensive Reparations as put forth by H.R. 40 – Commission to Study and Develop Reparation Proposals for African Americans Act.

Philanthropy

- Fund additional research on issues pertinent to a comprehensive community response to the lasting impacts of slavery and racial discrimination.
- Ensure that community-based organizations and community members participate in, and benefit financially from, grants made to further research and programming aimed at addressing the lasting impacts of slavery and racial discrimination.

Topics for Further Research

There is a plethora of topics that the One High Point Commission was initially charged with, or identified during the past year of deliberation, that were beyond the scope of the citizen Commissioners and the time and financial resources made available. As the city government and city residents continue to consider the ills of the past and the impact they have had on all High Point residents, but especially African Americans, there are additional topics that must be studied to arrive at a comprehensive, integrated policy framework for healing and progress.

These topics include:

- Identifying underpaid African American High Point Public Schools employees and quantifying the present-day value of their withheld pay, from the creation of the city school system until the official end of the policy of race-based pay.
- Identifying underpaid African American City of High Point employees, quantifying the present-day value of their withheld pay, from the creation of the city until the official end of the policy of race-based pay.
- Studying the extent and impact of race-based policing by City of High Point police. This includes a thorough review of arrest records, traffic stops, call response times, and injuries and deaths in police custody.
- Documenting what businesses and institutions in High Point benefitted financially directly from slavery, through the profits from slave labor and/or the sale, insuring, or mortgaging of enslaved people. This may include manufacturers, banks, insurance companies, and businesses in the agricultural sector.
- Examining the history and roles of African Americans in the High Point Furniture Market and furniture industry. This topic would explore the critical role that African Americans have played as artisans and factory labor, as well as whether their compensation and working conditions.
- Identifying incidents of environmental racism, which may include siting of trash dumps, trash incinerators, and other potential pollutants, as well as previous uses of sites in historically African American neighborhoods that are currently parks or other public spaces.
- Studying and quantifying the financial investment in providing water, sewer, electrical, gas, and street paving infrastructure by neighborhood to determine if certain areas have received less than their anticipated per-capita public investment in the utilities and infrastructure that support a high quality of living.

References

- Ali, Omar H. *In the Lion's Mouth: Black Populism in the New South*. Jackson: University Press of Mississippi, 2010.
- Allison Shertzer & Tate Twinam & Randall P. Walsh, 2016. "Race, Ethnicity, and Discriminatory Zoning," *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 8(3): 217-246. DOI: 10.1257/app.20140430
- Anderson, Eric. *Race and Politics in North Carolina, 1872-1901: The Black Second*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana University Press, 1981.
- Ayscue, J. B., Siegel-Hawley, G., Kucsera, J., & Woodward, B. (2018). "School Segregation and Resegregation in Charlotte and Raleigh, 1989-2010." *Educational Policy*, 32(1), 3-54. DOI: 10.1177/0895904815625287
- Bayor, Ronald. (1988). "Roads to racial segregation: Atlanta in the twentieth century" *Journal of Urban History*, 15 pp. 3-21 DOI: 10.1177/009614428801500101
- Bhutta, Neil, Andrew C. Chang, Lisa J. Dettling, and Joanne W. Hsu (2020). "Disparities in Wealth by Race and Ethnicity in the 2019 Survey of Consumer Finances," *FEDS Notes. Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System*, DOI: 10.17016/2380-7172.2797.
- Bordewich, Fergus. *Bound for Canaan: The Underground Railroad and the Soul of America*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers, 2005
- Browning C.R., Cagney K.A., Boettner B. (2016) "Neighborhood, Place, and the Life Course." In: Shanahan M., Mortimer J., Kirkpatrick Johnson M. (eds) *Handbooks of Sociology and Social Research*. Springer, Cham
- Cecelski, David S., and Timothy B. Tyson, eds. *Democracy Betrayed: The Wilmington Riot of 1898 and Its Legacy*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 2000.
- Chafe, William H. *Civilities and Civil Rights: Greensboro, North Carolina, and the Black Freedom Struggle*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1980.
- Chavis, Glenn R. *Our Roots, Our Branches, Our Fruit: High Point's Black History, 1859-1960*. High Point Historical Society, 2010.
- Crow, Jeffrey J. *The Black Experience in Revolutionary North Carolina*. Raleigh: Division of Archives and History, Department of Cultural Resources, 1977.
- Crow, Jeffrey, J., Paul D. Escott, and Flora J. Hatley, *A History of African Americans in North Carolina*. Revised Edition. Raleigh: Office of Archives and History, North Carolina Department of Cultural Resources, 2002.
- Curley, A. (2005). "Theories of urban poverty and implications for public housing policy." *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 32(2), 97-120. <https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/jssw/vol32/iss2/7>
- Cutler, David M., Edward L. Glaeser and Jacob L. Vigdor. (1999) "The rise and decline of the American ghetto." *Journal of Political Economy*. 107(3): 455-506. DOI: 10.1086/250069

- Darrell J. Gaskin et al. (2014) "Disparities in Diabetes: The Nexus of Race, Poverty, and Place." *American Journal of Public Health* 104: 11
- Diouf, Sylviane A. *Slavery's Exiles: The Story of the American Maroons*. New York: New York University Press, 2014.
- Documenting the American South. *The Reminiscences of Levi Coffin, the Reputed President of the Underground Railroad*. Cincinnati, OH: Robert Clarke & Co., 1880.
<https://docsouth.unc.edu/nc/coffin/coffin.html>
- Equiano, Olaudah. *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African*. London, 1789.
- Farley, R., & Frey, W. H. (1994). "Changes in the segregation of Whites from Blacks during the 1980s: Small steps toward a more integrated society." *American Sociological Review*. 59(1), 23–45. DOI: 10.2307/2096131
- Fields, Karen and Barbara Fields. *Racecraft: The Soul of Inequality in American Life*. London: Verso, 2012.
- Florida, Richard and McLean, Jodie. (2017). "What Inclusive Urban Development Can Look Like" *Harvard Business Review*. <https://hbr.org/2017/07/what-inclusive-urban-development-can-look-like>
- Foner, Eric. *Gateway to Freedom: The Hidden History of the Underground Railroad*. New York: W. W. Norton, 2015.
- Frankenberg, Erica (2013). "The role of residential segregation in contemporary school segregation." *Education and Urban Society*, 45, 548-570. DOI: 10.1177/0013124513486288
- Franklin, John Hope. *The Free Negro in North Carolina, 1790-1860*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press, 1943.
- Gilmore, Glenda Elizabeth. *Gender and Jim Crow: Women and the Politics of White Supremacy in North Carolina, 1896-1920*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1996.
- Goodman, Alan H., Yolanda T. Moses, and Joseph L. Jones, eds. *Race: Are We So Different?* Boston, MA: Wiley-Blackwell and the American Anthropological Association, 2012.
- Guyatt, Nicholas. (2016). *Bind Us Apart: How Enlightened Americans Invented Racial Segregation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Harms, Robert. *Africa in Global History with Sources*. New York: W. W. Norton, 2018.
- Headen S. W. and R. G. Robinson, "Tobacco: From Slavery to Addiction," in *Health Issues in the Black Community*, R. L. Braithwaite and S. E. Taylor, eds. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 2001.
- High Point Museum, High Point, NC <https://www.highpointnc.gov/839/Online-Collections>

- Hunt, James. (2006). "Fusion of Republicans and Populists." William Powell. ed. Encyclopedia of North Carolina. University of North Carolina Press. <https://www.ncpedia.org/fusion-republicans-and-populists>
- Iorio, Devin. (2021). "An Analysis of Racialized Housing Segregation in America." *The Trinity Papers. Trinity College Digital Repository*, Hartford, CT <https://digitalrepository.trincoll.edu/trinitypapers/97/>
- Jones-Correa, M. (2000). "The Origins and Diffusion of Racial Restrictive Covenants." *Political Science Quarterly*, 115(4), 541-568. DOI: 10.2307/2657609
- Leonhardt, David. (2020). "The Black-White Wage Gap Is as Big as It Was in 1950: Recent research indicates little progress since the Truman administration." *The New York Times*. <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/06/25/opinion/sunday/race-wage-gap.html>
- Lichter, Daniel T., Parisi, Domenico, and Taquino, Michael C. (2012). "The Geography of Exclusion: Race, Segregation, and Concentrated Poverty." *Social Problems*. 59(3):364–388. DOI: 10.1525/sp.2012.59.3.364
- Logan, J. R. (2013). "The Persistence of Segregation in the 21st Century Metropolis." *City & Community*, 12(2), 160–168. DOI: 10.1111/cico.12021
- Logan, Trevon D., and John M. Parman. (2017). "Segregation and Homeownership in the Early Twentieth Century." *American Economic Review*. 107 (5): 410-14. DOI: 10.1257/aer.p20171081
- Massey, Douglas and Tannen, Jonathan. (2018). "Suburbanization and segregation in the United States: 1970–2010." *Ethnic and Racial Studies*. 41(9):1594-1611. DOI: 10.1080/01419870.2017.1312010.
- Massey, Douglas, and Denton, Nancy. (1988). "The Dimensions of Residential Segregation." *Social Forces* 67(2):281-315. DOI: 10.2307/2579183
- Massey, Douglas, and Denton, Nancy. (1993). *American Apartheid: Segregation and the Making of the Underclass*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Massey, Douglas. (2020). "Still the Linchpin: Segregation and Stratification in the USA." *Race and Social Problems*. 12, 1–12. DOI: 10.1007/s12552-019-09280-1
- National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine; Health and Medicine Division; Board on Population Health and Public Health Practice; Committee on Community-Based Solutions to Promote Health Equity in the United States; Baciu A, Negussie Y, Geller A, et al. , editors. *Communities in Action: Pathways to Health Equity*. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US); 2017 Jan 11. 3, "The Root Causes of Health Inequity." *National Center for Biotechnology Information, U.S. National Library of Medicine* <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK425845/>
- Ng, K., & Virts, N. (1993). "The Black-White Income Gap in 1880." *Agricultural History*, 67(1), 1–15. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3744636>
- North Carolina Runaway Slave Notices, 1750-1865* <https://dlas.uncg.edu/notices/>

- Odetola, L., Sills, S., & Morrison, S. 2021. "A Pilot Study on the Feasibility of Testing Residential Tap Water in North Carolina: Implications for Environmental Justice and Health." *Journal of Exposure Science and Environmental Epidemiology*.
- Oliver, Melvin and Shapiro, Thomas. (2006). *Black Wealth / White Wealth A New Perspective on Racial Inequality* 2nd Edition. Routledge, New York. 6
- Perry, A. M. (2020). *Know Your Price: Valuing Black Lives and Property in America's Black Cities*. Brookings Institution Press. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7864/j.ctvbd8mdd>
- Poskett, James. *Horizons: The Global Origins of Modern Science*. Boston, MA: Mariner Books, 2022.
- Powell, William S. *Encyclopedia of North Carolina*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2006.
- Ransby, Barbara. *Ella Baker and the Black Freedom Movement*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 2003.
- Ray, R., & Perry, A. (2020). "Why we need reparations for Black Americans." Brookings Institution - Policy Big Ideas. https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/04/BigIdeas_Ray_Perry_Reparations-1.pdf
- Rediker, Markus. *The Slave Ship: A Human History*. New York: Penguin Books, 2008.
- Roux, Ana V. Diez 2001. "Investigating Neighborhood and Area Effects on Health." *American Journal of Public Health* 91(11). DOI: 10.2105/AJPH.91.11.1783
- Schwenger, Loren. *Black Property Owners in the South, 1790-1915*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1990.
- Shapiro, Thomas. (2006). "Race, Homeownership and Wealth." *Journal of Law and Policy* 20:53-74. https://openscholarship.wustl.edu/law_journal_law_policy/vol20/iss1/4.
- Sills, S. 2017 "Using Data to Inform Planning: Lessons from the High Point Market Segmentation Study." Invited presentation - Triangle J Council of Governments Regional Summit.
- Sills, S. 2017. "Healthy High Point Asset & Health Indicator Map" ArcGIS Web-based Application.
- Sills, S. 2019. "Building Resilience: A Community Needs Assessment" Resilience High Point.
- Sills, S. 2020. "Sociodemographic Context of Guilford County" Welfare Liaison Reform Project.
- Sills, S. 2021. "Enduring Impact of Racialized Planning in Southern Cities." E Pluribus Unum Fund.
- Sills, S. and Blake, E.A. 2008. "Factors Influencing Denial: A Study of Home Mortgage Disclosure Act Data for The Greensboro - High Point Metropolitan Statistical Area 2006" City of Greensboro.
- Sills, S. and Odetola, L. 2019. "Pilot Study Report Residential Drinking Water Quality - High Point, NC." UNC Greensboro Child and Family Research Network.

- Sills, S. Gruber, K., DiMattina, M. 2017. "High Point Regional Health Report Card" Foundation for a Healthy High Point.
- Sills, S., & DiMattina, M. 2022. "Assessment of Social Health Drivers for High Point." Foundation for a Healthy High Point.
- Sills, S., 2022. "HealthySteps Needs Assessment" Children's Home Society.
- Sills, S., 2022. "Sociodemographic Context of Guilford County." Welfare Liaison Reform Project & Guilford County Department of Social Services
- Sills, S., 2022. "Workforce Needs Analysis: Guilford Jobs 2030 Initiative" Community Foundation of Greater Greensboro.
- Sills, S., 2023. "Guilford County Needs Assessment." Welfare Liaison Reform Project & Guilford County Department of Social Services.
- Sills, S., Bray, J., Gruber, K., Suttles, K., and Pant, A. 2020. "Determination of the Impact of Alcohol and Substance Use on Guilford County Services" Guilford County Government.
- Sills, S., Cochran, L., Choi, C., Klinger, E., Roberts, M., and Rachel Ryding. 2016. "Market Segmentation and Targeted Revitalization High Point Core City." City of High Point.
- Sills, S., Rich, B., DiMattina, M., Su, H., Payton-Foh, E., Gruber, K., 2021. "COVID-19 Vaccine Messaging: A Report on Community Perceptions and Attitudes Towards the COVID-19 Vaccine." Guilford County Department of Health and Human Services.
- Slave Narratives: A Folk History of Slavery in the United States from Interviews with Former Slaves.* The Federal Writers Project of the Works Progress Administration, 1936-1938. Washington, D.C.: Library of Congress, 1941. www.loc.gov/collections/slave-narratives-from-the-federal-writers-project-1936-to-1938/about-this-collection/
- Slavery Image: A Visual Record of the African Slave Trade and Slave Life in Early African Diaspora.* www.slaveryimages.org/s/slaveryimages/item/2999
- Squires, Gregory. (2001). "The Indelible Color Line: The Persistence of Housing Discrimination." *The American Prospect*. <https://prospect.org/civil-rights/indelible-color-line-persistence-housing-discrimination/>
- Statista Research Department. (2021). "Median income of black private households in the United States from 1990 to 2020." *Statista*. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/203295/median-income-of-black-households-in-the-us/>
- Statista Research Department. (2021). "Median income of white, non-Hispanic private households in the United States from 1990 to 2020." *Statista*. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/203277/median-income-of-white-households-in-the-us/>
- Summey, Virginia L. *The Life of Elreta Alexander: Activism Within the Courts.* Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2022.

- The North Carolina Museum of History, The North Carolina Department of Natural and Cultural Resources, Raleigh, NC www.ncmuseumofhistory.org/learn/in-the-classroom/timelines/eighteenth-century-north-carolina
- The William Penn Oral History Collection, High Point University, High Point, NC
<https://www.highpoint.edu/library/william-penn-collection/>
- Thompson-Miller, Ruth, Feagin, Joe, and Picca, Leslie. (2015). *Jim Crow's Legacy: The Lasting Impact of Segregation*. Rowman & Littlefield: New York, NY
- Tyson, Timothy B. *Blood Done Sign My Name: A True Story*. New York: Crown Books, 2004.
- Underground Railroad in Guilford College Woods, Guilford College, Greensboro, NC
<https://library.guilford.edu/c.php?g=656676&p=5029507>
- VonLockette, N. D. (2010). "The Impact of Metropolitan Residential Segregation on the Employment Chances of Blacks and Whites in the United States." *City & Community*, 9(3), 256–273.
- Williams, David R., Neighbors, Harold W., and Jackson, James S. (2003). "Racial/Ethnic Discrimination and Health: Findings From Community Studies", *American Journal of Public Health* 93(2):200-208.
- Wilson, Valerie, "Inequities Exposed: How COVID-19 Widened Racial Inequities in Education, Health, and the Workforce—Testimony before the U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor," Economic Policy Institute. Washington, D.C., June 22, 2020.

Appendix A – Timeline of African American History 1600-2022

Synthesizing the work of historians, political scientists, economists, and sociologists, what follows is a historical timeline of Black labor and the struggle for equality with particular milestones regarding African Americans drawn from the North Carolina Museum of History, High Point Museum, and the references listed at the end of the document, including Glenn Chavis' *Our Roots, Our Branches, Our Fruit: High Point's Black History, 1859-1960*, to help guide the Commission and serve as an educational tool for the public.

- **1600** Upwards of 40 million people organized into centralized states as well as decentralized societies have been living in complex cultural, economic, and political entities across West and West Central Africa for over two thousand years. Meanwhile, Native Americans, organized into multiple nations and scores of tribes in the area of North Carolina include Tuscarora on the seaboard east coast, Catawba in the Piedmont, and Cherokee in the western mountains. The Saura (Cheraw) and the Keeyauwee live near the area of High Point. They were Siouan people, sharing a similar language and culture.
- **1606** The area of present-day North Carolina is included in English King James I's charter to the Virginia Company of London.
- **1607** Jamestown, the first successful English colony in North America, is established in Virginia. The colonists begin using tobacco as a cash crop for export to England.
- **1619** A Dutch ship arrives at Jamestown carrying 20 captive African natives. These Africans are treated as indentured servants and worked in tobacco fields. Their introduction into Virginia sets the stage for African slavery to develop in English America.
- **1629** King Charles I grants land south of Virginia to Sir Robert Heath. The king names the region Carolina, or Carolana, for himself.
- **1650** White settlers begin to move into Native American lands along the coastal sounds and rivers of North Carolina.
- **1650–1820** The area of present-day North Carolina serves as a haven for runaway slaves. Locally, many flee to the New Garden woods (Guilford Woods today) while many

others flee to the Great Dismal Swamp in the northeastern part of the state, where some establish communities.

- **1663** King Charles II grants Carolina to eight supporters called Lords Proprietors. The region, which includes present-day North and South Carolina, stretches from Albemarle Sound in the north to present-day Florida in the south and west to the Pacific Ocean. The Proprietors divide this land into three counties: Albemarle, Clarendon, and Craven. Scottish merchant William Drummond is appointed governor of Albemarle County, the only one of the three counties with colonists. Tobacco becomes a major export crop, although lack of a deep-water port prevents shipment of goods directly to England.
- **1663–1667** Colonists from Boston and Barbados attempt to settle in the Cape Fear region, but no settlements last long. Settlers continue to enter the colony from the north, but the Cape Fear region will not have permanent colonists until 1725. The Albemarle County Assembly, North Carolina’s earliest legislative assembly, meets for the first time.
- **1669** In an attempt to tighten their control over unruly Albemarle colonists, the Lords Proprietors issue the Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina, written by John Locke. This document increases the power of appointed officials, decreases the power of elected officials, and makes ownership of 50 acres of land a requirement for voting. Locke asserts that enslaved people are an extension of property; they do not have civil or political rights in his world view.
- **1672** George Fox, founder of the Society of Friends (Quakers), and missionary William Edmundson visit Albemarle and convert many colonists to Quakerism. Edmundson preaches the first sermon in the colony near the site of Hertford. Quakers will become the first religious body to obtain a foothold in Carolina. Some would emerge as strident Abolitionists and allies to African Americans seeking their liberation.
- **1677** Albemarle settlers using enslaved Black labor market 2,000 hogsheads of tobacco, receiving £20,000 for the year’s crop (equivalent to approximately \$3 million today)
- **1689** The Lords Proprietors appoint Philip Ludwell governor of Albemarle and all of the colony “north and east of the Cape Feare.” This splits Carolina into two political entities.

- **1700** An escaped slave serves as an architect in the construction of a large Tuscarora fort near the Neuse River.
- **1701** English settlers begin moving west and south of the Albemarle area.
- **1709** Surveyor John Lawson, who began a thousand-mile journey through the colony at the end of 1700, publishes *A New Voyage to Carolina*.
- **1710** The Tuscarora on the Roanoke and Tar-Pamlico Rivers send a petition to the government of Pennsylvania protesting the seizure of their lands and enslavement of their people by Carolina settlers.
- **1711** The Tuscarora capture surveyor John Lawson and two enslaved Africans. Lawson argues with the chief, Cor Tom, and is executed. The Native Americans spare one White settler and the Africans. In a series of uprisings over the next four years, the Tuscarora attempt to drive away White settlement. The Tuscarora are upset over the practices of White traders, the capture and enslavement of Native Americans by White people, and the continuing encroachment of settlers onto Tuscarora hunting grounds.
- **1715** An act of assembly declares the Church of England the established church of the colony and adopts plans to build roads, bridges, ferries, sawmills, and gristmills throughout the colony, for which enslaved Black labor will be used. North Carolina adopts its first slave code, which tries to define the social, economic, and physical place of enslaved people. The General Assembly enacts a law denying Black people and Native Americans the right to vote. The king will repeal the law in 1737. Some free African Americans will continue to vote until disfranchisement in 1835.
- **1720** Exports of pitch and tar to Great Britain by way of New England are reported at 6,000 barrels. Enslaved Black labor is used for production.
- **1723** South Carolina planters settle along the Lower Cape Fear River and begin developing the rice and naval stores industries. They bring large numbers of enslaved Black people and a large, plantation-style system of slavery.
- **1729** North Carolina becomes a royal colony when King George II purchases shares from seven of the eight Lords Proprietors. Only Earl Granville refuses to sell. Small quantities of iron are shipped to England at this time.

- **1730** Excluding Native Americans, North Carolina's population is approximately 35,000.
- **1731** The port of Brunswick (just south of Wilmington today) flourishes. Forty-two vessels carrying cargo sail from the port in one year. The cargo is produced with enslaved Black labor.
- **1734** The first tobacco market in North Carolina opens in Bellair, Craven County.
- **1741** A law is enacted by the General Assembly requiring newly freed slaves to leave North Carolina within six months.
- **1750s** Armed conflicts arise between the Cherokee and colonists, who continue to expand areas of settlement further into the western part of the colony.
- **1753** The colony reports exports of pitch, tar, and turpentine at 84,012 barrels, drawing on enslaved Black labor.
- **1763** A group of White men from Edgecombe, Granville, and Northampton Counties petition the General Assembly to repeal a 1723 law that heavily taxes free African Americans upon marriage. The petitioners state that the tax leaves Black and mixed-race people "greatly impoverished and many of them rendered unable to support themselves and families with the common necessities of life."
- **1767** There are about 40,000 enslaved people in the colony, ninety percent of whom were field workers who performed agricultural jobs. Most of the remaining ten percent were domestic workers, and a small number worked as artisans in skilled trades, such as butchering, carpentry, and tanning. In the area of Guilford County, the Rev. David Caldwell opens a school, later known as Caldwell's Log College. The school, which serves as an academy, a junior college, and a theological seminary, becomes the most important one in the colony. Notably, Caldwell and his wife, Rachel, own an enslaved woman, **Ede**, who is prominently figured in years to come in the Abolitionist writings of Quaker Levi Coffin.
- **1774** Rowan County freeholders adopt resolutions opposing Crown taxes and duties, favoring restrictions on imports from Great Britain, and objecting to the "African trade."
- The First Continental Congress issues a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances" against Great Britain later in the year.

- **1775** North Carolina has a population estimated at 250,000, making it the fourth most populous mainland British colony. Between 10 and 30 percent of the backcountry population is of German descent, and most other White settlers in the region are Scots-Irish. Eastern North Carolina is populated mostly by English colonists and enslaved African Americans. From November to December, Virginia’s royal governor, the Earl of Dunmore, calls upon slaves, indentured servants, and other Loyalists to assist in suppressing the rebellion of American colonists, promising those who were enslaved their freedom. Hundreds of African Americans from Virginia and North Carolina join his Royal Ethiopian Regiment. At the Battle of Great Bridge, Virginia and North Carolina colonials defeat Dunmore’s forces.
- **1776** The Yearly Meeting of the Society of Friends—Quakers—denounce slavery and appoint a committee to aid Friends in emancipating their slaves. Forty enslaved people are freed, but the courts declare them still enslaved and resell them. The British recruit enslaved and free African Americans along the North Carolina coast to form the Black Pioneers and Guides, a regiment of guides and laborers. This unit serves throughout the Revolutionary War. The Provincial Congress adopts the first North Carolina state constitution and elects Richard Caswell as governor.
- **1778** A list of Black people in the Continental Army shows that 58 African Americans served in the North Carolina Brigade. Upwards of one-tenth of George Washington’s Continental Army consisted of African American men. On November 15, the Continental Congress adopts the Article of Confederation, uniting the colonies in the war against Great Britain and toward a unified government. African American **John Chavis** from Halifax County joins the Fifth Virginia Regiment of the Continental Army. Chavis remains in the army for three years and will go on to become a prominent teacher and minister. In 1832 Chavis will write to Senator Willie P. Mangum: “Tell them if I am Black, I am [a] free born American & a revolutionary soldier & therefore ought not to be thrown out of the scale of notice.”
- **1781 Ned Griffen**, an enslaved Black man from Guilford County, fought on the Patriot’s side of the American Revolutionary War at the Battle of Guilford Court House. Griffen

served as a substitute for his master William Kitchen who had deserted the North Carolina Brigade. Kitchen promised Griffen his freedom upon discharge, but instead reneged and sold him to a slave owner in Edgecombe County. Griffen, who was enlisted for just over one year (June 1781 to July 1782) petitioned the legislature for his freedom and three years later the General Assembly passed a law freeing Griffen “forever hereafter” and enfranchisement. His heirs were deeded 640 acres of land in October 1783.

- **1782** The British evacuate Charlestown, Massachusetts. With them go more than 800 North Carolina Loyalist soldiers (some will later be joined by their families) and perhaps as many as 5,000 African Americans, many of them runaway slaves from North and South Carolina.
- **1784** Methodist circuit riders, or traveling preachers, cover the North Carolina backcountry. Some Methodists are “Republican Methodists” who denounce slavery, and many circuit riders bar slaveholders from communion. Meanwhile, the Quakers’ North Carolina Yearly Meeting begin sending petitions to the North Carolina Legislature stressing the immorality of slavery and the importance of abolition.
- **1785** The General Assembly enacts a law requiring free and enslaved African Americans to wear badges in the towns of Edenton, Fayetteville, Washington, and Wilmington. Enslaved people must wear a leaden or pewter badge in a conspicuous place. Free Black people must wear a cloth badge on his or her left shoulder with the word free in capital letters.
- **1787** The banjo, an African musical instrument, is first mentioned in a journal by a visitor to Tarboro. (In the early 21st century, former Guilford County resident and Guggenheim Fellow, **Rhiannon Giddens** will help revive the African American tradition of the banjo, for which her music will receive a Grammy.)
- **1788** An iron mine and forge operate in Lincoln County. Enslaved Black labor is likely used in the mining operation.
- **1790** The federal government takes the first census of the United States. Total North Carolina population, 393,751; Enslaved population, 100,572; Free Black

population, 4,975. **Henry Evans**, a free Black shoemaker, and Methodist minister, is credited with starting the Methodist church in Fayetteville.

- **1791** Wilmington exports about 3,000 hogsheads of flaxseed. Flax and hemp are important in the economy of backcountry farms, some of which include enslaved Black labor.
- **1792** Approximately 1,200 African Americans living in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, Canada, many formerly from the Carolinas, resettle in Sierra Leone, West Africa. **Thomas Peters**, formerly enslaved in North Carolina, leads the party. Peters left his Wilmington-area plantation in 1776 to join the Black Pioneers and eventually attained the rank of sergeant in the regiment.
- **1793** Eli Whitney invents the first commercially successful cotton gin in Georgia. The cotton gin eventually changes the agricultural face of North Carolina by making cotton a profitable cash crop. Work begins on the Dismal Swamp Canal, which will link South Mills in Camden County with waterways in Virginia. Constructed with enslaved Black labor, the canal is the oldest man-made waterway in the United States.
- **1799** Gold is discovered on John Reed's farm in Cabarrus County, starting North Carolina's gold rush, which draws on enslaved Black labor. North Carolina becomes the primary supplier of gold for the United States until 1849.
- **1800** North Carolina total population 478,103; Enslaved Black population, 133,296. An average of 3,500 enslaved Africans and African Americans are being brought into North Carolina every year for their labor.
- **1802** A planned slave rebellion alarms White residents of northeastern North Carolina. Eleven suspected organizers are brutally executed to serve as an example to other potential rebels.
- **1807** Federal law ends the legal importation of enslaved Africans. However, Africans who are enslaved are still smuggled into the country, and internal slave trading continues until the abolishment of slavery across the nation nearly six decades later.

- **1808** The freeborn African American and veteran of the American Revolutionary War, **John Chavis**, opens a school in Raleigh. Chavis teaches White children by day and Black pupils at night.
- **1810** North Carolina total population, 555,500; enslaved Black population, 168,824. New Garden (Guilford) woods Underground Railroad conductor **Saul**, who partnered with Quaker Abolitionist Levi Coffin in Guilford County, risks his life to help other enslaved Africans and African Americans gain their freedom.
- **1814** The North Carolina Manumission Society organizes at New Garden Friends Meeting with Levi Coffin and cousin Vestal Coffin among its founding members. The organization is Quaker led but interdenominational and committed to gradual emancipation and the legal reforms to bring an end to slavery.
- **1819** Congress passes the Missouri Compromise, which admits Missouri to the United States as a slave state but prohibits slavery in the northern territories. North Carolina congressmen are divided on the issue: those from the east oppose the slavery exclusion measure, and those from the west favor it. During this year, both North Carolina and Virginia's legislators enact changes to facilitate interstate slave trading. Also, **John Dimery** is kidnapped by his former master's heirs and escapes to the New Garden woods, where he is assisted by Vestal Coffin—an early account of the Underground Railroad operating in Guilford County. Dimery would soon make his way to Wayne County, Indiana.
- **1820** North Carolina total population, 638,829; Enslaved Black population, 205,017; Free Colored population, 14,612.
- **1824** Gold is discovered in Rowan County in an area that becomes known as Gold Hill. Extensive mining begins in 1843, creating a short-lived boom town. Copper is also found in the area and will be mined until 1907. Enslaved Black labor is used in this mining until the end of slavery in 1865.
- **1825** African American artisan Thomas Day begins making furniture and opens his own shop, where he teaches his trade to White apprentices and enslaved Black workers.

- **1826** The North Carolina General Assembly passes a law forbidding the migration of free Black people into the state.
- **1829 George Moses Horton** publishes a book of poetry entitled *The Hope of Liberty*. It is the first book by an enslaved Black person not only in North Carolina but across the entire South.
- **1830** North Carolina total population, 737,987; Enslaved Black population 245,601; Free Colored population, 19,543. The General Assembly passes “Black Codes” restricting the activities of free and enslaved African Americans—for instance requiring a \$1,000 bond for each enslaved person freed to be on ‘good behavior’ and mandating that they leave the state within 90 days. David Walker, an African American born free in Wilmington in 1785, publishes *Walker’s Appeal to the Colored Citizens of the World* in Boston. Walker advocates open rebellion and the North Carolina General Assembly bans Walker’s writings, as well as other “seditious” works that “might excite insurrection.”
- **1831** The enslaved preacher **Nat Turner** leads twenty followers in a bloody revolt through Southampton County, Virginia, just north of the North Carolina border. The North Carolina militia is called out to assist in stopping the rebellion. The NC General Assembly passes a law forbidding Black preachers to speak at worship services where enslaved people from different owners are in attendance, and forbidding anyone to teach African Americans to read and write. **Omar ibn Said**, an enslaved Senegambian Muslim scholar, who had run away from South Carolina but is caught in Fayetteville, where he is re-enslaved, writes his autobiography in Arabic. Intrigued by his abilities, Said’s new owner, General James Owen, gives him less work and permits him to study an Arabic translation of the Bible. Said learns English and nominally converts to Christianity, becoming a member of First Presbyterian Church in Fayetteville in 1820. He passes away in 1864, one year before the abolition of slavery, at the age of 94.
- **1835** The North Carolina state constitution is extensively revised, with amendments approved by voters that provide for the direct election of the governor and more democratic representation in the legislature. However, the new state constitution also disenfranchises free Black people.

- **1836** The Senate approves the Cherokee Removal Treaty by one vote.
- **1837** Quakers found New Garden Boarding School, later Guilford College, in Guilford County, which becomes a site of anti-slavery actions. In coming years, one of the college's Black washerwomen, **Vina Curry**, would lend her late husband **Arch Curry's** manumission papers to runaways.
- **1838** Approximately 17,000 North Carolina Cherokee are forcibly removed from the state to Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma). This event becomes known as the Trail of Tears. An estimated 4,000 Cherokee die during the 1,200-mile trek. A few hundred Cherokee refuse to be rounded up and transported. They hide in the mountains and evade federal soldiers. Eventually, a deal is struck between the army and the remaining Cherokee. Tsali, a leading Cherokee brave, agrees to surrender himself to General Winfield Scott to be shot if the army will allow the rest of his people to stay in North Carolina legally. The federal government eventually establishes a reservation for the Eastern Band of Cherokee. Runaway slaves were sometimes incorporated into Native American communities.
- **1839 Stephen Slade**, an enslaved African American, discovers a method of curing bright-leaf tobacco on a plantation in Caswell County.
- **1840** North Carolina total population, 753,419; Enslaved Black population, 245,817; Free Colored population, 22,732. Enslaved African Americans from North Carolina have been appearing in New York and other cities in the North, such as Sarah Moore, a fugitive slave who would end up living in New Haven, Connecticut. Enslaved people of all ages ran away, but most were in their twenties—the average age being twenty-five and a half—which was their prime working years. Three-fourths of runaways were men. Fugitives who arrived in New York told stories of frequent whippings and other brutal punishments. They spoke of “great violence,” “hard master,” and “a very cruel man.” Second only to physical abuse as a motive for escape was the ever-present threat of being sold or having a loved one sold off. The sale of slaves from the Upper South to the Lower South was a very profitable business. Nathaniel Browser, an enslaved North

Carolinian Black man, fled after hearing his owner speak about purchasing a plantation in Louisiana and selling off the people he owned who did not want to go with him.

- **1842 Harriet Jacobs**, an enslaved African American woman from Edenton, is smuggled onto a ship to escape to the North after spending seven years hiding in a small crawlspace above her free grandmother's kitchen in order to stay close to family. With the assistance of a "friendly captain," she is able to make it to Philadelphia, where Robert Purvis and the Vigilance Committee received her and sent her to New York. She later becomes an Abolitionist and writes *Incidents in the Life of a Slave Girl*, published in 1861.
- **1844** The Methodist Church splits into northern and southern contingents over the issue of slavery, followed by a split in the Baptist Church a year later.
- **1846 Joseph Johnson**, an African American who worked on a ship in New Bern, North Carolina, is able to escape when the vessel, bound for Barbados, was "wrecked at sea" and another ship rescued the crew members and brought them to New York.
- **1849 Thomas Day**, a free African American cabinetmaker, operates the state's largest furniture-making business in Milton, Caswell County.
- **1850** North Carolina total population, 869,039; Enslaved Black population, 316,011. Congress passes the Fugitive Slave Act, requiring that all escaped slaves, upon capture, be returned to their masters and that both officials and citizens of free states had to cooperate, or face criminal charges themselves. The law was retroactive, applying to all enslaved people who had run away in the past, including those who had long been residents of free states. The Fugitive Slave Act did nothing to protect free Black people from being kidnapped.
- **1851** As a result of the Fugitive Slave Law, passed by Congress one year earlier, **Jerry McHenry**, who had escaped enslavement in North Carolina eight years earlier and settled in Syracuse, was arrested by federal marshals.
- **1854** The Kansas-Nebraska Act, passed by Congress, effectively repealed the Missouri Compromise of 1820 that drew a line where slavery would be permitted. The bill reopens hostilities between North and South over the expansion of slavery in the

territories by making it possible, through “popular sovereignty,” for slavery to exist in the western territories as they became states.

- **1856** The North Carolina Railroad, which connects Goldsboro and Charlotte, and used enslaved Black labor, is completed. **Hannah Bond**, an enslaved African American woman who had escaped from North Carolina would write a novel entitled *The Bondwoman’s Narrative* under the name Hannah Crafts; she is the first Black woman in the United States to write a novel, but not published until 2002, edited by Henry Louis Gates, Jr.
- **1857 Hinton Rowan Helper**, born in Davie County, publishes his antislavery book *The Impending Crisis of the South*. The U.S. Supreme Court also issues the Dred Scott decision stating that Black people are not considered citizens and that slaveholders can legally take slaves into the free states.
- **1859** The City of High Point is incorporated and named after the highest point of the North Carolina Railroad between Charlotte and Goldsboro; it is a central location for the transportation of cotton and lumber, as well as the importation of processed goods. Its boundaries will eventually be within four counties: Davidson, Forsyth, Guilford, and Randolph. On October 16 of this year the militant Abolitionist John Brown captures the U.S. Arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Va., in an attempt to incite a slave insurrection. Two free African Americans from North Carolina, Lewis Sheridan Leary from Fayetteville and John Anthony Copeland from Raleigh, join Brown’s forces. Leary is killed when U.S. troops capture Brown’s forces. Copeland, along with Brown and other followers, is tried and executed for treason.
- **1860** The High Point African American population is no more than two hundred (an 1859 count notes a total population of 525 in the city); North Carolina total population, 992,622; Enslaved Black population, 361,522. The production of turpentine, primarily for use in shipping, and which uses enslaved Black labor, is the largest manufacturing industry in North Carolina. Two-thirds of the nation’s output of turpentine comes from the state. Most turpentine distilleries are located in Bladen, Cumberland, and New Hanover Counties. In October, a planned slave uprising near Plymouth fails when an enslaved person exposes the plot; and in November, Abraham Lincoln, who opposes the

expansion of slavery in the territories, wins the presidential election. After his election, seven southern states leave the Union.

- **1861** North Carolina lawmakers bar any Black person from owning or controlling a slave, making it impossible for a free person of color to buy freedom for a family member or friend. In February, the Confederate States of America is established with Jefferson Davis as its president. North Carolina initially remains in the United States but in May, a state convention held in Raleigh votes to leave the U.S. and join the Confederacy.
- **1861–1865** Approximately 42,000 North Carolinians lose their lives in the Civil War. North Carolina sends the most men and suffers the most casualties of any Confederate state. Native Americans have varying experiences during the war. Many Cherokees in western North Carolina, some of whom are slave holders, support the Confederacy. One of the best-known Confederate units has two companies of Cherokee soldiers. The Lumbee in eastern North Carolina, however, are forced to work on Confederate fortifications near Wilmington. Many flee and form groups to resist impressment.
- **1863** On January 1, President Abraham Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation. James City, a community of freed slaves, is settled near New Bern in Union-occupied Craven County.
- **1864** The Board of Commissioners of High Point passes multiple ordinances, including to stop “All Negroes trading at the trains or selling in the streets... and any Negro violating the ordinance shall receive fifteen lashes for each offense.” They also pass a regulation stating “It shall be the duty of the street patrol to see that not more than two Negroes are to gather at one place at a time on Sunday except it be on the way to preaching.” Moreover, the Board passed an ordinance that called on free White males between the ages of 16 and 60 years of age to work on the streets and roads of High Point but that “... all able bodied male slaves between the ages foresaid [16-60] shall be required to work as foresaid and all owners of such slaves shall be required to send them with such tools as the street commissioner shall designate.” (See Chavis, 1)
- **1865** On April 9, General Robert E. Lee surrenders the Army of Northern Virginia to General Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox, Virginia. Lee’s forces include large numbers of

North Carolinians. After abandoning the capital at Richmond, Confederate president Jefferson Davis and his cabinet stop in Greensboro to attempt to reorganize the failing Confederate war effort. Davis passes through Charlotte on his way south when the surrender of General Johnston's army becomes certain. General Sherman's Union army soon occupies Raleigh. Federal troops arrest Governor Zebulon B. Vance and William W. Holden is appointed governor by President Andrew Johnson, who takes office with the assassination of Lincoln. In October, a North Carolina convention votes to repeal the Ordinance of Secession and end slavery; on November 28, the General Assembly ratifies the 13th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which officially abolishes slavery.

- **1867** Congress passes a Reconstruction Act, making North Carolina part of a military district under Federal army occupation.
- **1868** An election brings the first African American state legislators to office—3 senators and 17 representatives. **Wesley Lindsay**, an African American man from High Point, writes the Superintendent of Schools for help in starting a Freedman's School in the city for Black people. On July 4, North Carolina is readmitted to the Union.
- **1869** North Carolina has 257 schools for African Americans with a combined enrollment of 15,657 students. On March 5, North Carolina ratifies the 15th Amendment, which gives African American men the right to vote.
- **1870** North Carolina total population, 1,071,361; Black population 390,650. Governor Holden proclaims Alamance and Caswell Counties in a state of insurrection after the Ku Klux Klan perpetrate acts of violence, including several murders. Empowered by an 1869 law, Holden declares martial law and deploys troops to the area. **Moses Nailor** is purported to be the first Black person to make brick by hand in High Point.
- **1871** African Americans begin establishing their own churches in High Point, such as **Rev. Harry Cowens**, who organizes First Baptist Church. Between February and March, Democrats, newly returned to power in the legislature, remove Republican governor Holden from power. They impeach Holden, who is convicted on six charges; in September, Congress, alarmed about recent events in North Carolina, investigates the role of the Ku Klux Klan in the state's politics. Nearly 1,000 men are arrested by federal

soldiers for alleged involvement with the Klan; 37 are convicted. This investigation helps limit Klan activity in the state for a period of years.

- **1873 James Edward O'Hara** becomes the first African American lawyer admitted to the North Carolina Bar. Two years later, **John A. Hyman** becomes the first African American to represent North Carolina in Congress. He serves until 1877. A stagecoach driver who became famous along Plank Road (now Main Street) in High Point was **Henry C. Davis**, a young African American who drove the route from Salem to High Point.
- **1877** Reconstruction ended when newly elected Republican president Rutherford B. Hayes removes Federal troops from the South in a compromise brokered by the Republican Party to allow him to win several contested electoral college votes. The General Assembly authorizes a normal school for Black people and chooses the Howard School, which opened in 1867 in Fayetteville and is renamed the State Colored Normal School (now Fayetteville State University), designated for teacher training. It is the first state-supported institution of higher learning for African Americans in North Carolina. Zebulon Vance, North Carolina governor during the Civil War, is reelected to the office as Democrats, known as Redeemers, regain control of the state government.
- **1879 Charles N. Hunter** helps form the North Carolina Industrial Association to try to improve the lives of African Americans by emphasizing economic progress rather than political activity (similar to Booker T. Washington soon thereafter). Hunter's Colored Industrial Fair, held in Raleigh, becomes the most popular social event for Black people in the state.
- **1880** North Carolina total population, 1,339,750; Black population, 531,277. North Carolina has 126 tobacco factories that annually manufacture 6.5 million pounds of plug tobacco and 4 million pounds of smoking and other tobacco, altogether valued at \$2,300,000. Tobacco manufacturing eventually becomes centered in Durham, Winston-Salem, Reidsville, and Greensboro. Meanwhile, African Americans in High Point are beginning to establish their own small businesses, such as restaurant owners **Willis R. Hinton** and his wife **Fannie Hinton** on South Main Street. North Carolina's first furniture factory opens in Mebane the following year.

- **1887** The Farmer's Alliance and Cooperative Union, a national grassroots organization, spreads into North Carolina, where the Colored Farmers' Alliance is under the leadership of Black Populist leader the **Rev. Walter A. Pattillo**. The Alliance encourages North Carolina farmers to band together to fight unfair credit practices among the state's merchants and to bring farm issues into the political arena. By 1891 the Colored Farmers' Alliance has up to 10,000 African American members. **Charles W. Chesnutt**, the son of freeborn Sampson County African Americans, becomes the first Black writer to publish in the *Atlantic Monthly* and serves as principal of the State Colored Normal School (now Fayetteville State University).
- **1888** The High Point Furniture Manufacturing Company is established. High Point begins its rise as a major furniture manufacturing center, drawing on Black labor. Willis Hinton, an African American businessman who arrived in High Point in 1868, first worked the North Carolina Railroad. After leaving a factory job in 1883, he opened a café on South Main Street. His business flourished for five years before selling it to open the 11-room Hinton Hotel on East Washington Street, which he operated for over three decades.
- **1890** North Carolina total population, 1,617,949; Black population, 561,018. Because of overproduction, cotton prices drop to an all-time low of 5¢ per pound, down from 25¢ per pound in 1868. Agricultural depression ruins many North Carolina farmers, forcing them into bankruptcy.
- **1891** The General Assembly charters the State Normal and Industrial School as the first state-supported institution of higher education for White women; Black women do not enter the institution for another six and a half decades. It later becomes known as Woman's College (now the University of North Carolina at Greensboro). The General Assembly charters the Agricultural and Mechanical College for the Colored Race (now North Carolina A&T State University). The school opens in Greensboro in 1893 to teach African Americans practical agriculture and mechanical arts and to provide academic and classical instruction.
- **1892** The State Colored Normal School (now Elizabeth City State University), chartered in 1891, opens at Elizabeth City to educate and train African American teachers for

North Carolina's public schools. Slater Industrial Academy (now Winston-Salem State University) is founded.

- **1893** The Society of Friends (Quakers) establishes the campus of High Point Normal and Industrial to educate African Americans after purchasing five acres of land from **James Day**, an African American man, for \$800.
- **1893–1898** An era of Fusion politics ensues when Populists and Republicans joined together in a coalition to defeat the ruling Democrats. Most Populists are White farmers who feel that the Democratic Party has not addressed their economic concerns; many are Black farmers.
- **1895–1896** Caesar and Moses Cone establish the Proximity Manufacturing Mill in Greensboro. Ten years later, they open a second plant, the White Oak Mill, which becomes the largest cotton mill in the South and the largest denim-manufacturing plant in the world. Cotton planting and harvesting are heavily reliant on Black farmers and agrarian workers.
- **1896** The U.S. Supreme Court rules in *Plessy v. Ferguson* that “separate but equal” accommodations are constitutional; **George Henry White** benefited from Fusion politics when he is elected to Congress from North Carolina's Second Congressional District in 1896 and 1898. He is the only African American representative in Congress. He appoints African Americans to federal positions within his district and introduces the first antilynching bill, which the Mississippi-born anti-lynching journalist and women's suffragist Ida B. Wells documents.
- **1897** The public school system, which begins in High Point this year, is partially funded through poll taxes that keep African Americans, who comprise thirty percent of the city, from voting. Private funds have supported Black education in High Point since the late 1860s. Tying public funding with disfranchising Black voters is an example of the city's political stance with regard to the African American population (see Ringel report for the One High Point Commission). **Alfred James Griffin** becomes the first Black principal of High Point Normal and Industrial Institute, which later becomes William Penn High School to honor the Quaker support in its initial funding. His tenure lasts until 1923, the

year the institute becomes part of the High Point City School System. Also this year, **Warren C. Coleman** opens the nation's first African American–owned and –operated textile mill in Concord.

- **1898** The Wilmington ‘Race Riot’ occurs on November 10 when White Democrats overthrow Wilmington’s legally elected Republican government. Democrats install a White supremacist government. A large group of White men burn the office and press of the *Daily Record*, an African American newspaper. Dozens of Black people are killed, even as they fight back. The violent coup signals the end of Black Populism in the state. Some of the midwives in High Point’s Black community are **Clara Donald, Ella Hoover, Kate Loftin, Camilla Tate, and Martha Conrad.**
- **1900** The total High Point population is 4,163; the African American population is likely no more than 1,000. The North Carolina total population, 1,893,810; Black population, 624,469. The state has 217 textile mills and 101 tobacco factories in operation. An amendment to the North Carolina Constitution is adopted that institutes a literacy test for voting. The amendment includes a grandfather clause that allows illiterate White people to vote but effectively disfranchises the state’s African American citizens— the beginnings of Jim Crow.
- **1902** Black educator Charlotte Hawkins Brown opens Palmer Memorial Institute in Sedalia; nearly forty years later she speaks at High Point’s Fairview Street School as part of “Negro History Week,” and again a decade later at St. Marks Methodist Church to help raise money for a burned down dormitory at Sedalia. **Rev. L. D. Twine** will soon build the support to organize the Cherry Street Presbyterian Church at the old Freedman’s School building on Perry Street in High Point. The name was later changed to Second Presbyterian Church.
- **1903** North Carolina passes its first child labor laws; Booker T. Washington addresses the North Carolina Industrial Association’s annual fair. He advises African Americans to content themselves as agrarian people and eschew migration, as many Black people began moving to the North and West in what became known as the Great Migration.

- **1905** North Carolina author Thomas Dixon Jr. publishes his book *The Clansman*. The book serves as the basis for D. W. Griffith's racist silent film *The Birth of a Nation* (1915), which was later screened by President Woodrow Wilson in the White House. High Point African American resident **J. W. Harris**, who owned a large lot near the colored Odd Fellows Hall, begins planning for an office building and opera house for Black citizens.
- **1907** R. J. Reynolds Tobacco Company of Winston-Salem draws heavily on Black labor. While the company was among the first in the industry to integrate production lines, most African Americans were still denied better-paying jobs and typically worked in unpleasant conditions.
- **1910** North Carolina total population, 2,206,287; Black population, 697,843. High Point's Black middle class emerges with more businesses, including a store owned by local Black resident **Laura Gray** on Fairview Street and Patterson's Drug Store, located on East Washington Street—the first Black-owned and operated pharmacy in the city. High Point's total population is 9,525.
- **1911** The Greensboro city council and other southern cities pass ordinances requiring separate White and Black residential areas. In the midst of segregation, a number of African Americans in High Point are able to develop successful businesses, including **Nannie Kilby**, **Ed Wills**, and **John Patterson** on Washington Street, serving the Black neighborhoods of Griffin Park, Burns Hill, and South High Point.
- **1916** Fifteen Black citizens and trustees of the Odd Fellows and Morris Chapel ME Church, on Washington Street, petitioned the city of High Point to have Washington Street paved with asphalt. Several months later, the city approved the allocation of funds for this.
- **1919** The total High Point population is 14,302. The North Carolina total population is 2,559,123; Black population, 763,407. North Carolina is the second-most-industrialized state in the South, with an output of a billion dollars per year. The state's top industrial goods are textiles, tobacco products, and furniture, all of which use Black labor in multiple capacities. High Point Black resident **Jane Cameron Cosby**, the first Black

matron employed by the Southern Railroad Co., was killed by a train engine on her way home from work.

- **1920** The 19th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, granting women the right to vote, does not necessarily apply to Black women living in the Jim Crow South. The same year, *The High Point Enterprise* reported that 52 women and 245 men had registered to vote in the upcoming elections. Of those, two were Black women and three were Black men. In Harnett County, African Americans served notice on the registrar that they are going to have their names placed on registration books “even to the point of shedding blood.”
- **1921** The Piedmont region is recognized nationally as a leader in wooden furniture manufacturing, which draws heavily on the work of African Americans. The same year, **Rev. Emily Nichols** becomes the first Black female preacher in High Point when she came to preach at Beulah Tabernacle on Fairview Street; the African American dentist **Dr. Eva Zeigler** would soon become the first female dentist to practice in High Point.
- **1922** African Americans from High Point meet at First Baptist Church on East Washington Street and raise funds to help with relief among the victims of fires that swept through 46 blocks of New Bern, North Carolina, leaving 3,000 people homeless by the disaster.
- **1925** The High Point committee appointed to look into a possible ordinance forbidding the serving of White and Black customers together in the same café recommended an ordinance to this effect, effectively segregating the city’s cafés.
- **1929** One-tenth of the state’s industrial labor force is employed by three tobacco companies, all reliant on Black labor. The same year, the Ku Klux Klan held a big parade and meeting in High Point.
- **1930** North Carolina total population, 3,170,276; Black population, 918,647. In High Point, a series of night community schools were organized, including one for Black men and women at William Penn High School. The high school hosts the renowned Black poet and author Langston Hughes the year after, who had been recruited by the school’s principal **Edward E. Curtright**.

- **1932** Cotton mill workers in High Point strike. The following year, employees at more than 100 additional mills go on strike. Black workers picked and packed much of the cotton for these mills. High Point African American resident Ossie Davis is the publisher of a local Black newspaper, the *Piedmont American*.
- **1933** A group of White and Black citizens in High Point endorsed the establishment of a commission for the city that would comprise Black and White citizens—the work of which they were to do together is not clear. Walter White, the national secretary of the NAACP, addresses the local Black community of High Point at St. Mark Methodist Church on East Washington Street to promote the establishment of a city chapter of the organization.
- **1934** The Emancipation Proclamation Day was celebrated in High Point at St. Mark Methodist Church and a parade started at Fairview Street School and proceeded across town to the church. The only African American member of Congress, Oscar De Priest, speaks at William Penn High School. Two years later in High Point, Professor Benjamin Quarles of Shaw University gives a talk on the Emancipation Proclamation celebration at the high school entitled “Emancipation Today and Yesterday.”
- **1937** The High Point Commission on Inter-Racial Cooperation presented a program at St. Mark Church with both Black and White citizens in attendance to foster better ‘race relations.’ In August of this year, three Black men were killed as they worked on the lowering of the Southern Railroad system tracks through the heart of High Point.
- **1938** African American students in Greensboro initiate a theater boycott that spreads to other cities. Black students boycott theatres owned by the all-White Southern Theaters Incorporated. This same year in High Point, **John R. Coltrane**, the father of the great jazz musician **John Coltrane** passes away. The senior Coltrane operated a tailor shop and played ukulele and violin. The junior Coltrane’s grandfather, **Rev. William Wilson Blair**, was a presiding elder of the AME Zion church and an influential person in High Point. The same year that Coltrane’s father passes away, so do his aunt and grandmother, leaving his mother to raise him on her own.

- **1939** The enrollment of Black students in the High Point School system is 1,458. They all attended segregated schools.
- **1940** The total population of High Point is 38,495, with a slowing down in the growth of the city and rapid expansion into the suburbs. The North Carolina total population is 3,571,623; Black population, 981,298. This year there were three public schools for Black students—William Penn High School, Leonard Street School, and Fairview Street School—and a total of 44 Black teachers. Their enrollments grew over the next four years to 342, 626, and 355 students, respectively.
- **1942** John Coltrane, who played the clarinet and alto horn in a community band before switching to the saxophone in 1940, graduates from William Penn High School this year before leaving for Philadelphia soon thereafter.
- **1943** To win votes in Black precincts, mayoral candidate Arnold Koonce promised that he would hire African Americans for the city's police force. Following Koonce's successful election, **O. H. Leak** and **B. A. Steele** were hired as the first two Black patrolmen. Each worked 364 nights a year and were restricted to arresting African Americans.
- **1944** Black soldiers from High Point returning from service in World War II are ignored by the city's government (not until 2013 were their efforts officially recognized and honored).
- **1945** The National Housing Authority based in Washington, D.C. approved an application for immediate construction of 100 new homes in High Point. Fifteen of the new homes were designated for Black people.
- **1946** The great African American educator, and civil and women's rights leader, Mary McLeod Bethune, spoke at the first anniversary of High Point's YWCA.
- **1947** The High Point Metropolitan Council of Negro Women, headed by **Galatia E. Lynch**, conducted a clinic to teach people the technique of registering and voting. A delegation of African Americans from High Point and attorneys for Leon Sharpe, owner of United Cab Company, appeared before the City Council to request more cabs. Two Black cab companies were only allowed to operate 18 cabs between them, which was

far insufficient to relieve the transportation needs of the Black sections of town. This same year **Kenneth R. Williams** becomes the first African American candidate in the 20th-century South to defeat a White opponent in a municipal election. Williams wins a seat on the Winston-Salem Board of Aldermen. The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) tests a Supreme Court decision against segregation in interstate bus travel by sending eight African American men to ride on Greyhound and Trailways buses. Riders are arrested in Durham, Asheville, and Chapel Hill. This “Journey of Reconciliation” becomes the model for the “Freedom Ride” of 1961.

- **1949** There are now four Black Police officers assigned to High Point’s African American community; they walked the beat on East Washington and Fairview streets. Texas political scientist V. O. Key Jr. establishes the mid-twentieth-century image of North Carolina for both natives and outsiders in his book *Southern Politics in State and Nation*. He describes the state as “energetic and ambitious... It enjoys a reputation for progressive outlook and action in many phases of life, especially industrial development, education, and race relations.” The premise of good ‘race relations’ is questionable. The Federal Housing Act (FHA) is part of President Harry Truman’s “Fair Deal” with \$1 billion in loans to cities to help acquire the underdeveloped properties and living spaces of poor people, sometimes referred to derogatorily as ‘slums’ or ‘blighted,’ for redevelopment. The City of High Point will draw on these funds in the 1960s but will not use them in ways that meaningfully benefit African Americans.
- **1950** North Carolina total population, 4,061,929; Black population 1,047,353.
- **1953** Black Pharmacist Augustus M. Greenwood, who co-owns the Washington Street Pharmacy on East Washington Street, files for office in the upcoming City Council election, becoming the first African American to file for a seat in High Point’s history.
- **1954** In *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, the U.S. Supreme Court ordered that public schools be integrated “with all deliberate speed.” Most North Carolina schools are not actually desegregated for another decade and a half. Enrollment in High Point’s Black schools is as follows: William Penn High School, 506; Fairview Street, 386; Alfred J. Griffin, 248; Leonard Street, 542.

- **1955** In response to the *Brown* decision, the North Carolina General Assembly passes a resolution stating that “The mixing of the races in the public schools within the state cannot be accomplished and if attempted would alienate public support to such an extent that they could not be operated successfully.” High Point’s Parks and Recreation Commission recommended to the City Council that segregation in regard to recreation facilities be maintained. African Americans organized the High Point Citizens League in order to encourage interest and active participation among local citizens in acquiring and maintaining the highest degree of civic knowledge and involvement. Officers included **Rev. S. A. Speight**, president; **H. H. LeMon**, vice president; **T. R. McRae**, recording secretary; **Rev. F. O. Bass**, assistant recording secretary; **Lillian McDonnell**, financial secretary; **Louis B. Haizlip**, treasurer; **Dr. Jerome J. Wilson**, parliamentarian; **Dr. Hubert Creft**, chairman of the Executive Board; **D. L. Flowe**, vice chairman of the Executive Board.
- **1956** The North Carolina General Assembly passes an amendment to the state constitution known as the Pearsall Plan to allow the state to legally oppose immediate desegregation of public schools. Individual school systems are given the right to suspend the operation of their schools by vote, and the legislature is authorized to provide payment for students who attend private schools because their parents do not want them to attend integrated schools. This same year, High Point’s Negro Elks Lodge donated \$350 to pay for classroom equipment needed by the William Penn High School driver-training program. Among those in the Lodge who were instrumental were **Walter Moore**, **A. B. Walker**, **C. Lassiter**, **Frank Mason**, **Robert Anderson**, **W. M. Pledger**, and **Paul McAdoo**. Later in the year, the High Point Ministerial Alliance appointed the following as a committee to study and recommend ways of establishing an Inter-Racial Commission: **Rev. William P. Price**, the **Rev. Walter J. Miller**; and **Rev. W. S. McLeod**; other members of the alliance were **Rev. J. E. Melton** and **Rev. J. J. Patterson**.
- **1957** Seven Black activists led by the **Rev. Douglas E. Moore** seek service in the White section of an ice cream parlor in Durham. They are arrested and convicted of trespassing, but their sit-in presages a decade of activism. Meanwhile, in High Point,

the civil rights attorney **James Nabrit, Jr.** spoke at the New Bethel Baptist Church during the sixth annual celebration of Race Progress Day.

- **1958** The Rev. Martin Luther King Jr. visits North Carolina in February, delivering speeches in Raleigh and Greensboro.
- **1959** African American resident of High Point, Andrew Mitchell, filed a \$30,000 lawsuit against two High Point policemen in April claiming the officers severely beat and crippled him during an arrest at his home on East Washington Street. Two Durham African American families successfully sue to have their daughters admitted to the city's predominantly White high school.
- **1960** North Carolina total population, 4,556,155; Black population, 1,116,021. High Point's Black business district on Washington Street had 54 businesses within a nine-block area as well as 76 residents. The Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) forms in Raleigh with the support of Civil Rights leader **Ella Baker**, a graduate of Shaw University. On February 1, the nation's first lunch counter sit-in begins in Greensboro when four students from North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College (now North Carolina A&T State University) are refused service at a Woolworth's counter. This form of protest used by **Ezell Blair, Franklin McCain, David Richmond,** and **Joseph McNeil** quickly spreads to High Point and across the South. In Greensboro, the A&T students are joined by students from Bennett College and Dudley H.S., along with students from the Woman's College (now UNC Greensboro) and Guilford College. Civil Rights leader Fred Shuttleworth, who worked closely with Ella Baker, was in High Point at this time and informed Baker that the sit-ins had spread to the city. On February 11, students at William Penn High School are the first high school students in the nation to launch a sit-in, which they carry out at the Woolworth's in the city. There is also a surge in African American voter registration in High Point this year. By May of this year there were 659 additional Black voters registered in the city, bringing the total Black electorate in High Point from 1,467 to 2,126. On October 26, nine African Americans in High Point, ranging in age from 14 to 18 picketed Paramount Theatre on S. Wrenn Street for two and a half hours after being refused entry to the lobby.

- **1962** The City of High Point is slow to move on integration but takes advantage of various improvement projects and studies aimed at urban renewal, the largest of which is the East Central project, which ultimately results in an overall lack of affordable housing, White flight, and the need to address the same issues a couple decades later. Other related projects, particularly those focusing on the Washington Street area, meet with similar results. In effect, municipal codes will lead to de facto residential segregation, barriers to Black homeownership, and hinder generational wealth in High Point's African American community (see Summey report for the One High Point Commission).
- **1963** In the case of *Gilmore et al v. High Point City Board of Education*, a group of African American families in High Point file a lawsuit in federal court to compel the city to integrate the city's schools. The case continues for nearly a decade as the Board drags its feet. Also this year, a group of African American citizens in High Point through the East Central Homeowners Association file a lawsuit claiming the Redevelopment Commission, which creates mass relocation of African Americans in the city under the name of progress, offers too little money for their properties. These renewal programs are dubbed "Negro Removal" programs because of the mass dislocation of Black residents and businesses. Meanwhile, in the Spring of this year, activists once again take to the streets of High Point. African Americans picketed two segregated movie theatres, the Paramount and Center theaters. High Point civil rights leader, **Rev. B. Elton Cox** calls for the reinstatement of a human relations committee to work towards integration.
- **1964** Congress passes a Civil Rights Act prohibiting discrimination against African Americans when it comes to seating and other services. The High Point Human Relations Commission addresses the housing issue in the city after being advised by Black residents that they found it impossible to buy or rent homes outside of their neighborhood.
- **1965** Congress passes a Voting Rights Act prohibiting discrimination against African Americans in their right to vote.

- **1967** There are over 500 applications for public housing in High Point, but less than half of them are able to get into affordable housing; hundreds of African Americans are displaced. The North Carolina Good Neighbor Council releases a report entitled “High Point: Progress in Human Relations” which articulates the grievances of African Americans in the city regarding housing (see Sills and Summey reports).
- **1968** Congress passes a Civil Rights Act prohibiting discrimination against African Americans in the sale or rental of housing. **Henry E. Frye** is elected to the General Assembly. He is the first African American elected to the N.C. State House of Representatives in the 20th century. Pioneering attorney **Elreta Alexander** of Greensboro becomes the first African American elected judge in North Carolina. The Fair Housing Act of this year allows women for the first time to access mortgage financing that can help them with relocation when their families are displaced by urban renewal in High Point.
- **1969** Police and National Guardsmen fire on demonstrators at North Carolina A&T State University, where a student is killed. Urban renewal leads to further African American displacement in High Point where many Black residents are not able to access public housing not only because there is insufficient housing constructed to meet demand but also because they fail to qualify based on either making too little or too much money or having poor credit.
- **1970** Total population of High Point is 63,355. The North Carolina total population is 5,082,059; Black population, 1,126,478.
- **1971** A federal court in Charlotte orders busing to enforce school integration. Public schools across the nation are forced to follow suit. A grocery store in Wilmington is firebombed, sparking violence. The “Wilmington 10,” a group of mainly African American citizens, are convicted of arson and other charges. A federal court will overturn their convictions in 1980. In 1971, the 26th Amendment to the United States Constitution would grant 18-year-olds the right to vote. Also during this year, William Penn High School graduate, **Sammie Chess**, who went on to law school and became a

judge, became North Carolina's first Black Superior Court judge. Prior to this Chess represented several African Americans in civil rights cases.

- **1976** The City of High Point publishes the report "Racial Housing Patterns in High Point"
- **1979** Members of the Communist Party and the Ku Klux Klan clash in Greensboro during an anti-Klan rally. Gunfire is exchanged, and Klan members kill five Communist supporters. A court clears the Klan members of all charges one year later.
- **1980** North Carolina total population, 5,881,766; Black population, 1,318,857. The portion of North Carolina's workforce employed in industry has increased from 29 percent in 1950 to 33. Agriculture, which employed one-fourth of the state's population in 1950, now employs only 3.6 percent of the workforce. Despite a reduction in the number of acres farmed—from 19,317,937 to 11,700,000—the average size of individual farms has increased from 67 to 126 acres as agriculture in the state has become more of a business and less of a family affair. Meanwhile, the number of land-owning Black farmers plummets. In 1930, 37 million acres of land were owned by Black farmers. That number would drop to less than 8 million by 1980. (In 2023 it is just 4.7 million—a half percent of farmland nationwide. In North Carolina, there are more than 46,000 farms, of which Black farmers run about 1,500.)
- **1981** The estimated total value of manufactured products in North Carolina reaches \$60 billion, the wealth of which is in significant measure generated by Black labor, but who see very little return to their communities.
- **1986** The space shuttle Challenger explodes shortly after liftoff, killing all seven people on board, including the African American astronaut Dr. Ron Erwin McNair, a 1971 graduate of North Carolina A&T State University who went on to receive his Ph.D. in Physics from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- **1990** North Carolina total population, 6,626,637; Black population, 1,456,323.
- **1991** Dan Blue becomes the first African American to serve as Speaker of the House in the General Assembly.
- **1997** Timothy Pigford, an African American farmer from North Carolina files a class-action discrimination lawsuit against the U.S. Department of Agriculture; in coming

years he wins the case, with an award totaling \$2 billion. However, only a small portion of the settlement is distributed.

- **2000** The total population of High Point is 100,432. The North Carolina total population is 8,049,313 and the Black population is 1,737,545.
- **2019** The COVID-19 pandemic disproportionately negatively affects High Point's African American population. This is a trend seen across the nation with regard to urban Black populations, as noted by the Economic Policy Institute. For instance, Black workers saw greater losses in employment than White workers, with 9.8 percent loss among Black workers versus 7.8 percent fall among White workers. This was also seen with regard to Black-owned businesses, where 40% of Black business owners reported they were not working in April, compared with only 17% of White business owners. Finally, not only did Black workers lose their jobs at a higher pace and rate than White workers, but those who did not lose their jobs were more likely on the front lines of the economy in essential jobs, forcing them to risk their own and their families' health to earn a living.
- **2020** North Carolina total population, 10,550,000; Black population, 2,218,000.
- **2022** The City of High Point establishes the One High Point Commission to Explore Community Reparations. There are approximately 40,000 African Americans in the City of High Point, comprising approximately 35 percent of the city's population.

Appendix B – Excerpts from Testimonies



FIGURE 34 - CIVIL RIGHTS ACTION BY YOUNG PEOPLE IN HIGH POINT, THE HIGH POINT ENTERPRISE NEGATIVE COLLECTION, FEBRUARY 11, 1960

As attested to by African American residents of High Point who lived under segregation in the 20th century, three points become evident: (1) both private and public sectors discriminated against African Americans, including access to and resources allocated for education, as well as access and transportation to stores in the city and jobs; (2) members of the city's African American community looked out for each other through individual support among residents but also through associations of their own, namely churches and mutual aid associations; and (3) African Americans stood courageously in the face of discrimination and violence demanding justice in terms of affordable housing, adequate transportation, and job opportunities.

Below are excerpts from interviews both recently conducted as well as from the William Penn Oral History Collection of African American residents of High Point who lived through the era of Jim Crow.

“The local government did not treat Blacks the same as Whites. I know for a fact that my family and other Black people in High Point worked hard, paid their taxes for decades, but the local government chose not to redistribute the resources equitably. So, for instance, I mentioned about going to school. I went to public schools segregated for six years. From the first year of sixth grade, and I went to Leonard Street Elementary School. It was decidedly separate and not equal. It was just that.”

Ms. Adrienne Middlebrooks

“Racism, segregation, and the inequities that were forced upon us had this long lasting effect. When you don't provide what a person needs, or you withhold what a person wants and needs, and you make those advantages available to one group of people, and withhold it from another group of people, it has a long lasting effect ... They keep saying that it doesn't make a difference and that everybody is treated the same but the evidence is right there in front of your face... The facts are there for themselves.”

Mrs. Clarice Wilson

“There were some people who just did not have and could not do what should have been done. And the teachers and parents who could would help those kids. It was just a different day then. People cared.”

Mrs. Peggy Allen

“I attended a couple of meetings when the Black Panther Party came to town. My sister marched in the earlier years. She was a couple of years older than myself and I guess when all this movement started I was maybe 13 and my mother wouldn't allow me to take part in it. You know, she did what she felt was best, and that was to shield her children from getting hurt, getting killed, but my sister, she did march, and she did go to jail.”

Mr. Jerry Camp

“... and it just seemed to be at that time anybody of color could be a target for any given reason, or no reason, anywhere.”

Ms. Mary Lou Blakeney

“See, when you have your heritage, you can always come back to it. When you grow up in your heritage, then you go out and learn what's going on in someone else's heritage.”

Mr. John Barber

Appendix C – Timeline of One High Point Commission

September 2021	High Point NAACP presents a resolution to High Point City Council to create a reparations commission
February 2022	City Council approves resolution to create the One High Point Commission
May 2022	One High Point Commission is seated
June 2022	Commissioners begin monthly public meetings
October 2022	One High Point Commission Retreat
December 2022	Commission requests funds to engage project management and research
January 2023	City Council approves request for funds and extends reporting deadline from June to September 2023
March 2023	Subject Matter Experts and Project Manager engaged
July 2023	Presentation of the final report to the One High Point Commission
August 2023	Public Engagement at High Point Theater
September 2023	Presentation of the final report to City Council
December 2023	One High Point Commission disbands

Appendix D – Examples of Governmental Apologies

City of Charlestown

2018-011



RESOLUTION

RECOGNIZING, DENOUNCING AND APOLOGIZING ON BEHALF OF THE CITY OF CHARLESTON FOR THE CITY'S ROLE IN REGULATING, SUPPORTING AND FOSTERING SLAVERY AND THE RESULTING ATROCITIES INFLICTED BY THE INSTITUTION OF SLAVERY AND FURTHER, COMMITTING TO CONTINUE TO PURSUE INITIATIVES THAT HONOR THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THOSE WHO WERE ENSLAVED AND THAT ASSIST IN AMELIORATING REMAINING VESTIGES OF SLAVERY.

WHEREAS, Charleston (formerly Charles Town), founded in 1670, flourished in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries from a robust economy, made possible by the labor of enslaved people, centering on the production of rice, indigo and other commodities; and

WHEREAS, as a result of the adoption and legalization of the institution of slavery from the 15th to the 19th centuries, more than 15.5 million Indigenous Peoples and Africans were subjected to enslavement to develop North America, South America and the Caribbean, with an estimated two million Africans not surviving the Middle Passage; and

WHEREAS, fundamental to the economy of colonial and antebellum Charleston was slave labor, Charleston prospering as it did due to the expertise, ingenuity and hard labor of enslaved Africans who were forced to endure inhumane working conditions that produced wealth for many, but which was denied to them; and

WHEREAS, approximately forty percent of enslaved Africans arrived in North America at the ports of Charleston, with hundreds of thousands of African American citizens today being able to trace their ancestry to Africans arriving here; and

WHEREAS, the institution of slavery did not just involve physical confinement and mistreatment; it also sought to suppress, if not destroy, the cultural, religious and social values of Africans by stripping Africans of their ancestral names and customs, humiliating and brutalizing them through sexual exploitation, and selling African relatives apart from one another without regard to the connection of family, a human condition universal among all peoples of the world; and

WHEREAS, for a time, notwithstanding the Declaration of Independence tenet that all men are created equal, the federal law of the land as embodied in the Constitution did not recognize enslaved Africans as full-fledged humans, denying citizenship either in number or by way of access to basic rights of due process and equal protection of the law, a condition that persisted until 1865 with the enactment of the 13th amendment to the Constitution and 1868 with the enactment of the 14th amendment to the Constitution requiring State compliance with Constitutional mandates; and

WHEREAS, notwithstanding the 14th and 15th amendments to the Constitution, institutionalized discrimination continued in many parts of the country, with the enactment and enforcement of laws that would come to be known as Jim Crow that were designed to separate African Americans from their fellow citizens, to suppress and intimidate their

exercise of basic rights, as voting, and to frustrate educational opportunities that would create long-term loss of their personal and economic advancement; and

WHEREAS, basic decency requires an acknowledgment and apology for the City of Charleston's role in regulating, supporting and fostering the institution of slavery in the city and the past wrongs inflicted on African Americans here in Charleston and elsewhere, and an acknowledgment and an expression of gratitude for the significant contributions made to our community by talented and skilled African Americans that are reflected in the agriculture, architecture, artisanship, arts and cuisine of this City; and

WHEREAS, the City of Charleston has in recent times supported civil rights and social justice, and has taken measures to promote racial tolerance, such as the passage of the City of Charleston Public Accommodations Ordinance which provides for equal enjoyment and privileges to public accommodations; the City of Charleston Fair Housing Practices Ordinance which makes discrimination in housing illegal; the creation of the City of Charleston's Minority and Women Business Enterprise Development office; partnering with the Charleston County School District and education-focused organizations and programs to improve the quality of education in our schools and to encourage children to stay in school; and supporting the efforts of institutions and churches, including in a variety of ways the church members and community of the Mother Emanuel AME Church following the tragedy of June 2015; and

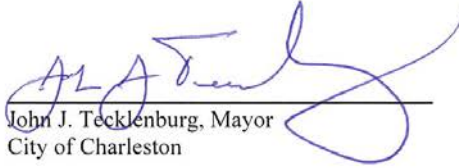
WHEREAS, the story of enslavement, discrimination and segregation of African-Americans and the dehumanizing atrocities committed against them should not be purged from, or minimized in the telling of Charleston's history; moreover, the faith, perseverance, hope, and triumphs of African-Americans and significant contributions to the development of this State and the nation should be embraced, celebrated, and retold for generations to come; and

WHEREAS, the City of Charleston acknowledges that these efforts to strive for equality and equity and opportunity in all areas of life for African Americans in Charleston must persist and therefore commits to the necessity of continuing to undertake and promote effective measures to assist in the amelioration of remaining vestiges of slavery.

NOW, THEREFORE, BE IT RESOLVED by the Mayor and Councilmembers of Charleston, in City Council assembled, that:

- a) We hereby denounce and apologize for the wrongs committed against African Americans by the institution of slavery and Jim Crow, with sincerest sympathies and regrets for the deprivation of life, human dignity and constitutional protections occasioned as a result thereof.
- b) A commitment is hereby made to promote in all City undertakings tolerance and understanding and equal and fair opportunity for all citizens to prosper, personally and economically, and to encourage others to treat all persons with respect and to eliminate prejudice, injustice and discrimination in our city.
- c) A commitment is hereby made to urge all businesses, institutions, organizations, and associations doing business or having activities in the City to strive for racial equality and work for equity in wages, healthcare, housing, and all other aspects of the lives of African Americans.
- d) A pledge is hereby given to continue to work with the Charleston County School District to address the quality of education for children in Charleston and in particular those who attend schools within the City of Charleston.
- e) A pledge is hereby given to promote an understanding of the contributions of African Americans to the economic success, beauty, and culture of this City by way of historic documentation in City art festivals, museums, public spaces, and monuments and to collaborate with other organizations to memorialize the unmarked cemeteries of Africans discovered throughout the City of Charleston and to reinter their remains.
- f) An assurance is hereby provided that the City will seek to promote racial harmony and acceptance by way of initiatives, such as the creation of an office of racial reconciliation, measures designed to educate and accommodate the exchange of ideas among all races and creeds, and to assist in the ever-present process of racial healing and transformation.

PASSED AND APPROVED THIS 19th DAY OF June, 2018.



John J. Tecklenburg, Mayor
City of Charleston

ATTEST:



Vanessa Turner Maybank,
Clerk of Council

NC General Assembly

**GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF NORTH CAROLINA
SESSION 2007
RATIFIED BILL**

**RESOLUTION 2007-21
SENATE JOINT RESOLUTION 1557**

A JOINT RESOLUTION EXPRESSING THE PROFOUND REGRET OF THE NORTH CAROLINA GENERAL ASSEMBLY FOR THE HISTORY OF WRONGS INFLICTED UPON BLACK CITIZENS BY MEANS OF SLAVERY, EXPLOITATION, AND LEGALIZED RACIAL SEGREGATION AND CALLING ON ALL CITIZENS TO TAKE PART IN ACTS OF RACIAL RECONCILIATION.

Whereas, Article 1, Section 1, of the Constitution of North Carolina, in concert with the American Declaration of Independence, proclaims, "We hold it to be self-evident that all persons are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, the enjoyment of the fruits of their own labor, and the pursuit of happiness"; and

Whereas, involuntary servitude, as practiced within the borders of North Carolina in the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, violated the precept that all persons are created equal and denied thousands and thousands of people of liberty, of the pursuit of happiness, of the ability to benefit from their own work, and, in many cases, of life itself; and

Whereas, the practice of slavery was embedded in constitutional provisions and laws enacted by predecessors to this General Assembly and other civil authorities of North Carolina; and

Whereas, the practice of slavery began shortly after the founding of the British Colony of Carolina, with a 1669 constitution that provided land to white colonists according to the level of their holdings in slaves and free black employees, 20 acres per black male and 10 acres per black female; and

Whereas, even though North Carolina did not have as extensive a plantation system as other states in the American South, slavery had become entrenched in the State by the time of the American Revolution, so that at the founding of the United States three out of 10 North Carolina families owned slaves; and

Whereas, North Carolina took legal actions to deny freedom to black people, including an 1826 law that prohibited free blacks from entering the State, an 1830 law that prohibited anyone from teaching a slave to read or write, and a provision of the 1835 Constitution denying free blacks the right to vote; and

Whereas, even as slaves engaged in back-breaking physical labor, endured squalid housing, and saw their families broken apart as spouses and children were sold from one owner to another, black men and women cultivated tobacco, cotton, and other crops in a largely agricultural state, built essential public facilities, and contributed to the creation and accumulation of wealth; and

Whereas, by the time of the American Civil War, North Carolina was home to 330,000 slaves, one-third of the State's population, and North Carolina joined the forces that fought to preserve a region and a society that had slavery as a defining characteristic; and

Whereas, in the aftermath of the Emancipation Proclamation and during the period known as Reconstruction, black residents of North Carolina not only gained legal freedom but also participated more directly in the public life of the State, to the extent that 20 black legislators were elected in 1868 to the General Assembly, and blacks

continued to serve in State and local offices through the remainder of the 19th century; and

Whereas, at the outset of the 20th Century, North Carolina enacted laws that prevented black citizens from participating fully in a democratic society, including a 1900 amendment that denied black citizens the right to vote and the segregation of black and white citizens into separate and unequal public schools; and

Whereas, as a result of dire economic and social conditions, black North Carolinians joined the "Great Migration" from the South to the North in the first half of the 20th Century, so that more than 270,000 people left the State between 1910 and 1950; and

Whereas, despite the legacies of slavery and the imposition of laws that segregated blacks and whites in schools, public facilities, and in civic life, black North Carolinians persisted in faith and in hope for a better life, in their yearnings to participate fully in the economic and democratic life of their State and country; and

Whereas, North Carolina should celebrate the entrepreneurship of black citizens in building nationally recognized businesses; the founding and sustaining of colleges and universities that historically served black students; the many black North Carolinians who have provided leadership in education, law, civil rights, and governance to the State and nation; Now, therefore,

Be it resolved by the Senate, the House of Representatives concurring:

SECTION 1. The General Assembly issues its apology for the practice of slavery in North Carolina and expresses its profound contrition for the official acts that sanctioned and perpetuated the denial of basic human rights and dignity to fellow humans.

SECTION 2. The General Assembly urges schools, colleges, and universities, religious and civic institutions, businesses and professional associations to do all within their power to acknowledge the transgressions of North Carolina's journey from a colony to a leading State, to learn the lessons of history in order to avoid repeating mistakes of the past, and to promote racial reconciliation.

SECTION 3. The General Assembly calls on all North Carolinians to recommit their State, their communities, and themselves to the proclamation of their nation's Declaration of Independence and their State Constitution that "all persons are created equal and endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights" – to work daily to treat all persons with abiding respect for their humanity and to eliminate racial prejudices, injustices, and discrimination from our society.

SECTION 4. This resolution is effective upon ratification.

In the General Assembly read three times and ratified this the 12th day of April, 2007.

Beverly E. Perdue
President of the Senate

Joe Hackney
Speaker of the House of Representatives

US House of Representatives



H. Res. 194

In the House of Representatives, U. S.,

July 29, 2008.

Whereas millions of Africans and their descendants were enslaved in the United States and the 13 American colonies from 1619 through 1865;

Whereas slavery in America resembled no other form of involuntary servitude known in history, as Africans were captured and sold at auction like inanimate objects or animals;

Whereas Africans forced into slavery were brutalized, humiliated, dehumanized, and subjected to the indignity of being stripped of their names and heritage;

Whereas enslaved families were torn apart after having been sold separately from one another;

Whereas the system of slavery and the visceral racism against persons of African descent upon which it depended became entrenched in the Nation's social fabric;

Whereas slavery was not officially abolished until the passage of the 13th Amendment to the United States Constitution in 1865 after the end of the Civil War;

Whereas after emancipation from 246 years of slavery, African-Americans soon saw the fleeting political, social, and economic gains they made during Reconstruction eviscerated by virulent racism, lynchings, disenfranchisement,

Black Codes, and racial segregation laws that imposed a rigid system of officially sanctioned racial segregation in virtually all areas of life;

Whereas the system of de jure racial segregation known as “Jim Crow,” which arose in certain parts of the Nation following the Civil War to create separate and unequal societies for whites and African-Americans, was a direct result of the racism against persons of African descent engendered by slavery;

Whereas a century after the official end of slavery in America, Federal action was required during the 1960s to eliminate the de jure and de facto system of Jim Crow throughout parts of the Nation, though its vestiges still linger to this day;

Whereas African-Americans continue to suffer from the complex interplay between slavery and Jim Crow—long after both systems were formally abolished—through enormous damage and loss, both tangible and intangible, including the loss of human dignity, the frustration of careers and professional lives, and the long-term loss of income and opportunity;

Whereas the story of the enslavement and de jure segregation of African-Americans and the dehumanizing atrocities committed against them should not be purged from or minimized in the telling of American history;

Whereas on July 8, 2003, during a trip to Goree Island, Senegal, a former slave port, President George W. Bush acknowledged slavery’s continuing legacy in American life and the need to confront that legacy when he stated that slavery “was . . . one of the greatest crimes of history . . . The racial bigotry fed by slavery did not end with

slavery or with segregation. And many of the issues that still trouble America have roots in the bitter experience of other times. But however long the journey, our destiny is set: liberty and justice for all.”;

Whereas President Bill Clinton also acknowledged the deep-seated problems caused by the continuing legacy of racism against African-Americans that began with slavery when he initiated a national dialogue about race;

Whereas a genuine apology is an important and necessary first step in the process of racial reconciliation;

Whereas an apology for centuries of brutal dehumanization and injustices cannot erase the past, but confession of the wrongs committed can speed racial healing and reconciliation and help Americans confront the ghosts of their past;

Whereas the legislature of the Commonwealth of Virginia has recently taken the lead in adopting a resolution officially expressing appropriate remorse for slavery and other State legislatures have adopted or are considering similar resolutions; and

Whereas it is important for this country, which legally recognized slavery through its Constitution and its laws, to make a formal apology for slavery and for its successor, Jim Crow, so that it can move forward and seek reconciliation, justice, and harmony for all of its citizens: Now, therefore, be it

Resolved, That the House of Representatives—

(1) acknowledges that slavery is incompatible with the basic founding principles recognized in the Declaration of Independence that all men are created equal;

•HRES 194 EH

(2) acknowledges the fundamental injustice, cruelty, brutality, and inhumanity of slavery and Jim Crow;

(3) apologizes to African Americans on behalf of the people of the United States, for the wrongs committed against them and their ancestors who suffered under slavery and Jim Crow; and

(4) expresses its commitment to rectify the lingering consequences of the misdeeds committed against African Americans under slavery and Jim Crow and to stop the occurrence of human rights violations in the future.

Attest:

Clerk.

Genealogy Sub-Committee

The Struggle Was and Is Presently REAL



History, Despite its Wrenching Pain Need Not be Unlived, but if Faced with Courage Need Not be Lived Again -Maya Angelou

Families of color continue to be in a form of being freeish due to the limited documented information of our history, continued failure to be recognized for building wealth for the city, lack of equality, respected for their contributions to the city, and compensation for building the City of High Point as slaves in this community.

Families of color continue to be in a state of limited freedom due to the limited documentation of our history and continued failure to be recognized for building wealth for this city. The lack of equality and respect for their contributions has left them without compensation for their part in building the City of High Point.

The limited information preserved to this day is being withheld by those that benefit from its loss.

Slaves Waiting

Mothers, Fathers, Children waiting to be sold like animals and separated from their families. Given different names sometimes the first names, the last names, or both names.

Slaves sometimes taking the surname of their owners, however, each time they were sold obtaining a different surname and perhaps first name.

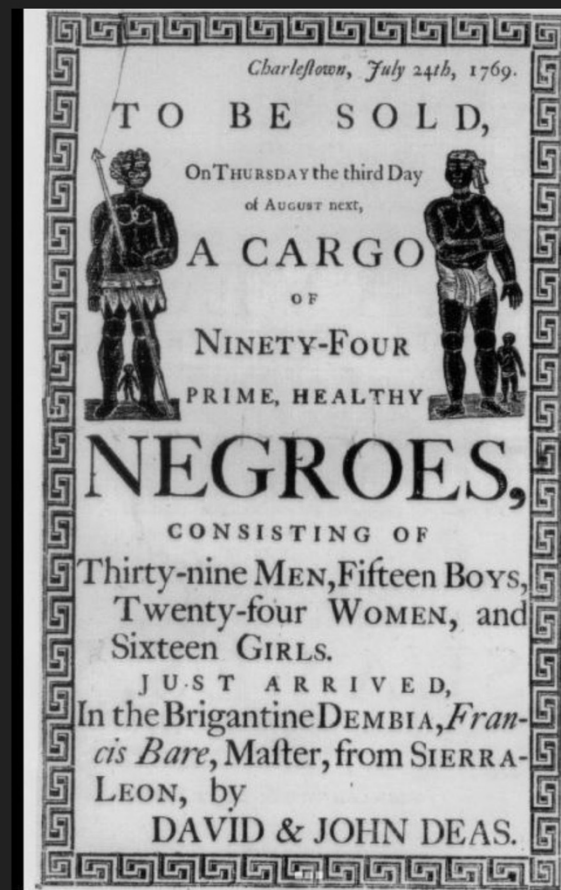
Making it difficult to follow the travels, location of an individual slave or possible family members.

Birthdates not properly recorded or reported. Often leaving true ages unknown.



Human Beings Advertised

Slaves were often advertised like selling products, property or other goods. Separating mothers, fathers, husbands, wives, children breaking the family unit.



Charleston, July 24th, 1769.

TO BE SOLD,
On THURSDAY the third Day
of AUGUST next,
A CARGO
OF
NINETY-FOUR
PRIME, HEALTHY
NEGROES,
CONSISTING OF
Thirty-nine MEN, Fifteen BOYS,
Twenty-four WOMEN, and
Sixteen GIRLS.
JUST ARRIVED,
In the Brigantine DEMBIA, *Francis Bare*, Master, from SIERRA-
LEON, by
DAVID & JOHN DEAS.

[Home](#)

[About](#)

[Annaberg in 3D](#)

[Contribute](#)

Slave Shackles

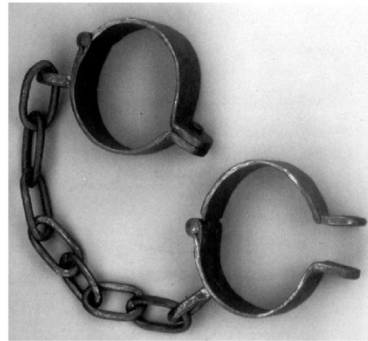
Description Photograph of iron slave shackles from an unidentified slave ship. The exhibit labeled them "Slave Shackles" from an unknown date.

Source Held in the Chicago Historical Society and from the "We the People" exhibit. See also Anthony Tibbles (ed.), *Transatlantic Slavery: Against Human Dignity* (London: HMSO, 1994), p. 154, fig. 140.

Language English

Rights Image is in the public domain. Metadata is available under Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International.

Identifier F003

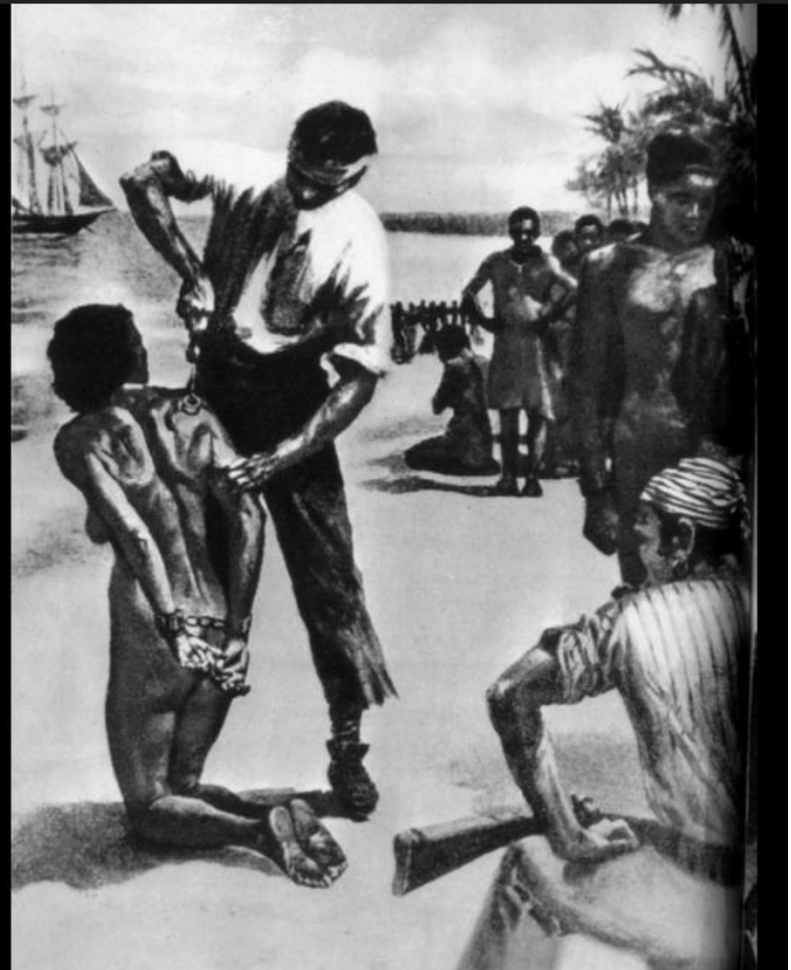


Challenges Challenges

Changing geographical lines
Poor records
Hidden stories
Unnamed Property records (People, not Property)
Changing names
Migrations
Being considered inheritance
Changing laws
Extradition
Continuing Prejudice, Racism, & Discrimination

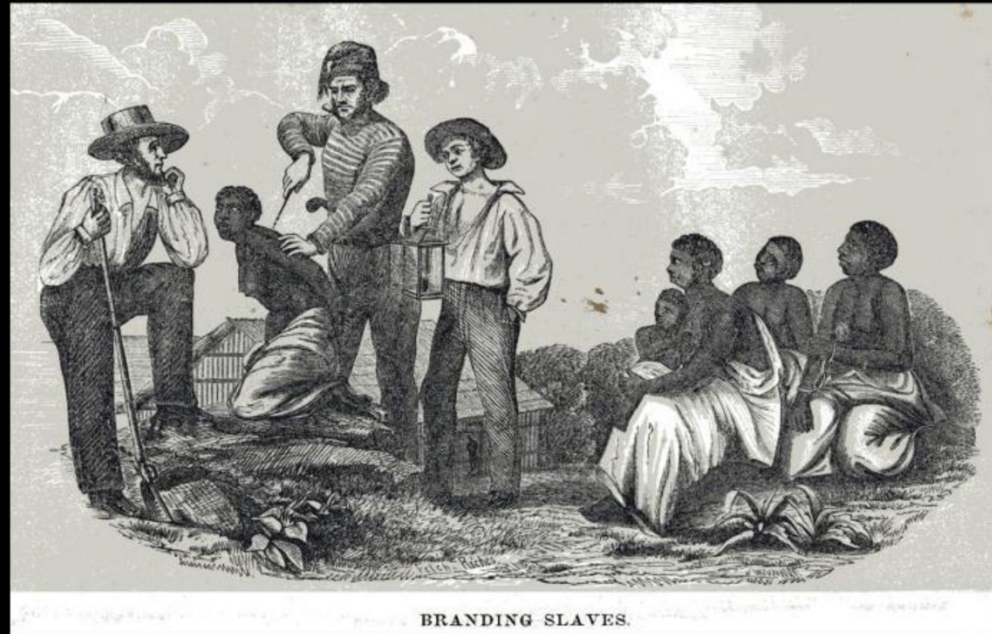
Branded

Often branded like cattle- Like a Cow or Horse.



Public Degrading

Degrading the male and female slave to create ownership.



One City Four Counties

Guilford, Davidson, Forsyth, Randolph

Before 1750 Settled

1859 Incorporated

High Point, North Carolina

 43 languages ▼

[Article](#) [Talk](#)

[Read](#) [Edit](#) [View history](#) [Tools](#) ▼

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Coordinates:  35°58′14″N 79°59′51″W﻿ / ﻿﻿ / ﻿




For other places named High Point, see [High Point \(disambiguation\)](#).

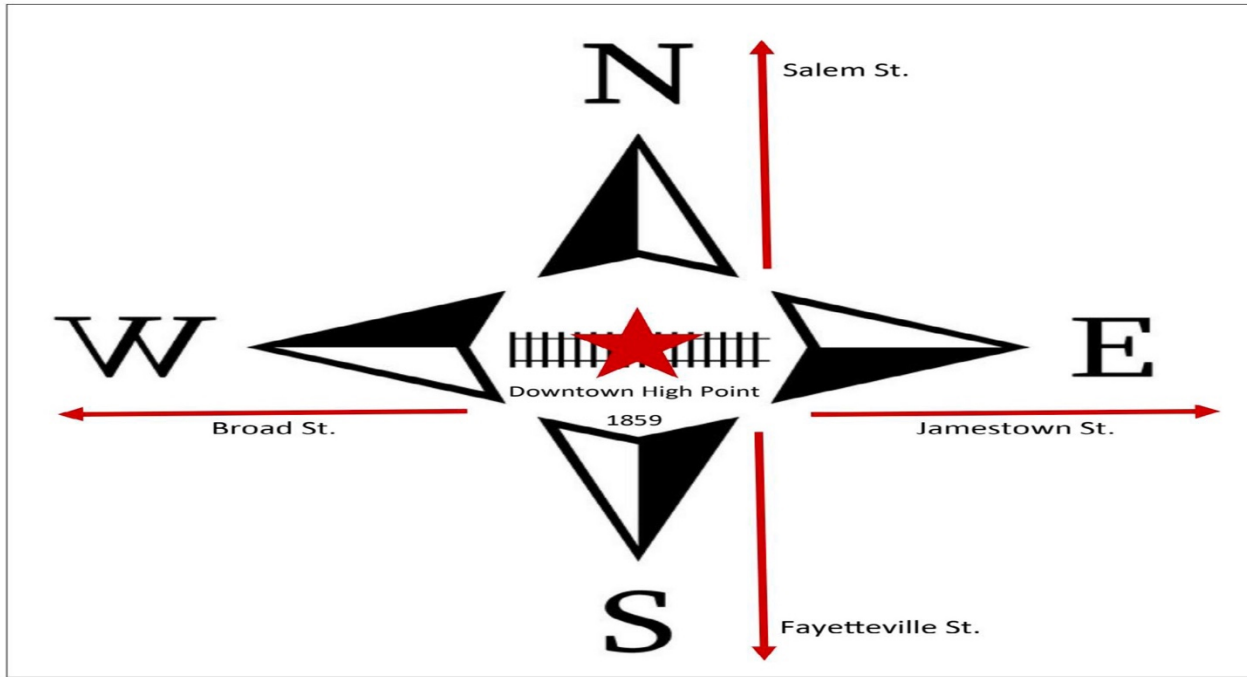
High Point is a city in the **Piedmont Triad** region of the U.S. state of **North Carolina**. **Most of the city is in Guilford County, with parts extending into Randolph, Davidson, and Forsyth counties.** High Point is North Carolina's only city that extends into four counties. As of the 2020 census the city had a total population of 114,059.^[7] High Point is the **ninth-largest municipality in North Carolina**, the third-largest municipality in the **Piedmont Triad metropolitan area**, and the 259th-largest city in the U.S.

Major industries in High Point include furniture, textiles, and bus manufacturing. The city's official slogan is "North Carolina's International City" due to the semi-annual **High Point Furniture Market** that attracts 100,000 exhibitors and buyers from around the world. It is home to **High Point University**, a private Methodist-affiliated institution founded in 1924.

History [edit]

High Point was at the highest point of the 1856 **North Carolina Railroad** between **Charlotte** and **Goldensboro**, where it intersected the **1852 Great Western Plank Road**. Its central location and transportation allowed for the delivery of raw materials like cotton and lumber as well as import and export of processed goods, contributing to its early growth. **High Point was settled by Europeans, including English Quakers and German immigrants, before 1750, but was not incorporated until 1859.** Before it became a major manufacturing center, the most important industries were tobacco, woodworking and textiles. The High Point furniture factory opened in 1889.^[8] **High Point College** was founded in 1924 as a private Methodist-affiliated institution. The college later became a liberal arts university, now with approximately 4,400 undergraduate and graduate students from 51 countries and 46 states.^[9]

High Point	
City	
	
	
Flag	Seal
	
Logo	
Official seal of High Point	
Nickname(s): Home Furnishings and Hosiery	



When High Point was founded in 1859, the city was 1 mile wide in all four directions. Who were the slave owners within this one mile radius?



NORTH CAROLINA

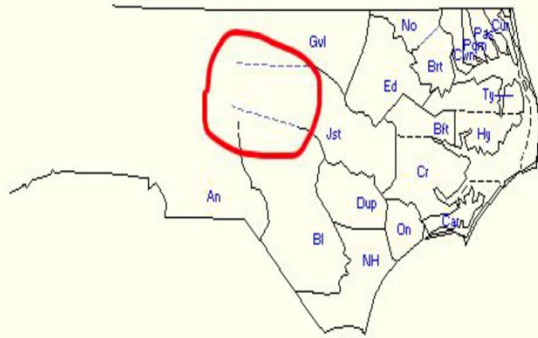
~*~*~*~

County Formation Maps

Interactive Slideshow



Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug AniMap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1750

Anson from Bladen.
Duplin from New Hanover.



NORTH CAROLINA

~*~*~*~

County Formation Maps

Interactive Slideshow



Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug AniMap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1770

Chatham from Orange.
Guilford from Rowan, Orange.
Surry from Rowan.
Wake from Cumberland.
Johnston, Orange.
Carteret gained from non-county area (Ocracoke Island)



NORTH CAROLINA

County Formation Maps
Interactive Slideshow

Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug](#)
[Animap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1778

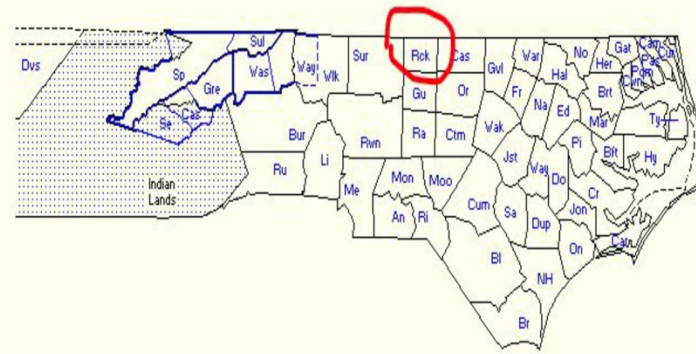
Jones from Craven.
Randolph from Guilford.
Gates from Chowan,
Hertford, Perquimans.
Montgomery from Anson.



NORTH CAROLINA

County Formation Maps
Interactive Slideshow

Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug](#)
[Animap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1785

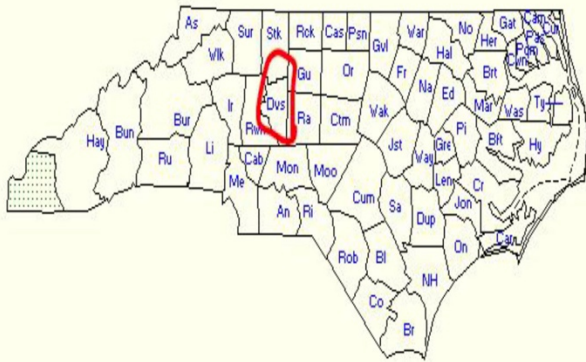
Rockingham from Guilford.
State of Franklin creates Caswell(FR),
Sevier(FR) from Greene; Spencer(FR)
from Sullivan, Greene; and Wayne(FR)
from Washington, Wilkes. All seven
counties functioned as counties of
the State of Franklin.



NORTH CAROLINA

County Formation Maps
Interactive Slideshow

Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug](#)
[AniMap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1822

Davidson from Rowan.



NORTH CAROLINA

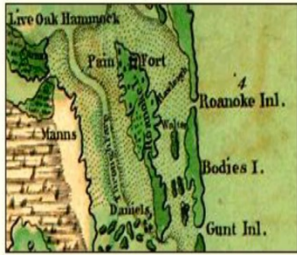
County Formation Maps
Interactive Slideshow

Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug](#)
[AniMap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1849

Alamance from Orange.
Forsyth from Stokes.
Watauga from Ashe,
Caldwell, Wilkes, Yancey.
Buncombe gained from Yancey.



NORTH CAROLINA

County Formation Maps Interactive Slideshow



Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug](#)
[AniMap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1859

Alleghany from Ashe.



NORTH CAROLINA

County Formation Maps Interactive Slideshow



Maps used with the permission of Art Lassagne, [The Gold Bug](#)
[AniMap Plus County Boundary Historical Atlas v. 2.5 \(Win\)](#)



1965

Moore gained from Hoke (after 1960).

Hidden History

68 JOURNAL OF NEGRO HISTORY

NORTH CAROLINA—Continued

Name	Slaves	Total	Age	Name	Slaves	Total	Age
EDGECOMB COUNTY				Jones, Pompey	2	3	55-100
<i>District No. 1</i>				Hammons, Olive	1	7	36-55
<i>Tarborough</i>				HERTFORD COUNTY			
Scott, Elizabeth	3	4	24-36	Melton, Meede	2	8	55-100
Thompson, William	5	6	24-36	Mandley, Penelope	1	7	36-55
<i>District No. 16</i>				Renalds, Jeston	2	3	24-36
Morgan, Henry	1	5	24-36	Jordan, Lewis	3	4	10-24
FRANKLIN COUNTY				Roberts, David	2	6	36-55
<i>Louisburg—Perrie's Dist.</i>				Renalds, Jeston	1	3	24-36
Armstrong, John	1	2	36-55	Boon, David	1	5	55-100
Williams, Jeremiah	3	4	24-36	LENOIR COUNTY			
<i>Pearce's Dist.</i>				Dutton, Nellie	1	3	55-100
Tucker, Robert	2	6	36-55	MARTIN COUNTY			
<i>Bledsoe's Dist.</i>				Crichlon, John	24	25	36-55
Charles, Thomas'es	6	7	36-55	James, Larry	1	5	24-36
<i>Foster's Dist.</i>				James, Martha	1	3	55-100
Mitchel, John	3	6	36-55	NASH COUNTY			
<i>Edward's Dist.</i>				Revill, Humphrey	14	18	36-55
Blacknel, Thomas	7	15	36-55	NORTHAMPTON COUNTY			
Hicks, Benjamin	4	5	24-36	Wheeler, Anthony	2	3	36-55
<i>Alford's Dist.</i>				Boone, Ruthy	1	2	55-100
Mitchel, Milbry	2	6	36-55	NEW HANOVER COUNTY			
<i>Dunn's Dist.</i>				Ware, George	1	8	36-55
Evans, Rosetta	2	7	24-36	Mossly, Wandly (?)	1	6	36-55
GATES COUNTY				Cruise (?), Mary	3	8	36-55
Martin, Jotro (?)	1	6	36-55	Larington, Simon	1	1	36-55
Cuff, Nisom	1	2	36-55	Bazadeir, Phillis	1	5	36-55
Hansford, Thomas	1	4	55-100	Buffo, William	1	2	10-24
GRANVILLE COUNTY				Fajay, Lewis	4	5	10-24
<i>(North Regiment)</i>				Walker, John	44	45	36-55
Fain, Jacob	1	8	55-100	Hazell, Roger	5	9	10-24
Cousins, Nelson	1	8	36-55	Campbell, James	2	4	24-36
				Sampson, Henry	5	9	36-55
				ONBLOW COUNTY			

Committee members have searched slave deeds, slave owners registry to find little to no information that discusses the City of High Point. The committee realized High Point was not a city during the beginning of slavery, records often were not properly documented, non-existing, or privately held by families and individuals who may have been slave owners.

Journal of Negro History North Carolina Slave Owners

BLADEN COUNTY					
Bowen, Gooden E.	44	45	36-55		
Spendlove, Eliza.	1	6	36-55		
Spendlove, Molsy.	3	5	24-36		
Blanks, Michael.	1	2	24-36		
Allen, Samuel.	4	5	24-36		
Spendlove, Ann.	1	9	24-36		
Smith, Catharine.	1	11	24-36		
BRUNSWICK COUNTY					
Potter, John A.	4	8	24-36		
McKenzie, Jimboy (?) ..	2	4	55-100		
CAMDEN COUNTY					
Griffin, Samuel.	1	5	100-		
Spelman, Thomas.	4	5	24-36		
Spelman, Owen.	2	5	36-55		
CASWELL COUNTY					
Day, Thomas.	2	6	24-36		
Jones, Mary.	1	2	24-36		
Wilson, John (Free Col'd)	4	11	24-36		
Caswell, Allen.	3	4	36-55		
Worsham, James.	1	4	55-100		
CHATHAM COUNTY					
<i>Town of Pittsboro</i>					
Anderson, Jerry.	1	3	55-100		
CROWAN COUNTY					
<i>Town of Edenton</i>					
Grean, Ritchard M.	4	8	24-36		
CAPE FEAR					
<i>Bones Creek Dist.</i>					
MacIver, Wining (?) ..	1	5	36-55		
Jackson, Polly.	1	2	36-55		
<i>East Side of Cape Fear</i>					
Hadley, Bella.	1	2	55-100		
Artis, Lucretia.	1	2	36-55		
Tutte (Tutle), William ..	1	4	55-100		
Jordan, Judy.	1	2	55-100		
Alvis, Esther.	3	4	36-55		
Munroe, Daniel.	1	2	10-24		
Wood, John.	4	8	24-36		
Freeman, Sally.	1	2	10-24		
<i>Town of Fayetteville</i>					
Grimes, Thomas.	1	4	36-55		
Hammonds, Elsey.	5	9	55-100		
Dennis, Phillis.	4	5	36-55		
Revels, Margaret.	2	9	55-100		
Mallett, Betty.	1	5	36-55		
Dunn, James.	3	4	36-55		
Ragland, George W.	1	7	36-55		
Mallett, Charles.	36	37	10-24		
Chester, Lott.	2	7	24-36		
DAVIDSON COUNTY					
Hatcher, Tabitha.	1	5	55-100		
Cain, Jesse.	1	5	24-36		
David, Sarah.	1	3	36-55		

Committee member discovered during a search for slave owners in Guilford County, Guilford County is one of the counties that is not included in the list of counties.

Let's Start With Seventy

*1859 Eli Denny said in a prepared statement, published in the *Greensboro Patriot* in July 1859, that, in 1857, there were 525 people living within the present limits of the city. They had seven dry goods stores and two hotels - one steam saw mill and coopering establishment. Total number of buildings in High Point at that time was 205. All these came in a period of less than 10 years. This statement followed the incorporation of the village in May of 1859.

71 families:	160 white male citizens
	281 white female citizens
	70 slaves
	14 free Negroes.

State Laws-Extradition

2/27/23, 2:37 AM Race and Slavery Petitions, Digital Library on American Slavery

Digital Library on American Slavery
Race and Slavery Petitions

Search Petitions

By Name By keyword

By State: All

Search Petitions

Subjects Glossary Project FAQs Petitions Home

Petition #11285001

- Duplin County, North Carolina. filing started December 28, 1850.
- Court: Legislative
- Salutation: To the Members of the Senate and House of Commons

Abstract

Seventy-seven Duplin County residents insist "that we should exert every effort in our power to establish and preserve tranquility and decorum among our slaves," and they are "fully convinced of the fact that the residence of free persons of color in their vicinity has a tendency to foster a spirit of discontent in their midst." They therefore pray "that the Legislature may devise some means by which their removal may be effected." The petitioners suggest a suitable appropriation be authorized "to transport these said free persons of Colour to Liberia, and that all of them be compelled to go except those who prefer to be sold and become slaves." They further "suggest that it be left to their own option either to be transported or remain among us and be sold into slavery."

Result: Referred to committee.

- Number of petition pages: 4
- Pages of related documents: 0

10 people are documented within petition 11285001

2/27/23, 3:01 AM Race and Slavery Petitions, Digital Library on American Slavery

Digital Library on American Slavery
Race and Slavery Petitions

Search Petitions

By Name By keyword

By State: All

Search Petitions

Subjects Glossary Project FAQs Petitions Home

Petition #11285803

- Davie County, North Carolina. December 3, 1858. - January 26, 1859.
- Court: Legislative
- Salutation: To the Honorable, the General Assembly of the North Carolina

Abstract

Thirty-eight residents of Davie County join F. M. Phillips in requesting that his slave Ephraim be emancipated. The petitioners state that the said Ephraim is known "to be of a good character for honesty, industry and fidelity." They further point out that the slave "has a wife and children and if emancipated by our Courts under the general provisions of the Law, that he would be forced to separate from his family to whom he is much attached and leave the state." The petitioners therefore pray "your Honorable Body to Emancipate Ephraim & authorize him to reside within the limits of North Carolina."


Result: Committee report unfavorable.

- Number of petition pages: 3
- Related documents: Report of the Committee on Slaves and Free Persons of Color, 26 January 1859
- Pages of related documents: 1

11 people are documented within petition 11285803

Digital Library on American Slavery

Race and Slavery Petitions



Search Petitions

By Name By keyword

By State: All ▾

Search Petitions

[Subjects](#) [Glossary](#) [Project FAQs](#) [Petitions Home](#)

Petition #21285624

- Guilford County, North Carolina. January 30, 1856. - circa 1858.
- *Court:* Superior
- *Salutation:* To the Honorable the Judge of the Superior Court of Law in & for the County of Guilford

Abstract

Free woman of color Jane Milton seeks a divorce from her husband Elisha Milton, who sold three of their children for a term of years to support his drinking habit. In addition, he beat her severely. He "fell upon her with a walking stick, on which he had a large Buckhorn handle or head, and abused her by beating her over the head & legs & shoulders in a most shameful & disgraceful manner." She was unable to walk for nearly a month. Now he has their only daughter and is living in adultery with another free woman of color. She seeks a divorce, and "all the rights & privileges of a feme sole -- according to the laws of this state." It is unclear whether Elisha Milton actually sold his sons as term slaves or whether he placed as

Race and Slavery Petitions

By Name By keyword

By State: All ▾

[Subjects](#) [Glossary](#) [Project FAQs](#) [Petitions Home](#)

Petition #21285104

- Guilford County, North Carolina. circa 1851. - circa 1855.
- Court: Equity
- Salutation: To the Honorable the Judge of the Court of Equity for the County of Guilford aforesaid

Abstract

In 1831, James Davis devised and bequeathed to his wife Sophia a slave named Nelly and her mulatto husband Nehemiah during Sophia's lifetime or widowhood. Afterwards, the slaves were to be freed. Prior to Davis's death in 1837, Nelly gave birth to a son named Wright, and after Davis's death to a boy named Alvis. In 1845, in her will, Sophia bequeathed to her grandson, James C. Davis, the only son of her son Michael Caffey Davis, deceased, the slaves Wright and Alvis on the condition that if Nelly and Nehemiah became free the two boys would go with them; if not, the boys would remain with their parents and not be hired out. In 1848, Sophia Davis died. Now, the administrator of her will, Robert Caffey, as well as the administratrix of James Davis's will, Jane Caffey, seek to determine "the rights" of the slaves Nelly, Nehemiah, Wright and Alvis, as to their freedom, "and as to the mode of raising the means to send them out of the State." They sue James Davis's son, Michael Davis's widow, the grandson, and the grandson's guardian.

Nehemiah Davis

in the U.S., Civil War Soldier Records and Profiles, 1861-1865

Detail **Source**

Name	Nehemiah Davis
Enlistment Date	30 Jun 1863
Enlistment Place	Washington, District of Columbia
Enlistment Rank	Private
Muster Date	30 Jun 1863
Muster Company	G
Muster Regiment	U.S. Colored Troops 1st Infantry
Muster Regiment Type	Infantry
Muster Information	Enlisted
Muster Out Date	15 Dec 1864
Muster Out Place	Salisbury, North Carolina
Muster Out Information	died disease POW
Side of War	Union
Survived War?	No
Burial Place	Salisbury, North Carolina

Guilford County Slave Deeds

Search for past property records of slaves in Guilford County

Records of Slave Deeds from 1774 to 1826

Search: Search for: All Date Grantor Grantee Slave

Please click the details button to see details of the transaction

Show 25 entries

Details	Date	Book	Page	Grantor	Grantee	Slave	Download
	1803	8	352	THOMAS H PERKINS	JAMES DICK	HANNAH	
	1804	9	10-11	ABRAHAM BUSH SR	JOHN WILLOUGHBY BUSH	WILL, CATY, ANNE, JAX?, ENOCH, BILLY (GIRL), BILL, SARAH, VITAL	
	1806	9	113-114	JOHN THOMPSON	OBEDIAH DICK	JO	
	1803	9	309	JOHN MCCLINTOCK SR.	JOHN THOMPSON JR.	JOSEPH	

Search for past property records of slaves in Guilford County

Records of Slave Deeds from 1774 to 1826

Search: Search for: All Date Grantor Grantee Slave

Please click the details button to see details of the transaction

Show 25 entries

Details	Date	Book	Page	Grantor	Grantee	Slave	Download
	1823	16	5-6	NANCY GALBREATH	REUBEN DICK	ALSE	
	1824	16	6-7	REUBEN DICK	NANCY GALBREATH	ALSE	
	1824	16	72	GEORGE MANLOVE	EDWARD TROTTER	ALEE, JACOB, RANSOM, SIAS	
	1823	16	8-10	WILLIAM ARMFIELD	ANDREW LINDSAY	JERRY, AMY, DORCUS, ANN	
	1824	16	85-86	SIHON TATUM	JAMES JOHNSON	IZEKIAH	
	1824	16	87	HENRY LOW	IRBY BRAY	ROSE, PEAT, SAM	
	1824	16	96	JOHN M MOREHEAD	GREENBERRY B BABB	MAY	

Showing 251 to 257 of 257 entries

1 ... 7 8 9 10 11

Bill of Sale for Nathan Hunt

Nathan Hunt Jr. was owned by Clarence Tomlinson and sold to Mr. Tomlinson for \$88.00.

Draft Transcription
Date of Transcription: October 18, 2005
Transcribed by: Jennifer Burns

Bill of sale of a Negro Slave Giles
Nathan Hunt, Jr.
To
Clarkson Tomlinson
5th January 1850

State of North Carolina
Guilford County

Know all men by these present that I Nathan Hunt, Jr. at the County and state aforesaid for an in consideration of the sum of Eightyeight Dollars to me in hand paid by Clarkson Tomlinson of the County and state aforesaid. The receipt whereof is hereby fully acknowledged have granted bargained and sold and by these presents do grant bargain and sell and convey unto the said Clarkson Tomlinson all my right property and interest, that being one third, in and to, a certain negro slave named Giles, about the age of fortynine years, to have and to hold, the said negro slave Giles that is to say one third part of the right property and interest in and to the said negro slave Giles unto him the said Clarkson Tomlinson his heirs and assigns executors and administrator forever free and discharged of any and all in cumbrances whatsoever and for the better security of the title hereby conveyed for myself my heirs executors and administrators, to and with the said Clarkson Tomlinson his heirs and assigns do warrant and forever defend the same from the lawful claim of any and all persons whatsoever.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal the 5th day of January in the year 1850.

Signed sealed and delivered in presence of William H. Harris.

Nathan Hunt, Jr.

Church Together

Amanda Bowman, Mary Bowman, Bettie Lindsay, and Susan Lawrence were slaves in the High Point and Jamestown communities. James Bobbitt assisted in the designation of the names listed above.

The Slave Bible was not the same as the King James Version.

Religion was often used to keep the slave obedient while the owners were allowed to forget...

THE GOLDEN RULE



James B. Bobbitt
1856-1858

of Wesley Memorial's young men and women.

In the year 1858, J.B. Bobbitt was assigned to the pastorate of the combined churches. This arrangement lasted for a year; then the Conference, meeting in Beaufort in December 1859, designated High

Point and Jamestown as a station and sent J.F. Smoot to the charge. Membership now numbered forty-five. There were among the members four slaves: Amanda Bowman, Mary Bowman, Bettie Lindsay and Susan Lawrence. Jamestown at this time had twelve colored members.

Say My Name

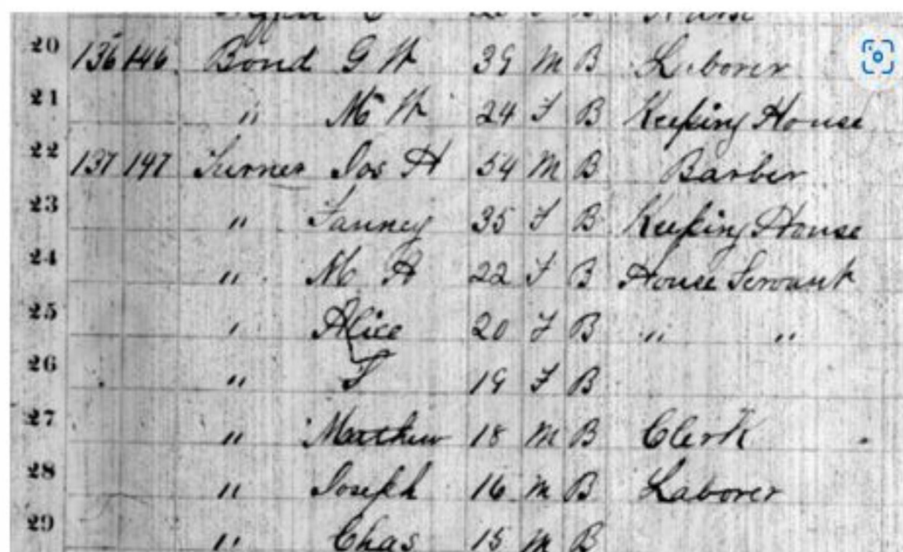
Listed by owner

Sex

Age

Color

Slaves were enumerated on all federal census records from 1790 to 1860, but **not** by name. From the 1870 census (in which all persons were named), proceed backwards to the 1860 and 1850 slave schedules that list, under the name of the owner, each slave only by sex, specific age, and color.



20	136 146	Bond G H	39	M	B	Laborer
21	"	" No H	24	F	B	Keeping House
22	137 147	Turner Jos H	54	M	B	Barber
23	"	" Lanny	35	F	B	Keeping House
24	"	" No H	22	F	B	House Servant
25	"	" Alice	20	F	B	" "
26	"	" J	19	F	B	" "
27	"	" Martin	15	M	B	Clerk
28	"	" Joseph	16	M	B	Laborer
29	"	" Chas	15	M	B	" "

1870 Census

Did you know?

Westminster was a community in High Point that no longer exist.

Hays Family

Post Office: Westminster, Guilford County, N.C.

Enumeration District: 100

Serial: 40 of 41

Family No.	Individual No.	Name	Age	Sex	Color	Marital Status	Occupation	Place of Birth	Year of Arrival	Year of Nat.	Year of Imm.	Year of Den.	Year of Cit.	Year of Nat. of Spouse	Year of Imm. of Spouse	Year of Den. of Spouse	Year of Cit. of Spouse
1	1	John Hays	30	M	W	Married	Farmer	North Carolina									
1	2	Mary Hays	25	F	W	Married	None	North Carolina									
1	3	George Hays	11	M	W	Single	None	North Carolina									
1	4	John Hays	7	M	W	Single	None	North Carolina									
1	5	William Hays	5	M	W	Single	None	North Carolina									

George Hays
1870 United States Federal Census

Detail Related Source

Name: **George Hays**

Age in 1870: 11

Birth Date: 1859

Birthplace: North Carolina

Dwelling Number: 310

Home in 1870: High Point, Guilford, North Carolina

Race: Black

Gender: Male

Post Office: Westminster

Occupation: At School

Attended School: Yes

Inferred Father: Samuel Hays

Inferred Mother: Jane Hays

Household Members: 8

[Add Additional Information](#)

Others in Record

- Samuel Hays
- Jane Hays
- Ann Hays
- More

Westminster Residents

Edmondson Family

SCHEDULE 1.—Inhabitants in High Point Township, in the County of Guilford, State of North Carolina, enumerated by me on the 30 day of April, 1870.

Post Office: Westminster S. P. Army, Asst. Marshal.

1	2	3	4		7	8		10	11				15	16	17	18	19	20
			4	5		6	9		11	12	13	14						
Name		Sex	Color	Age	Profession, Occupation, or Trade	Place of Birth	Place of Birth	Value of Real Estate	Value of Personal Estate	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family	Number of Persons in Family
1	Thomas	Male	W	28	At Home	North Carolina												
2	Malinda	Female	W	27	At Home	N.C.												
3	Joseph	Male	W	25	Shoemaker	North Carolina												
4	Robert	Male	W	24	Shoemaker	N.C.												
5	Abigail	Female	W	23	Shoemaker's Wife	N.C.												
6	Abbie	Female	W	22	Shoemaker's Wife	N.C.												
7	Ann	Female	W	21	At Home	N.C.												
8	John	Male	W	20	At Home	N.C.												
9	William	Male	W	19	At Home	N.C.												
10	James	Male	W	18	Shoemaker	N.C.												
11	Robert	Male	W	17	Shoemaker	N.C.												
12	Lucy	Female	W	16	Shoemaker's Wife	N.C.												
13	Willie	Female	W	15	Shoemaker's Wife	N.C.												
14	John	Male	W	14	At Home	N.C.												
15	Joseph	Male	W	13	At Home	N.C.												
16	John	Male	W	12	At Home	N.C.												
17	James	Male	W	11	At Home	N.C.												
18	Robert	Male	W	10	Shoemaker	N.C.												
19	Lydia	Female	W	9	Shoemaker's Wife	N.C.												
20	George	Male	W	8	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
21	James	Male	W	7	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
22	George	Male	W	6	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
23	Willie	Female	W	5	Shoemaker's Daughter	N.C.												
24	George	Male	W	4	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
25	Abbie	Female	W	3	Shoemaker's Daughter	N.C.												
26	John	Male	W	2	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
27	James	Male	W	1	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
28	John	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
29	James	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
30	James	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
31	John	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
32	John	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
33	John	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												
34	John	Male	W	0	Shoemaker's Son	N.C.												

051

Nanie Edmondson
1870 United States Federal Census

Detail Related Source

Name **Nanie Edmondson**

Age in 1870 9

Birth Date 1861

Birthplace North Carolina

Dwelling Number 212

Home in 1870 High Point, Guilford, North Carolina

Race Black

Gender Female

Post Office Westminster

Occupation At Home

Inferred Father Drury Edmondson

Inferred Mother Jane Edmondson

Household Members 7

[Add Additional Information](#)

- Others in Record
- Drury Edmondson
 - Jane Edmondson
 - Minie Edmondson More

Let's Stay Together

Josephine Robeson Family

SCHEDULE 1.—Inhabitants in *High Point Township*, in the County of *Guilford*, State of *North Carolina*, enumerated by me on the *31* day of *August*, 1870.

Post Office: *Westminster* *L. C. Worsey*, Asst. Marshal.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		10	11-14				15	16	17	18	19	20
							Value of Real Estate	Value of Personal Estate		Number of Male Inhabitants	Number of Female Inhabitants	Number of Male Inhabitants Under 15 Years of Age	Number of Female Inhabitants Under 15 Years of Age						
1	1	Robert	6	d. B.	Attending School				Virginia										
2	2	Ann	4	d. W. M.	Home				North Carolina										
3	3	Ellen	2	d. W. M.	Home				do do										
4	4	Hampson	2	d. W. M.	Home				do do										
5	5	Anna	2	d. W. M.	Home	200			do do			11							
6	6	Ann	3	d. W. M.	Home				do do										
7	7	Arthur	13	d. B.	Attending School				do do										
8	8	Willie	9	d. B.	Attending School				do do										
9	9	George	7	d. B.	Attending School				do do										
10	10	Mary	5	d. W. M.	Home				do do										
11	11	Malon	5	d. B.	Work on Farm				do do			11							
12	12	Leila	3	d. B.	Keeping House				do do										
13	13	Giles	2	d. B.	Attending School				do do										
14	14	Levin	17	d. B.	Attending School				do do										
15	15	Julia	14	d. B.	Attending School				do do										
16	16	William	10	d. B.	Work on Farm	400	100		do do										
17	17	Pauline	2	d. B.	Keeping House				do do										
18	18	Josephine	2	d. B.	Attending School				Virginia										
19	19	Lucy	2	d. B.	Keeping House				North Carolina										
20	20	Joseph	11	d. W. M.	Home				do do										
21	21	William	6	d. B.	Home				do do										
22	22	Linah	6	d. B.	Home				do do										
23	23	Abba	3	d. B.	Home				do do										
24	24	Georgina	3	d. B.	Home				do do										
25	25	Thomas	1	d. B.	Home				do do										
26	26	Harriet	1	d. B.	Home				do do										
27	27	Harriet	1	d. B.	Home				do do										
28	28	May	1	d. B.	Home				do do										

Josephine Robeson 1870 United States Federal Census

Detail Related Source

Name **Josephine Robeson**

Age in 1870 11

Birth Date 1859

Birthplace North Carolina

Dwelling Number 276

Home in 1870 High Point, Guilford, North Carolina

Race Black

Gender Female

Post Office **Westminster**

Occupation At Home

Cannot Read Yes

Cannot Write Yes

Inferred Father William Robeson

Inferred Mother Lucy Robeson

Household Members 8

Add Additional Information

Others in Record

William Robeson

Lucy Robeson

William Robeson

More

Slaves Buried in High Point

There are a number of identified former slaves buried in High Point

Cecila Bowman 1857-1912

Green Bowman 1858-1918

Absalom Gamble ?-2/1888

Ellen Gamble ?-6/1880

Nancy Hinson 1860-1938

Frank Lindsay 1827-1904

Mose Nailar 1840-1914

Handy Robinson 1858-1910

Jane Stafford 1852-?

Emeline Taylor 1861-1931

William Taylor 1859-1916





Photo added by [Brian Andrew Bonner](#)

Annie Pitts

BIRTH Jul 1841
Guilford County, North Carolina, USA

DEATH 5 Oct 1917 (aged 76)
High Point, Guilford County, North Carolina, USA

BURIAL [Oakwood Cemetery](#)
High Point, Guilford County, North Carolina, USA

PLOT Oakwood Municipal

MEMORIAL ID 50750209 · [View Source](#)

TO BE SOLD & LET
BY PUBLIC AUCTION,
On MONDAY the 18th of MAY. 1829,
UNDER THE TREES.

FOR SALE,
THE THREE FOLLOWING
SLAVES,

VIZ.
HANNIBAL, about 30 Years old, an excellent House Servant, of Good Character.
WILLIAM, about 35 Years old, a Labourer.
NANCY, an excellent House Servant and Nurse.

The MEN belonging to "LEECH'S" Estate, and the WOMAN to Mrs. D. SMIT

TO BE LET,
On the usual conditions of the Hirer finding them in Food, Clo^t in^g, and Medical ^{ance,}

MALE and FEMALE
SLAVES,

OF GOOD REPUTATION.
ROBERT BAGLEY, about 20 Years old, a good House Servant.
WILLIAM BAGLEY, about 18 Years old, a Labourer.
JOHN ARMS, about 15 Years old.
JACK ANTONIA, about 40 Years old, a Labourer.
PHILIP, an Excellent Fisherman.
HARRY, about 27 Years old, a good House Servant.
LUCY, a Young Woman of good Character, used to House Work and the Nursery.
ELIZA, an Excellent Washerwoman.
CLARA, an Excellent Washerwoman.
FANNY, about 14 Years old, House Servant.
SARAH, about 14 Years old, House Servant.

Also for Sale, at Eleven o'Clock,
Fine Rice, Gram, Paddy, Books, Muslins,
Needles, Pins, Ribbons, &c. &c.

AT ONE O'CLOCK, THAT CELEBRATED ENGLISH HORSE
BLUCHER,

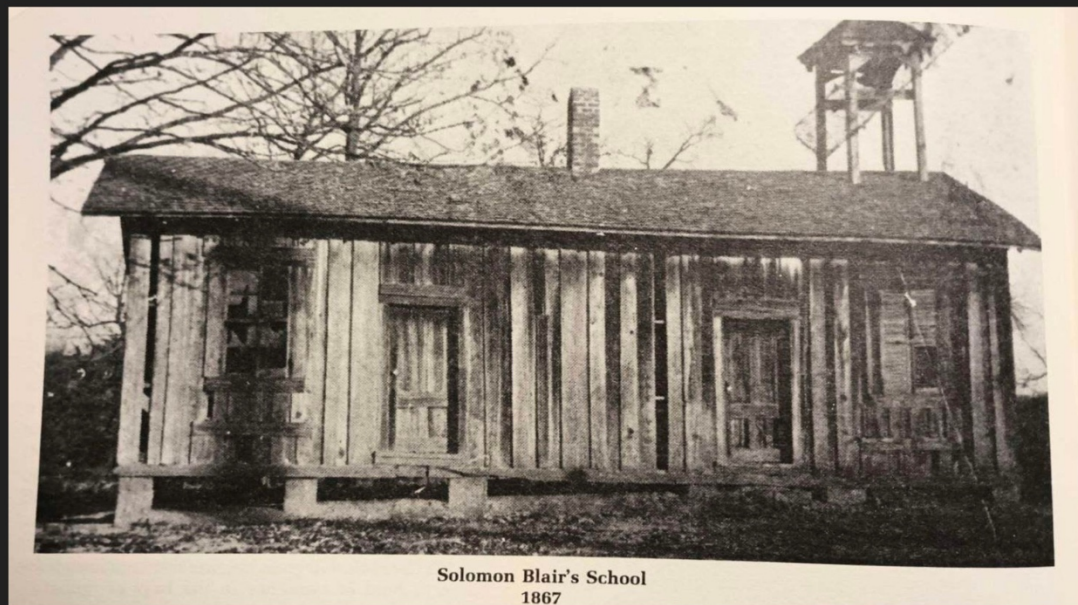
ADDISON PRINTER GOVERNMENT OFFICE.

Freeman

Separate

But

Equal???



Solomon Blair's School
1867

Bentley Much?

SEARCH RESULTS 43 DEALERS AROUND USA

SALES PRE-OWNED SERVICE PAINT & BODY

Map Satellite

GLOBAL DEALER LOCATOR

- SERVICE
- BENTLEY FORT LAUDERDALE
 - SALES PRE-OWNED SERVICE
- BENTLEY GOLD COAST
 - SERVICE
- BENTLEY GOLD COAST
 - SALES PRE-OWNED
- BENTLEY GREENWICH
 - SERVICE
- BENTLEY GREENWICH
 - SALES PRE-OWNED
- BENTLEY HIGH POINT**
 - SALES
- BENTLEY HONOLULU

SEARCH RESULTS 43 DEALERS AROUND USA

SALES PRE-OWNED SERVICE PAINT & BODY

Map Satellite

GLOBAL DEALER LOCATOR

- SERVICE
- BENTLEY FORT LAUDERDALE
 - SALES PRE-OWNED SERVICE
- BENTLEY GOLD COAST
 - SERVICE
- BENTLEY GOLD COAST
 - SALES PRE-OWNED
- BENTLEY GREENWICH
 - SERVICE
- BENTLEY GREENWICH
 - SALES PRE-OWNED
- BENTLEY HIGH POINT
 - SALES
- BENTLEY HONOLULU

The Oldest

One of the first things noticed when a new person comes to town.

Still # 1

How many have ridden in one?

How many have driven one?

How many can afford one?

BENTLEY HIGH POINT

(336) 265-9973
1730 N Main Street, High Point, North Carolina 27262
Bentley Roadside Assistance: (800) 313-0100

INVENTORY BENTLEY MODELS FINANCE SERVICE & PARTS NEWS LOCATION/HOURS ABOUT US CONTACT US

About Bentley High Point


Established in 1965, Bentley High Point continues to build on its historic reputation for excellence in the exclusive Bentley brand luxury vehicle market.

Hailing as the oldest authorized Bentley dealership in the United States, Bentley High Point offers our clients an unparalleled service experience. Our boutique business model, allows us to dedicate our focus exclusively on the Bentley Lifestyle Experience. This exclusivity is translated directly into Bentley High Point's quality assurance in sales, support and service options, for prospective and veteran Bentley owners alike.

Our dedicated sales team is ready to serve you and handle any inquiries or requests associated with Bentley motorcars. Bentley High Point caters to every Bentley related need, whether you are interested in our luxury brand, service, parts, or just require information regarding Bentley.

In a rapidly evolving world that tends to ignore the values of tradition and authenticity, Bentley High Point has invested fifty-plus years of pride, passion, and expertise into making Bentley High Point the number one Bentley brand concierge for North Carolina and the surrounding areas of the United States.

Visit our **Bentley showroom** now, at 1730 North Main Street in High Point NC (US 311 business) and experience the Bentley High Point standard of excellence!



CONTACT US
Tel: (336) 265-9973
Fax: (336) 245-4758
1730 N Main Street,
High Point, North Carolina 27262

SHOWROOM HOURS
MONDAY - FRIDAY 9:00am - 6:00pm
SATURDAY 9:00am - 5:00pm
After hour showings are by appointment

SERVICE HOURS
MONDAY - FRIDAY: 8:00am - 5:30pm

QUICK LINKS
New Inventory
Used Inventory
Schedule Service
Contact Us

Facebook, Instagram, Twitter icons

Furniture Capital International City

How many have been allowed in a showroom other than as a server, moving furniture or cleaning up?

People from all over the world are allowed in twice a year to shop...

High Point residents who build the furniture, man the parking lots, serve and clean up for the guests can not go in the showrooms.

High Point, North Carolina

43 languages ▼

[Article](#) [Talk](#)

[Read](#) [Edit](#) [View history](#) [Tools](#) ▼

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Coordinates: 35°58′14″N 79°59′51″W﻿ / ﻿﻿ / ﻿





For other places named High Point, see [High Point \(disambiguation\)](#).

High Point is a city in the **Piedmont Triad** region of the U.S. state of **North Carolina**. **Most of the city is in Guilford County, with parts extending into Randolph, Davidson, and Forsyth counties.** High Point is North Carolina's only city that extends into four counties. As of the 2020 census the city had a total population of 114,059.^[7] High Point is the ninth-largest municipality in North Carolina, the third-largest municipality in the Piedmont Triad metropolitan area, and the 259th-largest city in the U.S.

Major industries in High Point include furniture, **textiles**, and bus manufacturing. The city's official slogan is "North Carolina's International City" due to the semi-annual **High Point Furniture Market** that attracts 100,000 exhibitors and buyers from around the world. It is home to **High Point University**, a private **Methodist-affiliated** institution founded in 1924.

History [edit]

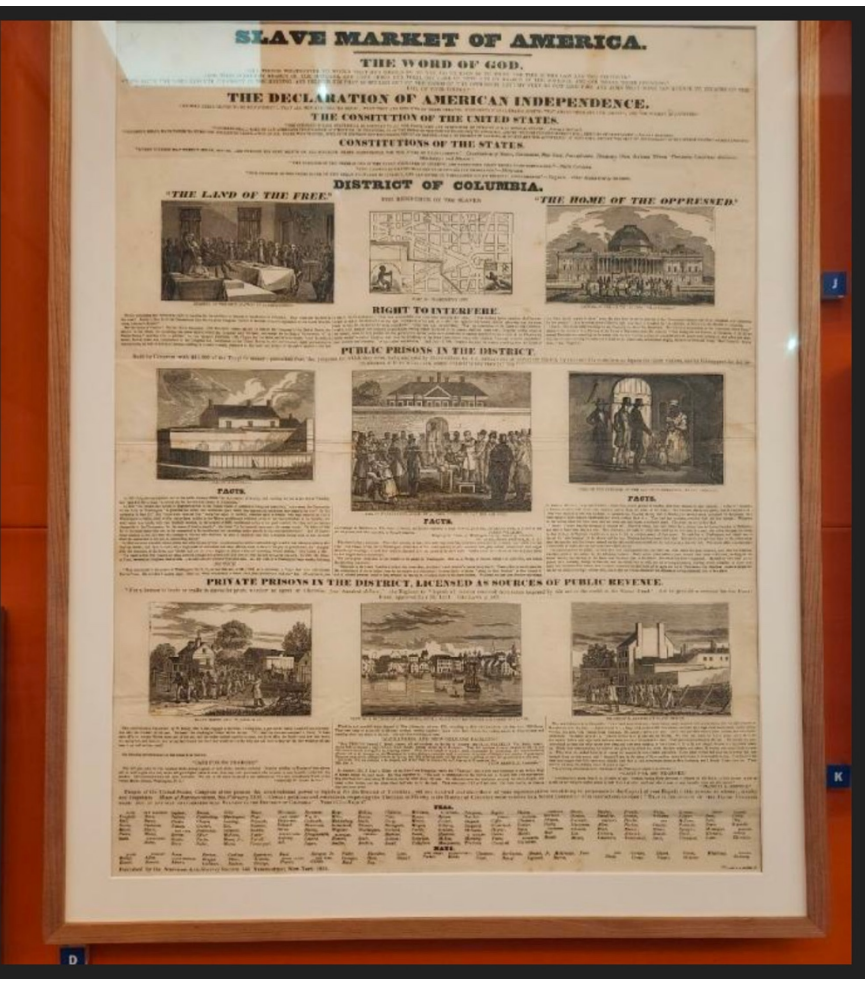
High Point was at the highest point of the 1856 **North Carolina Railroad** between **Charlotte** and **Goldensboro**, where it intersected the **1852 Great Western Plank Road**. Its central location and transportation allowed for the delivery of raw materials like cotton and lumber as well as import and export of processed goods, contributing to its early growth. **High Point was settled by Europeans, including English Quakers and German immigrants, before 1750, but was not incorporated until 1859.** Before it became a major manufacturing center, the most important industries were tobacco, woodworking and textiles. The High Point furniture factory opened in 1889.^[8] **High Point College** was founded in 1924 as a private Methodist-affiliated institution. The college later became a liberal arts university, now with approximately 4,400 undergraduate and graduate students from 51 countries and 46 states.^[9]

High Point	
City	
	
	
Flag	Seal
	
Logo	
Official seal of High Point	
Nickname(s): Home Furnishings and Hosiery	

People Who Forget Their Past...

...Doomed...

More Often, people choose to forget what they have done wrong.



SEIZING FREEDOM

The Underground Railroad was a secret network that built upon local knowledge and resources, both black and white, to guide enslaved people to freedom. Conductors, like Harriet Tubman, risked their lives to travel south on organized missions. The fugitives stayed at "safe houses" along the way, but danger was ever present. They were hunted by dogs. They risked arrest by any white person. Even the U.S. Marshal Service tracked down escapees.

The Underground Railroad

The Underground Railroad and its connection to the High Point Community

Freeish to True Freedom

From Freeish to True Freedom through acknowledging the full contribution of the slaves to the City of High Point, correcting the policies, housing, development/proper care of black communities, appropriate salaries and opportunities for the black community. Addressing the needs of the black community based on their requests and needs.



Resources

- Phyllis Bridges
- Glen Chavis
- NC Slave Deeds and Petitions at the UNC-Greensboro Digital Library of American Slavery
- NC Journal Slave History
- FindAGrave.com
- Wikipedia
- The Gold Bug Animap County Boundary Historical Atlas
- State Library of North Carolina
- US Census
- Google Maps
- Bentley High Point Website
- US Civil War Records and Profiles
- US Slave Schedules

Appendix F – Federal Reparations Subcommittee Report

One High Point Commission, Commissioner Brenda Deets, Local History

Status on the workgroup includes:

- Attempting to connect with Marcellaus Joiner, archivist at High Point Library to review his material on Blacks living in High Point. So far, this is the sole lead with a mention of High Point.
- I've found plenty of dissertations on Blacks living in America, none yet specifically on High Point.
- I am reviewing Mr. Chavis' book and categorizing the entries in his book by categories: restriction of movement, forced labor, school segregation, entrepreneurship, daily living, and violence. After I have completed the book, I will sort by category and visit the library to determine whether there is additional information on the people mentioned.

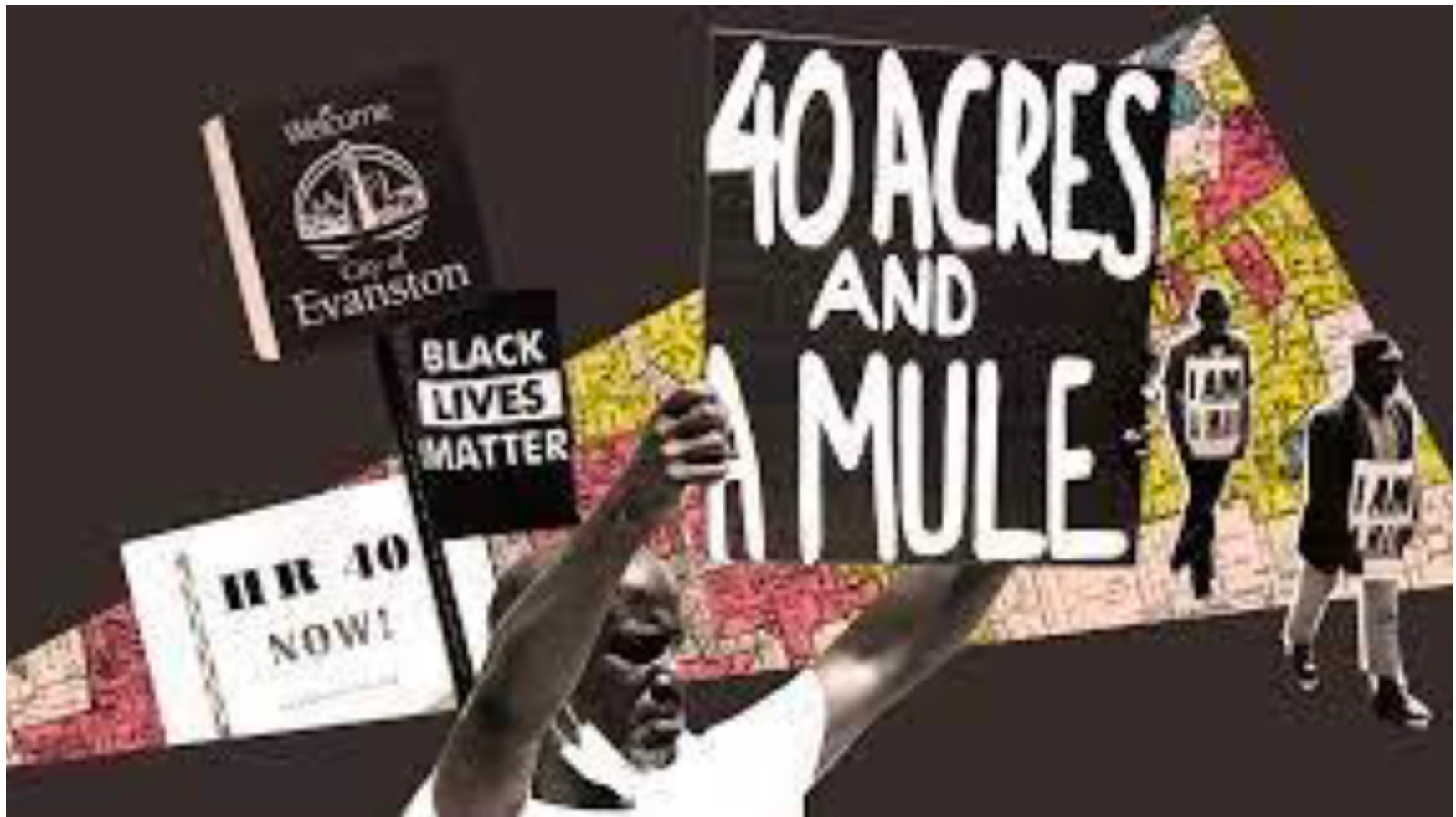
One High Point Commission

Commissioner Lee Dories Patrick
Local History

- ❖ Gathered citizens willing to tell their story at a Town Hall or City Council meeting.

Citizens Identified:

- James Chestnut
 - Demetrice Goodman
 - Dr. Brad Lilley
 - Other to be identified.
-
- ❖ Read several articles about cities that are studying reparations much like the One High Point Commission.
 - ❖ Completed Glenn Chavis's book about events that happened in the City of High Point.





ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION

Federal Reparations Subcommittee Report

Working Group Report: M. Holmes; T. Johnson;
R. Sims, L. McMichael

What are Federal Reparations

Adequate, effective and prompt reparation is intended to promote justice by redressing gross violations of international human rights law or serious violations of international humanitarian law.

Reparation should be proportional to the gravity of the violations and the harm suffered. In accordance with its domestic laws and international legal obligations, a State shall provide reparation to victims for acts or omissions which can be attributed to the State and constitute gross violations of international human rights law or serious violations of international humanitarian law.

In cases where a person, a legal person, or other entity is found liable for reparation to a victim, such party should provide reparation to the victim or compensate the State if the State has already provided reparation to the victim

What are Federal Reparations

Repetition-

Cessation/Assurance of Non-

Under international law, a state responsible for wrongfully injuring a people “is under an obligation to cease the act if it is continuing, and offer appropriate assurances and guarantees of non-repetition.

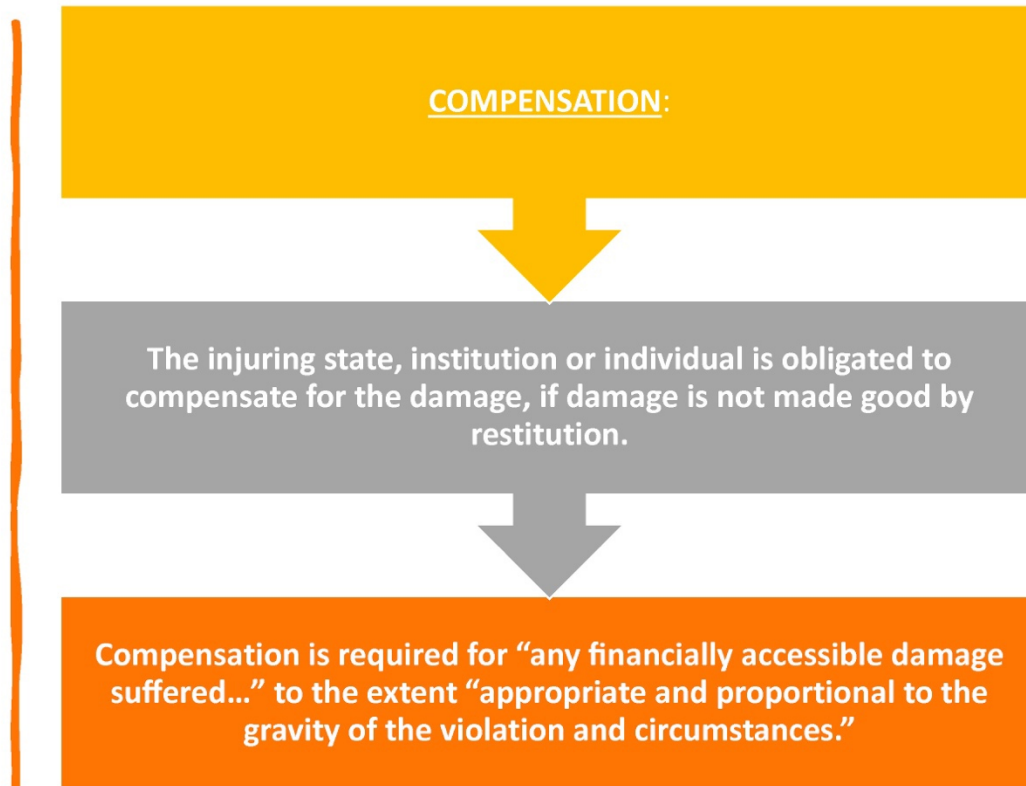
What are Federal Reparations

RESTITUTION AND REPATRIATION:



Restitution means to “re-establish the situation which existed before the wrongful act was committed.” Changes traced to the wrongful act are reversed through restoration of freedom, recognition of humanity, identity, culture, repatriation, livelihood, citizenship, legal standing, and wealth to the extent they can be, and if they cannot, restitution is completed by compensation.

What are Federal Reparations

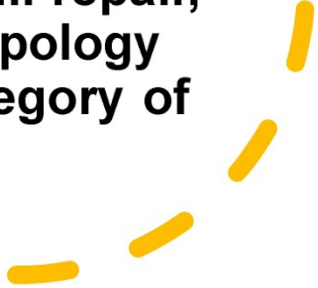


A large orange shape on the left side of the slide, consisting of a vertical rectangle on the left and a quarter-circle on the right. The text "What are Federal Reparations" is written in white inside this shape.

What are Federal Reparations

SATISFACTION:

Satisfaction is part of full reparations under international law for moral damage, such as “emotional injury, mental suffering, and injury to reputation.” In some instances where cessation, restitution, and compensation do not bring full repair, satisfaction is also needed. Apology falls under the reparative category of satisfaction.

A decorative yellow dashed line consisting of several short, curved segments, located in the bottom right area of the slide.

What are Federal Reparations

REHABILITATION:

Rehabilitation shall be provided to include legal, medical, psychological, and other care and services.



Federal Reparations Precedent

- <https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/articles/redress-and-reparations-japanese>
- Ronald Reagan issued a formal apology for the internment of Japanese Americans.
- Reparations—a system of redress for egregious injustices—are not foreign to the United States. [Native Americans](#) have received land and billions of dollars for various benefits and programs for being forcibly exiled from their native lands
- Additionally, the United States, via the [Marshall Plan](#), helped to ensure that Jews received reparations for the Holocaust, including making various investments over time. In 1952, West Germany agreed to pay 3.45 billion Deutsche Marks to Holocaust survivors

Federal Legislation: HR 40

- <https://www.congress.gov/bill/117th-congress/house-bill/40>:



Rep. Jackson Lee, Sheila [D-TX-18] (Introduced 01/04/2021)

Commission to Study and Develop Reparation Proposals for African Americans Act

This bill establishes the Commission to Study and Develop Reparation Proposals for African Americans. The commission shall examine slavery and discrimination in the colonies and the United States from 1619 to the present and recommend appropriate remedies.

The commission shall identify (1) the role of the federal and state governments in supporting the institution of slavery, (2) forms of discrimination in the public and private sectors against freed slaves and their descendants, and (3) lingering negative effects of slavery on living African Americans and society

Missed Federal Policy Opportunity

- ***40 Acres and a Mule***
- The first major opportunity that the United States had and where it should have atoned for slavery was right after the Civil War. Union leaders including General William Sherman concluded that each Black family should receive 40 acres. Sherman signed Field Order 15 and allocated 400,000 acres of confiscated Confederate land to Black families. Additionally, some families were to receive mules left over from the war, hence [40 acres and a mule](#).

Missed Federal Policy Opportunity

- There's never a bad time to do what's morally right, but the United States has had prime opportunities to atone for slavery. In the 1930s, the United States was reeling from the 1929 stock market crash and was firmly engulfed in the Great Depression. The Franklin Roosevelt administration implemented a series of policies as part of his New Deal legislation, [estimated to cost roughly \\$50 billion](#) then, to catapult the country out of depression. Current estimates price the New Deal at about \$50 trillion.

Municipal based Restorative Policy

- Municipalities provide the opportunity for community-centered reparations that other levels of government do not. A local approach allows for more powerful, close to home storytelling, enabling greater understanding of connections between past and present; in turn, this animates the development of thoughtful conducive reparations.
- Additionally, municipalities can solicit input more easily from community members and encourage their involvement. A municipality-based approach also allows for accessibility and proximity between government and beneficiaries once the policy is in place.
- Operating through legislatures- specifically, municipal legislative bodies- instead shifts focus from compensation to community-oriented social healing, a conceptualization that better captures reparations' deeper aim of repair while shedding the divisive, combative facets of litigation.

Municipalities Taking Action

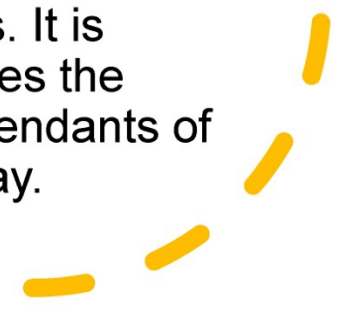
San Francisco: <https://sf.gov/departments/african-american-reparations-advisory-committee>

Evanston: <https://www.nbcnews.com/news/us-news/evanston-illinois-becomes-first-u-s-city-pay-reparations-blacks-n1261791>

11 US Mayors Pledge Reparations:
<https://www.usatoday.com/story/news/nation/2021/06/19/reparations-slavery-pledged-11-us-mayors-pilot-program/7753319002/>

What Would Federal Reparation Entail

- When [James Forman](#), a civil rights pioneer who later served briefly as the Black Panther Party's foreign minister, demanded [\\$500 million in reparations](#) in his 1969 Black Manifesto, he grounded his argument in an indisputable fact: Unpaid slave labor helped build the American economy, creating vast wealth that African-Americans were [barred from sharing](#).
- For every dollar a typical white household holds, a black one has 10 cents. It is this [cumulative effect](#) that justifies the payment of reparations to descendants of slaves long dead, supporters say.



What Would Federal Reparation Entail

- **Compensation**
- Apology:
 - Historical designation of an affected site, community, museums.
 - Days of Commemoration
- Investments:
 - Direct payments
 - Housing Benefits
 - Community Reinvestment
-
- Community Investment can do 3 things: Ameliorate future conditions to improve the lives of the marginalized community; preventing the type of historic injustices from happening again; racially redistributive effect.
- *Medical facilities for mental health and a focus on inadequate health care*
-
- Educational Reform:
 - Curricular Focus
 - Financial Assistance in higher education
- Individuals Impacted by Criminal System:
 - Extensive reentry services
 - Expand employment opportunities: financial incentives to hire returning citizens: "ban the box" policies for public sector employment.



Historic Repayment

As much as **\$10.7 trillion**, according to [Duke economist William Darity and his co-author Kirsten Mullen](#). They suggest that amount could either be paid at once or stretched out over time to the descendants of enslaved people.

Numerous options exist to pay for \$3 trillion in reparations, those payments would increase the share of total net wealth owned by Black households to just 6.5 percent; by comparison, Black households comprise about 14 percent of all US households.

Effects on Black Wealth

- Overall, a \$66,000 one-time reparations payment would increase the net wealth of Black Americans by 160 percent. The share of total net wealth held by Black households would rise from 4 percent to 6.5 percent in 2021. The share would increase the most among Black households with less than \$20,000 in assets before reparations, although they'd still hold less than 1 percent of all total net assets owned by US households.



Why Federal Reparations?

- In 1860, over [\\$3 billion](#) was the value assigned to the physical bodies of enslaved Black Americans to be used as free labor and production. This was more money than was invested in factories and railroads combined.
- In 1861, the value placed on cotton produced by enslaved Blacks was \$250 million. Slavery enriched white slave owners and their descendants, and it fueled the country's economy while suppressing wealth building for the enslaved.

Why Federal Reparations?

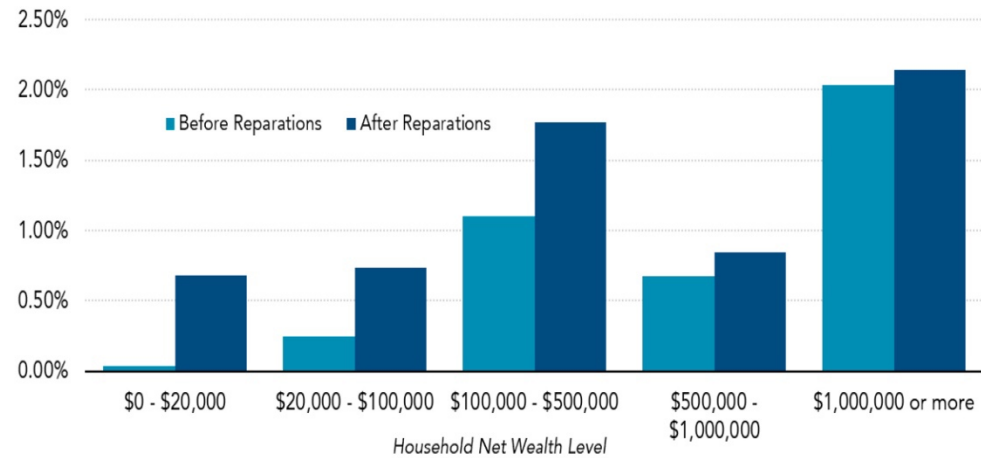
- Today, the average white family has roughly 10 times the amount of wealth as the average Black family.
- White college graduates have over seven times more wealth than Black college graduates. Making the American Dream an equitable reality demands the same U.S. government that denied wealth to Blacks restore that deferred wealth through reparations to their descendants in the form of individual cash payments in the amount that will close the Black-white racial wealth divide.
- Additionally, reparations should come in the form of wealth-building opportunities that address racial disparities in education, housing, and business ownership.

Effect on Black Wealth

Share of Total Net Wealth Owned by Black Households 2021



Share of Total Net Wealth Owned by Blacks



Source: Urban-Brookings Tax Policy Center Microsimulation Model (version 0920-1); authors' computations.

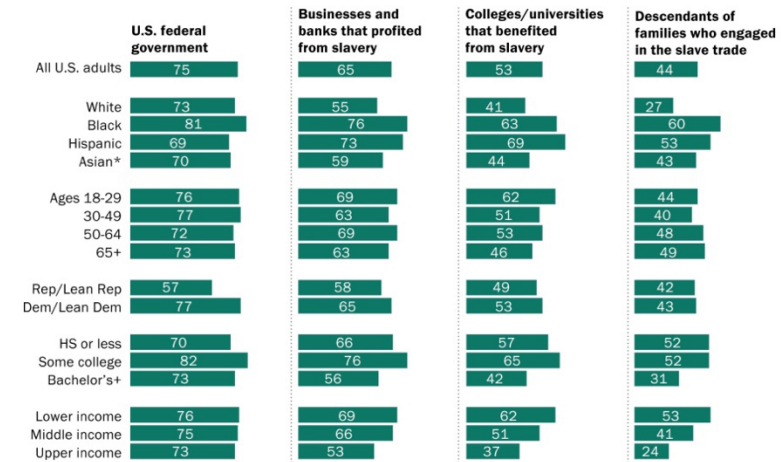
Note: Net wealth is derived from the Federal Reserve Board's 2019 Survey of Consumer Finance (SCF), October, 2020, and extrapolated to 2021 (without accounting for pandemic's impact). Net wealth is calculated by summing the values of total financial and nonfinancial assets and subtracting the value of net debt. The authors have added the monetary value of defined benefit pensions and expanded the SCF measure of Black households to include the estimated number of households containing people who identify as both Black and one or more other races. Households with net debt are included in the totals.

How and Who Pays?

- Three-quarters of reparations supporters say the federal government has all or most of the responsibility to repay descendants of enslaved people.
- A smaller share, though still a majority, say businesses and banks that profited from slavery (65%) have all or most of the responsibility

Three-quarters of Americans who support reparations say the federal government should be responsible for repayment

Among U.S. adults who say descendants of people enslaved in the U.S. should be repaid, % who say ___ have all/most of the responsibility for repayment



* Estimates for Asian adults are representative of English speakers only.
 Note: Black adults include those who say their race is Black alone and non-Hispanic; multiracial, non-Hispanic Black; or Black and Hispanic. White and Asian respondents include those who report being only one race and are not Hispanic. Hispanics are of any race. "Some college" includes adults who have an associate degree and those who attended college but did not obtain a degree. Family income tiers are based on adjusted 2020 earnings. Share of respondents who didn't offer a response not shown.
 Source: Survey of U.S. adults conducted Oct. 4-17, 2021.

Appendix G – One High Point Commission Policy Recommendations

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: RECONCILIATION

PROBLEM TO SOLVE

ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

Issue a Municipal Apology

The High Point community has not reckoned with the legacy of slavery and discrimination.



Acknowledgment of harms perpetrated by and allowed by the city government.

Support Community Dialog and Reconciliation

Community members lack shared knowledge about the city's history and treatment of black residents.



Greater shared understanding of the city's past and its present effects.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: HOUSING

Targeted Downpayment Assistance

PROBLEM

Black High Point residents have 30 points lower homeownership rates than White residents.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

- Increased Black homeownership rate.
- Reverse disinvestment in areas harmed by redlining and Urban Renewal.

Support a Targeted Loan Pool

Construction and mortgage financing is insufficient to meet needs in disinvested neighborhoods.



Increased home construction and home purchases in neighborhoods that have lacked investment in housing.

Provide Incentives for Infill Development

Historically Black neighborhoods have higher levels of vacancy, deferred maintenance, and property abandonment.



Additional affordable housing developed in previously disinvested neighborhoods.

Create a City Fair Housing Program

Black residents disproportionately experience substandard conditions in rental housing.



- High Point renters have better, quicker access to assistance in solving rental housing disputes than they do currently.
- Landlords provide better conditions due to greater scrutiny and enforcement of codes.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: HOUSING

Provide Incentives and Support to Developers in Targeted Neighborhoods

Support Nonprofits Assisting Property Heirs

PROBLEM

Costs and financing constraints prevent development of housing in historically Black neighborhoods.



Black property owners disproportionately experience their property problems.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

- Additional new and renovated, affordable housing in neighborhoods the market has not served.
- Black contractors and developers have additional opportunities to build locally.

Existing property owners secure clear title and have greater economic opportunities.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: HEALTH

Partner with Healthcare Provider to Locate Services in Underserved Neighborhoods

Partner with Healthcare Provider to Locate Services in Underserved Neighborhoods

Provide Sustained Support to Community Gardens and Urban Agriculture

Revive the Lead Abatement Program

PROBLEM

Black residents have higher incidences of negative health outcomes due to social determinants of health.

Black residents have fewer convenient and affordable options for healthcare.

Black residents are more likely to live in a food desert or a food swamp.

Black residents are disproportionately exposed to lead and other environmental hazards in the home.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

Instances of diabetes, heart disease, and other disproportionate health conditions decrease.

Black residents will report greater access to and utilization of primary and preventive healthcare.

- Improved health indicators related to nutrition and diet.
- Greater community cohesion around gardens.
- Productive attractive community space.

A lower percentage of Black children testing positive for lead exposure above safe levels.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: EDUCATION

Coordinate School Construction With Other Community Investments

Facilitate Access to Reliable, Affordable High Speed Internet

PROBLEM

Historically Black and current predominantly Black neighborhoods lack school investments.



Black residents disproportionately lack reliable high-speed internet connections.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

School construction investments spurs other development that improves quality of life, housing and the local economy.

Greater access to vital activities and services online, like employment, education, and telehealth.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY

Support Microloans and
Small Business Lending

Support a Comprehensive
Youth Employment and
Education Program

PROBLEM

Black households have much
lower average income than
White households.

Black youth are
disproportionately
disconnected from school and
work.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

Black residents will have
additional opportunities to
start and scale up
businesses and build credit.

- Additional teens and young adults complete secondary and post-secondary education.
- Black youth unemployment decreases.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: TRANSPORTATION

Connect People to Centers of Employment, Education, and Services

Explore Microtransit

PROBLEM

Black residents disproportionately lack reliable transportation.



Large-scale expansion of fixed bus transit is impractical and expensive.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

Greater access to jobs, education, and services for residents who currently struggle with transportation.

Residents who do not live near bus stops will have safe and convenient access to jobs, education, and service.

ONE HIGH POINT COMMISSION: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS



POLICY AREA: MUNICIPAL OPERATIONS

Review Municipal Practices to Ensure No Continued Harm to Black Residents

Institute Systems Change to Eradicate Bias

PROBLEM

The City of High Point's official records document previous discrimination against African Americans in hiring, promotions, and compensation.

The City of High Point engaged in harmful practices that deprived African Americans of opportunities to live where they chose and benefit from property ownership.

Legacy municipal policies and practices, such as zoning laws, may continue to do harm to Black residents.



ANTICIPATED OUTCOMES

Greater transparency and community confidence in municipal policies and procedures.

Greater understanding by all residents of the ways that seemingly neutral policies have their basis in discrimination.

Residents have greater confidence that city policy and practices are equitable and free of overt or hidden bias.