

VLR 12/7/5
NPHP 2/15/6

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
REGISTRATION FORM**

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in How to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form (National Register Bulletin 16A). Complete each item by marking "x" in the appropriate box or by entering the information requested. If any item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and areas of significance, enter only categories and subcategories from the instructions. Place additional entries and narrative items on continuation sheets (NPS Form 10-900a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer, to complete all items.

1. Name of Property

historic name Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center

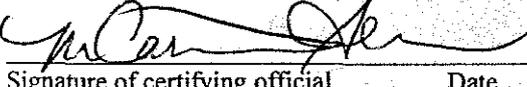
other names/site number VDHR # 104-5087

2. Location

street & number 233 Fourth Street, NW not for publication N/A
city or town Charlottesville vicinity _____
state Virginia code VA county _____ code 540 Zip 22901

3. State/Federal Agency Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1986, as amended, I hereby certify that this X nomination request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60. In my opinion, the property X meets does not meet the National Register Criteria. I recommend that this property be considered significant nationally X statewide locally. (See continuation sheet for additional comments.)



12/29/05

Signature of certifying official _____ Date _____
Virginia Department of Historic Resources
State or Federal agency and bureau

In my opinion, the property meets does not meet the National Register criteria. (See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Signature of commenting or other official _____ Date _____

State or Federal agency and bureau _____

4. National Park Service Certification

I, hereby certify that this property is:

- entered in the National Register
- See continuation sheet.
- determined eligible for the National Register
- See continuation sheet.
- determined not eligible for the National Register
- removed from the National Register
- other (explain): _____

Signature of Keeper _____

Date of Action _____

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5. Classification

Ownership of Property (Check as many boxes as apply)

- private
- public-local
- public-State
- public-Federal

Category of Property (Check only one box)

- building(s)
- district
- site
- structure
- object

Number of Resources within Property

Contributing	Noncontributing	
<u> 1 </u>	<u> 0 </u>	buildings
<u> 0 </u>	<u> 0 </u>	sites
<u> 0 </u>	<u> 0 </u>	structures
<u> 0 </u>	<u> 0 </u>	objects
<u> 1 </u>	<u> 0 </u>	Total

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register 0

Name of related multiple property listing (Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multiple property listing.) N/A

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions (Enter categories from instructions)

Cat: **EDUCATION** Sub: **School**
 RECREATION AND CULTURE **Sports facility**

Current Functions (Enter categories from instructions)

Cat: **GOVERNMENT** Sub: **Government Office**
 RECREATION AND CULTURE **Sports facility**

7. Description

Architectural Classification (Enter categories from instructions) **Other**

Materials (Enter categories from instructions)

foundation **BRICK**
roof **SYNTHETICS: Rubber**
 STONE: Slate
walls **BRICK**
other **WOOD**
 METAL: steel

Narrative Description (Describe the historic and current condition of the property on one or more continuation sheets.)

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8. Statement of Significance

Applicable National Register Criteria (Mark "x" in one or more boxes for the criteria qualifying the property for National Register listing)

- A** Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.
- B** Property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.
- C** Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction.
- D** Property has yielded, or is likely to yield information important in prehistory or history.

Criteria Considerations (Mark "X" in all the boxes that apply.)

- A** owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes.
- B** removed from its original location.
- C** a birthplace or a grave.
- D** a cemetery.
- E** a reconstructed building, object or structure.
- F** a commemorative property.
- G** less than 50 years of age or achieved significance within the past 50 years.

Areas of Significance (Enter categories from instructions)

ARCHITECTURE, ETHNIC HERITAGE: Black
EDUCATION, POLITICS/GOVERNMENT

Period of Significance 1926-1967

Significant Dates 1926, 1938-1939, 1954, 1958, 1959, 1966-67

Significant Person (Complete if Criterion B is marked above) N/A

Cultural Affiliation N/A

Architect/Builder Calrow, Browne and Fitz-Gibbons: Norfolk, Virginia (architects 1926 section)
Motley Construction Company (builder 1926 section)
Willard E. Stainback and Louis A. Brown Jr. (architects 1938-1939 addition)
Baker, Heyward and Llorens: Charlottesville, Virginia (architects 1958 and 1959 additions)

Narrative Statement of Significance (Explain the significance of the property on one or more continuation sheets.)

9. Major Bibliographical References

Bibliography (Cite the books, articles, and other sources used in preparing this form on one or more continuation sheets.)

Previous documentation on file (NPS)

- preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested.
- previously listed in the National Register
- previously determined eligible by the National Register
- designated a National Historic Landmark
- recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey # _____
- recorded by Historic American Engineering Record # _____

Primary Location of Additional Data

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- State Historic Preservation Office
- Other State agency
- Federal agency
- Local government
- University
- Other

Name of repository: _____

10. Geographical Data

Acreege of Property 3.971 acres

UTM References (Place additional UTM references on a continuation sheet)

Zone	Easting	Northing	Zone	Easting	Northing
1	17 720551E	4212377N	2		
<input type="checkbox"/> See continuation sheet.					

Verbal Boundary Description (Describe the boundaries of the property on a continuation sheet.)

Boundary Justification (Explain why the boundaries were selected on a continuation sheet.)

11. Form Prepared By

name/title: Maral S. Kalbian/ Architectural Historian and Margaret T. Peters/Research Historian
 Organization: Maral S. Kalbian date August 15, 2005
 street & number: P.O. Box 468 telephone 540-955-1231
 city or town Berryville state VA zip code 22611

Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

Continuation Sheets

Maps A USGS map (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.
 A sketch map for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources.

Photographs Representative black and white photographs of the property.

Additional items (Check with the SHPO or FPO for any additional items)

Property Owner

(Complete this item at the request of the SHPO or FPO.)

name City of Charlottesville, Mr. Gary O'Connell - City Manager
 street & number P.O. Box 911 telephone (434) 970-3101
 city or town Charlottesville state VA zip code 22901

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

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

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The authors are indebted to Evelyn Barbour, Lelia Brown, Ann Carter, Julie Gronlund, Genevieve Keller, Ida Lewis, Teresa Price, Rochelle Small-Toney, Grace Tinsley and other members of the Jefferson School Task Force and Jefferson School Alumni Association for information they provided on this property. The reader is encouraged to examine the sources cited in both the endnotes and the bibliography for more detailed documentation. At the request of the client, the terminologies used in this text to refer to African-Americans -- "Colored," "Negro," "Black" -- are those that would have been acceptable and common in the historical time period in which each such descriptive term is used.

7. SUMMARY DESCRIPTION

The site of the "New Jefferson School", today known as Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center, is located at 233 Fourth Street, NW in Charlottesville, Virginia, and sits on a lot that runs the length of an entire city block. The large two-story brick building was constructed in four sections with the earliest in 1926 and additions in 1938-39, 1958, and 1959. The oldest portion of the school was designed by Norfolk-based architect Charles Calrow and forms the façade of the building that faces Commerce Street. The 1938-1939, two-story, rear addition, containing primarily classrooms, was designed by architects William E. Stainback and Louis A. Brown, Jr. and was partially funded by the Public Works Administration (PWA). Two more additions were made to the north end of the building in the late 1950s, both designed by Baker, Heyward and Llorens Architects of Charlottesville. The 1958 portion contains primarily additional classroom space, and the 1959 portion, now known as the Carver Recreation Center, includes the large gymnasium that is the present northern terminus of the building. The 3.971-acre site on which Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center is located includes a playground and grassy area northeast of the school as well as a large parking lot along the entire east side of the building.

The first African-American school to stand on the property was located east of the present building, on land that has become part of the current parking lot. It was a two-and-one-half-story brick structure constructed in 1894 and known as the Jefferson Colored Graded/Elementary School and was demolished in 1959. A section of a low brick wall, which may be part of the 1894 original school building, is located at the Fourth Street parking lot entrance of Jefferson School. Archaeological investigations have not been conducted on the site but are planned for the near future.

The earliest portion of the current Jefferson School was constructed in 1926, after members of

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the community had petitioned the Superintendent and the City School Board for a high school for the city's colored youth. The new school was built adjacent to the older building, which remained on the site until its demolition in 1959.

The architectural history of Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center spans more than three decades. The school is a remarkably well-preserved example of the evolution of typical public school designs of this era. Much of the building's interior woodwork, flooring, and wall treatments as well as the windows and exterior detailing from the various building periods are still intact. The earliest portion features a U-shaped corridor on the main level with classrooms radiating off one side, as well as a central auditorium. The 1938-1939 addition created an enclosed open-air courtyard at the rear of the original building as well as providing additional classroom space and a library. While the 1958 addition provided mainly classrooms, the 1959 addition provided a large gymnasium and athletic facilities on the upper level for Jefferson School and an auditorium and rooms for Carver Recreation Center on the lower level. Following the full integration of educational facilities in Charlottesville in 1965, Jefferson School continued to accommodate educational activities as well as to house various city offices. The Carver Recreation Center remains in the building, now occupying the upper and lower floors, and continues to serve the greater Charlottesville community.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

The Jefferson School site occupies an entire city block between Fourth and Fifth streets NW, to the east and west, respectively. The former Brown Street, which was closed to make way for an expansion to the school, and the Charlottesville City Yard lay to the north, with Commerce Street to the south. The construction of the "New Jefferson" High School in 1926 and the subsequent 1938, 1958, and 1959 additions required a substantial acquisition of land, some of which was acquired through eminent domain. The 1926 construction:

“required the School Board to buy and raze the dwellings located on this site and known as 200 and 206 5th Street. The 1938-39 expansion required acquisition and razing by the School Board of the three dwellings located on 5th Street NW, Brown Street and Commerce Street. The School Board also acquired the church known as “Wesley Chapel.” The 1958-1959 expansion required the closure of Brown Street as well as the acquisition of the land north of Brown Street to the City Yard between 4th and 5th Streets; along with approximately fourteen

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dwelling located there. Over the course of five years from 1953-58, the School Board acquired these lots, a number of which were condemned by the City, until they were in possession of the land necessary for this last expansion.”¹

Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center is an important visual landmark in downtown Charlottesville and is located within the boundaries of the Starr Hill neighborhood. The large building sits on an open, sloping 3.971-acre site with the structure located on the west side of the parcel directly off Fifth Street, and a paved parking lot, small playground, and grassy area covering the east side of the property off Fourth Street. When the earliest portion of the school was constructed the entrance faced Commerce Street. Much of the area to the east and south of Starr Hill was densely populated with residences and small businesses in another primarily “colored” neighborhood known as Vinegar Hill, a “triangular area defined by Main Street on the South, Preston Avenue on the north and Fourth Street on the west, immediately to the west of the original downtown grid of Charlottesville.”² Jefferson School is situated within the south and east boundary of the historically “colored” neighborhood of Starr Hill that today includes primarily residences, the historical J. F. Bell Funeral Home, the former dental office of Dr. John Jackson, the former Inge’s Grocery Store, Compton Barbershop, the historical Ebenezer Baptist Church, the former Bethel Baptist Institutional Church building, and a few other commercial buildings that survived the urban renewal movement of the 1960s that desecrated this former center of the African-American community in late-nineteenth- and twentieth-century Charlottesville.

The earliest section of Jefferson School, built in 1926, consists of the five-bay portion fronting on Commerce Street. The architect for this original portion was Charles Calrow from the Norfolk architectural firm of Calrow, Brown and Fitz-Gibbon. School Board records indicate that Calrow was paid an architectural fee of \$702. Mr. Calrow also served as architect for the new Venable Elementary School (1926) and Clark Elementary School (1930) in Charlottesville as well as several dwellings in the city.³ Although a search of the architectural drawings prepared by the State Department of Education in Richmond did not reveal any specific drawings for Jefferson, several of the drawings for other schools of the period bear strong similarities to Jefferson such as the new “colored” high school in Staunton built in 1935.⁴ The Lucy F. Simms School, an African-American elementary and high school in Harrisonburg that was constructed in 1939, has a similar floor plan and exterior detailing. A copy of the Jefferson School plans is held by the City of Charlottesville, having been provided by the State Department of Education in Richmond “Division of School Buildings; Department of Public Instruction,” and dated

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January 1925. It can be assumed that these plans were provided to Calrow in order to modify and enhance them. By March 1925, a contract was awarded to Motley Construction Company for \$47,777.86 to construct the school, which included an office and library, seven classrooms, an auditorium, a home economics room, and a cafeteria. Some modifications had to be made to the original plans and specifications to reduce the costs, including using slate instead of Spanish tile on the mansard portion of the roof, using wood lath on the interior walls rather than metal, omitting the concrete floor in the storage room, and some reductions in the heating system. The owner (the school board), was to select the mortar which was to be Carneys cement or sand and Portland cement.⁵

Constructed into a banked site, the primary south facade of Jefferson School appears to be only one story in height but includes a split-level basement that is full height along the east side of the building. The front façade features a central round-arched entry with recessed double-leaf doors surrounded by an 18-light transom and three-light sidelights. It is interesting to note that this recessed arched entry design draws directly from the entry to the older 1894 school that was still on the site when this section was constructed. The brick entry arch is highlighted by a concrete keystone and sidestones and is accessible from the street by concrete steps with metal pipe railings. Flanking the entry are banks of five nine-over-nine-sash double-hung wood windows with concrete sills. The blind end bays of the façade project forward and contain a blank rectangular brick panel with square concrete corner blocks. Although the exterior unpainted red brick walls are laid in simple stretcher bond, bricks are used in decorative patterns to give the building a distinctive textured appearance. These include a slightly projecting brick watertable and stringcourse that are carried around the building and are made up of a soldier course topped by a header course. In the case of the stringcourse, the soldier course is a concrete-colored brick, providing more of a visual emphasis. Above the stringcourse is a crenellated brick parapet with concrete coping. At the central entrance bay as well as the projecting end bays, the parapet contains three square concrete panels laid at angles so they are diamond-shaped. The use of one diamond-shaped concrete panel at the center of each crenellated parapet bay is found along the other elevations of this portion of the building. Slightly set back from the parapet and rising from the flat roof is a short clerestory with stucco walls and a mansard roof clad in slate. The paired 9-light glass panes in the windows along the top of the clerestory have been painted but once provided natural light to the central auditorium that is contained in this space. Because the clerestory is set back and only about a half story in height, only the roof is visible from the front and sides of the building. An interior brick chimney is located along the east side. Basement windows are visible along the front of the building, although some have been enclosed.

Concrete

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stairs with metal pipe railings provide access to the ground level at the east side of the building where the basement is a full story. The concrete sidewalk, which is generally at the same grade as the front, curves around to the west side of the building and also features the same metal pipe railing.

Located directly off the east side of Fifth Street, NW, the west side of the original portion of the school is comprised of three bays of banks of nine-over-nine-sash windows in groups of five. The bays are emphasized by the crenellated parapets as well as gutter downspouts topped by decorative leaderheads, which come through the parapet. Small basement windows are apparent at or below grade. The east side of the building, which fronts on Fourth Street, NW, is now the primary entrance to the building because of the later additions as well as the location of the parking lot. On this side, the basement level is a full story and contains five bays of openings, some with doors and paired windows, while the upper level has three bays of five-banked nine-over-nine-sash windows. The crenellated parapet with central diamond-shaped block and the downspouts with leaderheads are the same as those found on the west side.

Over the next thirty-three years, three additions to Jefferson School were constructed that all extended off the north end of the original 1926 section. The first was made in 1938-1939 using funds that came primarily from the Public Works Administration and a public bond issue. Designed by Willard E. Stainback, Architect, this two-story brick addition extended the building north by four bays. The brick seam between the old and the new section is almost indistinguishable and the addition incorporates many of the same architectural features found on the original section, including stretcher-bond brick walls, a parapet with concrete coping (but no crenellation), an interior brick chimney, and brick beltcourses above the first- and second-story levels. The addition, which includes ten additional classrooms, an office, a library, and a shop, is U-shaped and thus forms an interior open-air courtyard where it is attached to the rear of the original section. This courtyard, accessible from the interior of the building, provides natural light for the hallways as well as a recreational area. The four bays on the east side include a smaller entrance bay directly adjacent to the older section with a recessed entry vestibule with double doors. This entry is marked by decorative brick work including banding along the sides, an exaggerated brick keystone of stretcher bond brick, and projecting headers at the cornice that form dentils. The level above it contains a pair of nine-over-nine-sash windows. The other three bays are comprised of four- and five-banked nine-over-nine-sash windows. The north side of this section, part of which has been concealed by a later addition, includes two bays of banked windows, and a recessed entry with a rounded archway with a keystone that echoes the main

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entry on the original part of the building. The west side along Fifth Street is also four bays wide

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and includes groups of banked nine-over-nine-sash windows both on the first floor and the basement level, which is below the grade of the street. A small grassy area with earthen retaining wall, concrete sidewalk, and metal pipe railing separates the building from the street.

During construction of this addition, a few alterations were also made to the original 1926 portion of Jefferson School in order to address the increase in the size of the student population. Some of these include: doubling the capacity of the cafeteria, which was located in the basement, and adding basement windows on the Fifth Street side to allow for better lighting and ventilation for that area; placing acoustical tile over the original plaster ceiling in the auditorium in order to absorb noise; and installing a larger boiler with the capacity to heat both sections of the building.⁶

The final two additions to Jefferson School were made in the late 1950s; both designed by Charlottesville-based Baker, Heyward and Llorens Architects. Although these components are not yet fifty years old, they are within the period of significance of the building and are architecturally in keeping with the historic portions of the school. The City of Charlottesville retains the blueprints for this building campaign that are dated November 11, 1957, and show that both additions were designed at the same time. The first addition, constructed in 1958, is stepped back on the east elevation from the 1938-1939 addition and includes additional classrooms, bathrooms, and a new boiler room. Although constructed twenty years later, this 1958 addition follows the same general design found in the earlier portions of the building. The two-story, red brick walls are laid in a variant stretcher bond where the fifth course alternates headers and stretchers. Steel windows with concrete sills are triple-hung six-over-six-sash with a three-pane hopper window at the bottom. The brick beltcourse on the first floor is not carried on this portion, although the one above the second floor is, as well as the plain brick parapet with concrete cap. The three first-floor entrances along the seven-bay east side of this section are all recessed and have a concrete surround, while the four other bays are comprised of banks of nine windows on both levels. The recessed entrance bay directly adjacent to the 1938-1939 addition is of a concrete finish and features a double-leaf door on the first floor with a granite surround. The paired windows on the second floor are topped by a panel inscribed with the date 1958, and a flat overhang with geometric railing that shelters the first-floor doors. The other entrances feature similar detailing on the first-floor level although one of them has a transom with geometric detailing over the double doors. The five-bay west elevation of the 1958 addition consists of bays of nine-banked windows with an entrance on the second bay in from the north. Distinguished by a plain concrete surround, the recessed entry includes a double-leaf door topped

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by a transom with a geometric design. Part of the wall on this section of the building appears to have been reworked at a later date to accommodate the addition of mechanical equipment, which is housed in a one-story flat-roofed concrete structure sited below the retaining wall.

The final addition made to Jefferson School is the large, two-story, square-shaped, flat-roofed brick gymnasium at the northern end, which is taller than the rest of the building. Completed in 1959 as an addition to Jefferson School and the new Carver Recreation Center, this section features a gymnasium on the first level. The basement contains a roller rink with a raised stage at the west end, allowing it to also function as an auditorium. Boys' and girls' locker rooms are also found on this level. Much more utilitarian in appearance than any other sections of Jefferson School, it features fifteen-over-fifteen-sash fixed steel windows in an irregular pattern on the east, west, and north sides of the building, as well as some smaller steel windows. The west side of the gymnasium addition has two entrances, each with an elevated entry with concrete stairs and a flat-roofed canopy protecting double-leaf doors and transom with geometric patterns, as well as handrails of a geometric pattern. The transom and some of the large windows have been painted white to block light from entering the gymnasium. An exterior entrance on the eastern side of the wing leads out onto a playground.

As with the exterior, the interior of Jefferson School has had remarkably few alterations, despite the four building campaigns. The floor plan is relatively intact as are the ceiling, wall, and floor finishes as well as trim, chalkboards, and built-in cabinetry. The original front entry off Commerce Street features a small entrance hall with a door to the east that leads into a classroom and a set of double doors to the north that open up directly into the central auditorium with its tall ceiling and blue-painted clerestory windows. The seven original classrooms and an office are arranged along the three outside walls of the auditorium, while three bays of paired nine-over-nine-sash windows provide natural light from the north side of the room. An elevated stage of unpainted oak wood is sited at the east end of the room. The floor is covered in linoleum tile but may have original wood flooring beneath it. The acoustic tile in the ceiling was added in the late 1930s, but the eight porcelain ceiling lamps which hang from chains appear to be original. The folding wood and metal auditorium seats are symmetrically arranged in two columns and appear to date to the 1950s. The classrooms in this original section retain most of their original features including varnished woodwork, five-paneled doors, six-light transoms, transoms with metal grilles, chalkboards, plastered walls, and in some cases, built-in cloakrooms and bookcases. One classroom located to the east of the entry hall contains a small sink inside a round-arched niche. Most of the floors have been carpeted in these rooms and new suspended lighting added.

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The basement of this portion includes the original cafeteria and what was the "Domestic

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Science” department, today known as the Home Economics department. A staircase is located down a corridor off the northeast end of the auditorium.⁷ Round-arched doorways along the north side of the auditorium wall continue the corridors to the north. With only minor modifications, the 1926 portion of Jefferson School is in remarkably unaltered condition and retains the majority of its character-defining features.

The 1938-1939 addition, which added classrooms, is located directly adjacent to the original section and created an enclosed open-air courtyard between the two sections. The original rear of the school is visible along the south wall of the courtyard and shows minor alterations to the basement level. Three full-height brick pilasters as well as an exterior-end brick chimney emphasize the three bays. Multiple sets of double-leaf doors lead out into the open-air courtyard. Windows in the walls ringing the courtyard provide natural light to the hallways. The concrete paving of the courtyard does not appear to be original and probably dates to the 1950s. The treatment of the plastered walls and varnished woodwork in the 1938-1939 section is similar to that in the original portion.

The 1958 addition, primarily containing classrooms, deviated from the side-loaded arrangement of classrooms off an interior corridor found in the earlier portions of the school. Instead, the classrooms radiate off both sides of a central corridor. In addition, the interior walls are exposed painted concrete block, and in the hallways and stairwells, have a tall wainscot of yellow glazed Brictile. The classrooms in this part of the school remain intact and feature suspended lighting, characteristic of the era, vinyl tile flooring, and intact chalkboards, cloakrooms, and bathrooms. At the north end of the corridor of the 1958 section are metal fire doors that separate Carver Recreation Center from the school. The connector from the school to the gym features the same treatment of exposed concrete block with yellow Brictile wainscot. The interior of the gym is typical of the period and has a high gloss finished wood floor, yellow Brictile wainscot, exposed metal trusses, and a recessed area on the south wall for bleachers. Below the gym is an auditorium, which is simply an open room with a stage at the west end. The space has a wooden floor and is accessible from the east side of the building. The 1957 plans show this area as a roller skating rink, an activity it continues to house today, and the east entrance of the gymnasium wing opens into this ground level

Although no longer a public city school, Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center continues to be used for educational and recreational purposes by a variety of organizations.

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Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center has had few alterations other than additions and is an excellent example of a 1920s state-designed public school that evolved over the next three

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decades. As the requirements for the school changed and its population increased, architecturally sympathetic additions were made to the original building that addressed those needs. While the additions constructed in 1958 and 1959 fall within the past fifty years, because of Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center's associations with African-American education through the mid-twentieth century and during the era of integration and massive resistance, and due to the property's high degree of architectural integrity, Criteria Consideration G applies and the period of significance extends to 1966. Plans are underway to rehabilitate the building, perhaps using the State Preservation Tax Credit Program, in order to continue to meet the needs of the community it serves.

ENDNOTES

¹ Frazier Associates, "Jefferson School Charlottesville, Virginia: Site Analysis Report," Prepared for the City of Charlottesville, September 30, 2003: 6.

² www.iath.virginia.edu/schwartz/vhill/vhill.history.html.

³ Liz Sargent, "The Establishment of Jefferson Graded School ca. 1894 and Jefferson High School, ca. 1925," Jefferson School Oral History Publication, [Charlottesville, September 2004], 33.

⁴ Virginia Department of Education, School Building Service, "Architectural Drawings and Plans, 1920-1970." Reel # 1837 [12-R-15].

⁵ Charlottesville City School Board Minutes, July 17, 1924 – August 19, 1925.

⁶ Frazier Associates, 5.

⁷ The plans held by the City show that the stair was originally intended to be in another location.

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8. STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE:

Jefferson School, located in Charlottesville in the heart of Virginia's Piedmont region, is significant for its central role in the African-American community in the areas of educational, social, and political history of the twentieth century in the Commonwealth. Continuing to carry the name of the nation's third president given to the Freedman Bureau's School in Charlottesville by abolitionist and educator Anna Gardner in 1865, the 1926 Jefferson's School's history parallels the development of public education in Virginia from its years of strictly segregated school facilities to its culmination in the tumultuous years from 1954-1970 as the entire South struggled to desegregate its public school systems.

Jefferson School also served as the fulcrum for the colored citizens of Charlottesville and surrounding Albemarle County, providing a venue and a focal point for their emergence as a dynamic and vital part of the community's social history during the 20th century. As a tangible symbol of Negro education in Charlottesville, Jefferson School embodies the expansion and growth of the recognition within the African-American community of the primary importance of education to its well-being. Jefferson evolved from a nine-room school house built in 1894 that provided instruction up through Grade 8, to the construction of a high school building in 1926 at a time when high school facilities were severely limited and when most jurisdictions in Virginia did not offer high school education to Negroes. Its history continued, expanding the original high school structure using federal Public Works funds in 1938-39 as the demand and student population grew as well as the Negro community's desire for public library services; to substantial additions to the school in 1958 and 1959, with the addition of classrooms, a gymnasium and athletic facilities. The building of the gymnasium probably grew out of a recognition following the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision in 1954 that most Negro schools and public recreation facilities in the South were sadly lacking in both equipment and physical facilities. In 1951, Jefferson School was converted from a high school to an elementary school as the City of Charlottesville and Albemarle County opened a joint high school for Negro students, Jackson P. Burley on Rose Hill Drive in the City.

Additionally, Jefferson School's use in the school year 1965-66 to house the first broadly integrated program for both black and white junior high students from the entire Charlottesville school system, followed by being the venue for both black and white sixth graders in 1966-67, enhances the pivotal role that the school played in ushering the community as a whole into the era of full public school integration. The Carver Recreation Center, located in the 1959 addition

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to Jefferson, continues to house important social, athletic, and recreational facilities for the Charlottesville community. Moreover, it was Jefferson School from which a handful of Negro students sought to desegregate Charlottesville schools for the first time, joining in the suits filed by the NAACP on their behalf in 1958. As a result of this legal action based on *Brown*, and the order to desegregate the Charlottesville schools, issued by Federal District Judge John Paul in that year, two of Charlottesville's schools, Venable Elementary and Lane High School, were closed by Governor J. Lindsay Almond, Jr. under Virginia's recently enacted Massive Resistance laws. Charlottesville joined only two other Virginia localities in September of 1958 – Warren County and the City of Norfolk - in closing schools rather than allowing Negro children to attend previously all-white schools. Federal Judge Albert Bryan ordered that black students in Arlington enter white schools in February of 1959.¹ Charlottesville was the first jurisdiction in the nation to have schools closed rather than to accept any Negro students. The turbulent story of the period from 1954 to 1966 is reflected in Jefferson School as it stands today – a testament to the desire and commitment of the African-American community for equal educational facilities and opportunities for their children that began almost 140 years earlier with the establishment of Jefferson School in 1865 by Anna Gardner and the Freedman's Bureau in a former Confederate hospital.

Criteria Statement: Jefferson School, which includes the current building and additions, is being recommended as eligible at the state level under Criteria A in the area of African-American history and education and politics, and Under Criteria C for architecture. It retains a high level of integrity from the four building campaigns associated with the school – 1926, 1938-39, 1958, and 1959. The period of significance for Jefferson School and Carver Recreation is from 1926, when the oldest extant portion of the school was constructed, to 1966-67, the year in which it served the Charlottesville school system by housing the first fully integrated classes for all City sixth grades. Under Criteria Consideration G, Jefferson School's period of significance extends to 1967 to incorporate the exceptional importance of the years from 1954 to 1967 during which Charlottesville and the entire Commonwealth of Virginia in the wake of the momentous *Brown* decision struggled with Massive Resistance and school closings, and ultimately achieved the desegregation of its public schools.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

To understand fully the context in which Jefferson School was built, it is necessary to examine briefly the evolution of African-American education in Virginia generally and in the

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Charlottesville area specifically. Following the Nat Turner Rebellion in Southampton County, Virginia, in 1831, the state's General Assembly enacted strict laws forbidding the teaching of reading and writing to Negro slaves. Teaching of slaves was limited to isolated instances of white slave holders instructing their own slaves or slaves instructing each other.² At the same time, unlike in the North, no system of publicly supported education existed for whites either. All instruction of whites was limited to private tutors or academies. At the end of the Civil War, in June, 1865, "the New England Freedmen's Aid Society paid to send a teacher, Anna Gardner, to Charlottesville to open a school for former slaves."³ This was a practice found throughout Virginia where northern benevolent societies cooperated with the newly formed Freedman's Bureau. Dr. Ben Ford, in his excellent article on this topic, quotes W. E. B. Du Bois writing in 1901 when he said "...the greatest success of the Freedman's Bureau lay in the planting of the free school among Negroes, and the ideal of free elementary education among all classes in the South,"⁴ to address the needs of hundreds of thousands of freed slaves throughout the area. Dr. Laurant L. Lee, in her dissertation entitled "Crucible in The Classroom: The Free People and their Teachers, Charlottesville, VA. 1861-1876," examines the personal letters of teachers Anna Gardner and Philena Carkin during their tenure in Charlottesville as principal, teacher and organizer of a Freedman Bureau's school for newly freed slaves. Dr. Lee's examination also provides a chronology of the establishment of the two early Jefferson Schools in Albemarle County, the second in tandem with the evolution of a newly organized state-wide system of public local schools in 1869 as the Freedman's Bureau began shifting the responsibility for education of Negroes to the local Albemarle County School Board.⁵

The "New" Jefferson School's (1926), humble yet proud roots began with the "advanced" class of students within the Freedman Bureau's School (1865) which carried the name of the third President of the United States and this name was passed on to three future schools, including the present day building. The name "Jefferson School" was given by abolitionist and head instructor Anna Gardner to her "advanced" class; she was an admirer of Thomas Jefferson. The first Jefferson School was a one-room school (1865-1869) in Albemarle County established by the Freedman's Bureau in the Delavan Hospital Unit, a former hotel and Confederate hospital. The Delavan building was a three-story building "located on the south side of University Street, extending from the corner near the Dry Bridge to the Junction Depot" in Charlottesville.⁶ Due to the poor condition of the Delavan building and the growing number of students, a new school house was financed and built in 1869 in what was then Albemarle County in an area around the train depot and West Main Street by the New England Freedmen's Aid Society, the Freedman's Bureau, the families and students. As a "normal school" of three grades, the new school was

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named "The Jefferson School". This Jefferson School was one of the earliest schools in the

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establishment of the public school network in Virginia as the Freedman's Bureau transferred responsibility of educating the newly freed slaves and their children to the locally established school boards. In 1894 the third Jefferson School, now known as "Old" Jefferson Graded Elementary School, was built on Fourth Street NW between Commerce and Brown Street within the corporate boundaries of the newly chartered City of Charlottesville as a two-and-a-half-story, nine-room brick schoolhouse. The parcel on which this building stood is a part of the parcel occupied by the present Jefferson School building.

An 1877 map known as Gray's Map of Charlottesville owned by the Albemarle County Historical Society shows the location of both the original Delavan school building on the south side of University Street and a frame "school house" just south of the Virginia Midland Railroad that paralleled University Street (present Main Street.) The frame building was constructed in 1869 and was the first facility known as "The Jefferson School."⁷

Following Reconstruction, Virginia had established its first statewide system of public education in 1870 under the leadership of noted educator William Henry Ruffner. Ruffner favored education for Negroes and believed they should receive their fair share of the educational resources.⁸ However, since funding for schools rested primarily in the hands of local governing bodies, which were dominated by whites, only limited resources were provided for colored education. Individual colored families were called upon to pay for many of the books and supplies and to raise money for new buildings. The shortage of colored teachers was acute, and training opportunities for them were limited. In 1871, there were 38 public schools in operation in Charlottesville and Albemarle County; 19 of them were listed as "colored." Only seven colored teachers taught in those 19 schools. In Charlottesville alone, four Negro teachers taught a total of 351 students. In 1885, there were only two graded schools serving the City of Charlottesville, one of which was presumably Jefferson Graded School that had previously been located outside the corporate limits in Albemarle County on West Main Street. Charlottesville was incorporated as an independent city in 1880, and by 1893, the City was planning to build a new colored school. At the same time plans called for the expansion of the white high school, Midway, predecessor to Lane High School. Ironically, it was nearly 50 years later when consideration of plans for expanding Jefferson Graded School and the building of the new Lane High School coincided in the school board's deliberations. School Board minutes in 1893 state: "Resolved that the Superintendent be empowered to employ counsel in Washington to investigate the title of the Jefferson School grounds." Land at the corner of Fourth and

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Commerce streets was transferred to the City and construction of a brick school house began. The site was located in a colored neighborhood known as Starr Hill and also bordered Vinegar

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Hill with two colored churches – Ebenezer Baptist Church and John Wesley Methodist Episcopal Colored Church located within several short blocks. The site was probably not considered a particularly desirable one, even though it was convenient to largely colored neighborhoods, because it stood just south of the Charlottesville City Gas Works. The location would play an important role in the school desegregation period of the 1950s and 60s because the City School Board was able to draw school attendance boundary lines for Jefferson (that lay in the central portion of the City) to capture the majority of Negro residents and allow white students to attend schools in the perimeter regions of the City.

It is this site, which has been expanded substantially since 1893, on which the present Jefferson School stands. The four-story, brick, 1894 building, constructed by the Belmont Building and Construction Company, appears on Sanborn Fire Insurance maps beginning in 1896 until at least 1942 as “the Jefferson Public School (colored)” with a “heat furnace.” In 1913, the Sanborn map denotes the building as “Jefferson Public School (Negro)”; in 1929 it again appears as “colored” and by 1942 it is shown as “Old Jefferson Graded School (colored).”⁹ It appears that students were still studying in the old frame Jefferson School building at least in 1893, when it appears in the 1894 school reports as the school at “Union Depot.” The new school housed six grades and had six teachers. The 1894 building was demolished in 1959.

In general, throughout the United States, there was a movement for providing secondary education for a larger percentage of students during the first two decades of the 20th century, often called the “Progressive Era.” At the same time, there was a growing population of colored adolescents. Politically, the vast majority of the white leadership in the South, and certainly in Virginia, agreed with John Marshall Harlan, who sat on the U. S. Supreme Court from 1877-1911 and was the sole dissenter in the case of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) when he expressed his belief that seeking equal facilities for blacks, which were called for in that decision, would hurt education for white students.¹⁰ Black Laws of Virginia: A Summary of the Legislative Acts of Virginia Concerning Negroes From Earliest Times to the Present indicates that the 1870 Virginia Constitution stated “this act provides for a system of free public schools for persons between five and twenty-one years, that white and colored persons shall not be taught in the same school but in separate schools, under the same general regulations as to management, usefulness and efficiency...”¹¹ With the philosophy of “separate but equal” established in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) and the adoption of Virginia’s new constitution in 1902, the prevailing sentiment was that

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the black and white races should be separate in access to all public facilities as long as those facilities were equal. Justice Harlan, in his lone dissent believed that “separate but equal” would “prove to be quite as pernicious as the decision...in the *Dred Scott* Case...” saying that

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achieving equality in all facilities (including schools) was a goal that could not be achieved.¹² There was little or no sentiment for ensuring that equality would be enforced and therefore little sentiment for ensuring that colored students should receive the same education as their white peers.

The next 25 years would prove to be critical in the thinking about education for colored youth throughout the country. Beginning in the late 19th century, there was an on-going debate in the Negro community about whether education for Negro students should focus on academic instruction like most white schools, or whether it should focus on industrial schools following the theory that this would better prepare students for joining the nation's work force. Booker T. Washington was a proponent of the latter idea, stressing that "industrial education" was more important and that the emphasis should be on educating a good work force rather than providing an education centered on academic training. W. E. B. Du Bois, on the other hand, was a fierce advocate for racial equality and disagreed with Washington that the focus of Negro education should be solely to train "good workers." High school education in the early years of the 20th century was limited in both races; in 1910, 9.9% of eligible white students attended high school; while only 4.1% of eligible Negro students attended classes beyond the elementary school level.¹³ By 1916 there were only six Negro public high schools in Virginia that offered anything approaching a "classical education."

In the years immediately following World War I, a shift of Negro population to more urban areas occurred that "forced a new attentiveness to secondary education for black youth." In the teens and early 1920s, Northern philanthropy, particularly as seen in the massive efforts of the Rosenwald Foundation, worked to build more schools for rural areas in the South. By the late 1920s, however, the Rosenwald trustees were campaigning for industrial high schools, as exemplified by their efforts to fund a new high school for Negro students in Little Rock, Arkansas that would emphasize education for work in the trades. Negro leaders in Little Rock strenuously objected, saying that they wanted a "real high school." At the same time, in New Orleans, efforts were geared to training Negroes for traditionally manual jobs, rather than providing academic instruction. In one instance, in the late 1920s, it was quoted that "African Americans were not to be educated beyond their social position."¹⁴ On the other hand, some urban reformers saw secondary education for African-American youth as "the best method to keep teenagers off the street."¹⁵

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Negro parents in Charlottesville had demonstrated their strong commitment to securing education for their children since the Civil War. They were called upon to contribute to building costs and to pay for books and supplies, while showing sufficient political will to see that a

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permanent brick school building was erected for them in the 1890s. It is generally acknowledged that following World War I, education was promoted nationwide to a far greater degree as the country came to recognize the “vast amount of illiteracy” in the nation. There was more wealth available to build new schools, more families had moved to urbanized areas, and there was a growing trend to build more high schools. At the same time, there were a larger number of Negro graduates of educational programs, which helped increase the pool of available qualified teachers.¹⁶ It is not surprising, therefore, that eighty-six parents and interested individuals submitted a petition to the Superintendent and members of the City School Board in ca. 1924 for the building of a Negro high school in Charlottesville. Because no high school classes were offered to Negro students at that time, their families were forced to send them away to schools in other places outside of Charlottesville and the state where they could obtain high school-level training. Among the petitioners were the leadership of most of the Negro churches, fraternal organizations, store keepers, as well as many individual parents. The petition states:

Whereas since the City of Charlottesville offers nothing higher to the Negro Youth than the Eighth Grade at Jefferson [Graded] School, and whereas, each year we have large classes to graduate who must go from home at such an early age to pursue high school courses, and since sending our children away at the age of fourteen years, which is the average age at which they graduate, we incur a great expense besides depriving them of the home training and influence. We are deeply grateful for the educational advantages which we have and pray that the time is ripe for giving us a High School. Therefore, we the undersigned petitioners –citizens of Charlottesville, VA do ask that you grant us a High School for the Colored Youth of said city.¹⁷

The City decided in 1924 to honor this request for a “Negro” high school that would house three high school grades. Minutes for the Charlottesville School Board in November of 1924 reveal that the board was anxious to get the plans for the new colored school from the State education department architect, Mr. Raymond B. Long. By December of 1924, the Board had the plans in hand, and it can be assumed that those draft plans were provided to the architectural firm of Calrow, Browne, and Fitz-Gibbons Architects of Norfolk, which had been selected to oversee the construction of the new building, with Charles Calrow serving as the architect. By March of

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1925, a contract had been awarded to the Motley Construction Company for \$47,777.86 to construct the school, which was completed in 1926.

Jefferson High School joined only ten other Negro high schools in Virginia, all of which were

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located in cities larger than Charlottesville except an unnamed school in the Williamsburg-James City County area.¹⁸ Contemporary statistics from 1926-27 nationwide show that only 7.1% of Negroes were enrolled in secondary education programs (not including industrial training schools), while the percentage of white youth so enrolled was 40%. By 1934, 21% of black youth in Virginia were enrolled in secondary schools while 55% of white students attended high school.¹⁹ Since there had been only three accredited black high schools in Virginia by 1920, it would appear that Jefferson was part of the large growth of urban academic high schools in Virginia in the 1920s. So called "training schools," most of which were located in rural areas could not be called "high schools," and fell into the category discussed earlier as industrial and non-academic and primarily devoted to training for the work force.²⁰ According to James Anderson, the lack of public high schools available to African-American students, and the huge gap between available facilities for black and white students in this "critical stage of the transformation of American secondary education, seriously affected the long-term development of education in the black community."²¹ Charlottesville leaders, strongly encouraged by the Negro parents in the City, reached a decision to provide a high school for Negro youth in this crucial time period, thus bucking the trend throughout the South as a whole that lagged far behind in the provision of even minimal secondary education for those students.

The new high school stood on the western portion of the same parcel as the Jefferson Graded School, facing Commerce Street. The two schools stood in the Starr Hill neighborhood on the western edge of Vinegar Hill, a predominantly African-American neighborhood that contained residential, commercial, and civic buildings that served as Charlottesville's economic and social core for blacks during the first half of the twentieth century. In the 1920s, Vinegar Hill was in its prime as an African-American commercial and residential neighborhood, and the new secondary school building's proximity to many African-American homes made it a convenient location for a new high school."²² A commencement exercise program from the Class of 1924 of The Jefferson Graded School indicates that there were 34 graduates of Grade 8. The following year, on September 1, 1925, the Charlottesville Daily Progress reported on page one, that Jefferson Colored High School had admitted 88 students and an additional 577 to the grade school. A curious statement follows the report that "the colored high school opened very *suspiciously* with a total of eighty-eight students." There is no explanation for this statement except that perhaps

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the establishment newspaper was surprised at the large number of Negro students reporting to high school.²³

The Phelps-Stokes Papers were a series of papers that undertook the sociological study of Negro

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life in Charlottesville. The Phelps-Stokes fellows from the University of Virginia researched and published their observations and findings with the hopes of “improving the condition of the Negro.”²⁴ The Phelps-Stokes Paper for 1929-1930 reported that the high school had added another year (now grades 8-11) in 1929. The new building housed grades 6-11 while the “old” Jefferson Graded School housed grades 1-5. The report also stated that the graded school had a library of 400-500 books while the high school had about 1800 volumes. It went on to state that the high school had no elective classes and that 16 units were required for graduation. The report addressed the significant involvement of the parents in a “Parents Club” that met regularly at the school where they were instructed in the curriculum of their children. A Patrons Day was held on an annual basis to welcome visitors, both black and white, to view the accomplishments of the classes.²⁵

Jefferson High School was awarded accreditation as a high school by the State Department of Education in 1929. The student body of the high school by then stood at 165 with a graduating class in 1930 of 24 students. The official Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Instruction for 1929-30 indicates that there was a 96% attendance rate among Jefferson high school students, which was among the higher percentages in the state, a measure of the importance placed on secondary education by Negro parents and students in the Charlottesville area at the time.²⁶ At the same time, as reported in the 1930-31 Annual Report, the average pay scale for teachers was only \$90.00 per month for Jefferson teachers while at the all-white Lane High School (formerly Midway) the average monthly salary was \$182.40. The discrepancy in the total cost of science laboratory equipment was even greater; for Jefferson \$300, while at Lane it was \$4200. The per capita expenditures for high school students at Jefferson was \$28.39 and for Lane \$57.10. These discrepancies would appear in budgets for public schools throughout Virginia.²⁷ In a case before the U. S. Circuit Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit in 1940, it was reported that Negro teachers were paid on average 60% of the amount paid to white teachers; the Circuit Court found that this differential in pay in the same school system was unconstitutional, a decision that was ultimately upheld by the Supreme Court. A number of law suits were filed in the 1940s, calling for equal facilities, books, and teacher pay scales for Negro and white educational programs throughout the country.²⁸ The huge gap in expenditures for educational facilities for white and Negro students continued for many decades until legal action

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in the 1940s and 1950s sought to remedy the gross inequities.

During the 1930s the student population at the two Jefferson schools continued to grow and, in anticipation of burgeoning numbers, the Charlottesville school board began acquisition of additional properties adjacent to the Jefferson parcel for expansion. Jefferson High School was a

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vibrant and active educational institution in the 1930s, as demonstrated by its sophisticated publication, the Jeffersonian. Edited and written by students from the Junior and Senior classes with a faculty adviser, this twice-monthly newsletter reveals a tremendous pride among the students in their school. News about activities such as sports, clubs, a High-Y, a girls chorus group, a French club, coupled with discussion of “school spirit,” good attendance despite poor weather, and notes about recent graduates, dominate the pages. Responding to a call in the 1930s encouraging “education for citizenship” in African-American schools accompanied by the initiation of the study of Negro history,²⁹ clubs to enhance good student citizenship, and stories about Jefferson School’s observance of Negro History Week appeared in the Jeffersonian. Other articles reported dramatic productions, concerts, oratorical contests, a second place finish for a Jefferson senior male student in the Washington Post scholarship contest, announcements of meetings, as well as predictable high school “social” news, gossip and advertisements from local merchants, which all point to a well-produced publication in which clearly the students took great pride. One notable statistic that appeared in an early fall issue in 1936 was that 23 of the 32 graduating seniors from the previous year had gone to college, a testament of the desire of these students to continue to receive the best education possible in their lifetime and that the education they received at Jefferson School did indeed prepare them to pursue further studies at the college level. Original poetry and fiction fill the pages, and several essays and poems praising President Franklin Roosevelt appear as well. The publication shows an involved and active student community and anticipates the great pride of its graduates in later years for the school. Notably, long time School Superintendent James C. Johnson in his historical notes and reports on Charlottesville public schools, barely mentions Jefferson in his discussion of academic curriculum.³⁰ Despite the lack of serious attention given to the Jefferson School by the white leadership in the City, “it appears to have offered its students a rigorous academic program...advanced math and science, literature, writing, [and] foreign languages.”³¹

The Jefferson School and the “Old Jefferson Graded Elementary School were clearly significant symbols of the intellectual and social life of the African-American community in Charlottesville.³² Directly linked with Old Jefferson Graded Elementary School and Jefferson High School was the Negro public library branch of the City Library system and the segregated

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Fourth Street Recreation Center of the City Recreation Department, the predecessor to Carver Recreation Center. The segregated public library branch in the “Old” Jefferson Elementary School had been established in 1934. When the 1938 addition to the 1926 Jefferson High School Building was completed, the Fourth Street Branch of the Library for Colored Citizens moved from the Old Jefferson Graded Elementary School building, to the 1926 high school building where space was provided for the Negro library branch on the first floor facing Fourth Street

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NW until 1947 when the branch moved again across the street into the Jackson Building. This use of the Jefferson School to house a branch of the Charlottesville City Library demonstrates the commitment of the Negro community to consolidating its educational and library resources and underscores the central role played by the Jefferson School building in the Negro community's intellectual life at a time when the white community mandated segregated library facilities.³³

On August 24, 1938, the Charlottesville School Board held a special meeting to "consider the offer of the United States of America to aid by way of a grant in financing the construction of additions and alterations to the Colored School Building and a (new) white high school building." Under the terms and conditions as spelled out in Public Works Administration Form 230, the federal government would provide 45% of the costs for Jefferson, not to exceed \$45,000. The notice from the Public Works Administration dated August 12, 1938 offered \$45,000 to Jefferson High School and \$232,965 for the new white high school, which ultimately would be Lane High School.³⁴ Under the terms and conditions, preference in employment for construction work was to be given to persons on public relief roles; there was to be no discrimination; work days were to be limited to 8 hours; wages were to be paid at the "prevailing" rate, and signs were to be erected on site saying "Public Works Administration, Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works." Interestingly, the terms specified that the "applicant will not name the project for any living person."³⁵

A resolution was passed accepting the offer of the United States of America to the Charlottesville School Board to aid in financing the construction of additions and alterations to the colored school buildings, with work to begin in not more than 12 weeks. On September 5, 1938, the School Board entered into an agreement with Willard E. Stainback, and Louis A. Brown, Jr., architects practicing in Charlottesville. The architects were to supply plans, site supervision, and a "clerk of the works" to furnish continuous supervision of the project. Two sets of drawings and specifications were to be provided.³⁶ Later School Board minutes in the summer of 1939 reflect awarding of various contracts for desks, furniture, flooring, and other supplies for the building

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that included improvements to Jefferson Graded School as well. Presumably the new addition and improvements to Jefferson Graded School were completed in time for the September 1939 school year.

Concurrent with this, on July 18, 1938, the Charlottesville City Council met in joint session with

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the City School Board “in regard to the proposed PWA project for a new high school and an addition to the colored school.” One week later, on July 25, 1938, the City Council authorized the calling of a bond issue election “for the purpose of obtaining the approval of the voters as to the issuance and sale of such bonds as may be necessary to pay for 55% of the proposed total cost of a new White High School and an addition to the Jefferson Colored School.” On July 26, the City Council authorized the School Board to spend \$2500 for preliminary expenses in connection with the federal PWA grant for the new white high school and the addition to the Jefferson Colored School. The proposed bond election was held September 20, 1938, and was approved for a new white high school and additions to the present colored public school building in the amount of \$339,735. The bonds were known as “School Improvement Bond Series of 1938.” Thus the financing was in place for construction of Lane High School (now the Albemarle County Office Building on Preston Avenue), and the additions to the “Jefferson Colored School.”³⁷ The “Notice of Bond Issue Election” that appeared in the August 22, 1938 edition of the Daily Progress provided that “for the purposes aforementioned, of which aggregate sum of \$339,735, a sum not exceeding \$284,735...shall be used for said program of public white high school construction, expansion and improvement for white children, and a sum not exceeding \$55,000...shall be used for said program of public construction, expansion and improvement for colored children.” Interestingly, neither the Council, nor the School Board ever called it “Jefferson High School” in their respective minutes. T. J. Sellers, former publisher of The Reflector, a Negro newspaper in Charlottesville, often bemoaned the “unequal distribution of funds” to the white and black high schools.³⁸

Again, by the close of the decade of the 1940s, the Negro student population in Charlottesville had outgrown its facilities. James W. Barksdale, a Phelps Stokes Fellow at the University of Virginia, was quoted as saying, “Plain observation is enough to prove that Negro education facilities in Charlottesville are not today equal to those of whites.”³⁹ In the same time period, Superintendent Johnson’s final report in his 40-year tenure to the School Board, lists all the teachers in the school system and their salaries, presumably to demonstrate that Charlottesville was complying with federal court orders calling for salary equalization between white and black teachers. The Daily Progress reported on October 14, 1950, that Jefferson Elementary enrolled

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621 students in that year, and 267 high school students who would move to the Burley High School, which was then under construction. An agreement was reached with Albemarle County to build a new high school to serve the Negro students from both the city and the county. The new school, Jackson P. Burley, located on Rose Hill Drive in the City, opened in 1951 with a student body of 541, and Jefferson High School ceased to function as a secondary school. Jefferson became known as Jefferson Elementary School, housing Negro students in grades 1-

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7.⁴⁰ It has been reported that although Burley provided much improved and more modern physical facilities, it did not offer as many college preparatory classes as Jefferson High School had, with fewer English and foreign language courses.⁴¹

During the decade of the 1950s and continuing into the mid 1960s, Jefferson Elementary and Burley High School would join Venable Elementary and Lane High School in the historic and dramatic events that flowed from the Supreme Court's landmark decision in 1954 outlawing segregated school systems. The opinion written by Chief Justice Earl Warren states: "We come then to the question presented: Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other 'tangible' factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal education opportunities? We believe that it does."⁴² The conflict was played out on both a national and state stage, but the action that took place on the local level was probably the most significant in so far as it directly affected the lives of the students and their families. The *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling from the U. S. Supreme Court triggered a series of events that ultimately and inexorably led to the establishment of a desegregated school system in Charlottesville.

The Commonwealth of Virginia was quick to respond to the decisions of the Supreme Court. Governor Thomas B. Stanley appointed an all-white commission to study the issue of desegregating Virginia's public school system. The commission came to be known as the "Gray Commission" after its chairman Senator Garland Gray of Waverly, Virginia. The Commission presented its report in November 1955, advocating a local pupil placement system and essentially giving local school boards the authority to make those assignments. This was perceived as a compromise solution, although it recommended that parents not be compelled to send their children to a desegregated school. This was to be accomplished by modifying the state's compulsory attendance laws. The commission also recommended a tuition grant program to reimburse parents who wished to send their children to private schools rather than desegregated ones. An amendment to the state's constitution was required to accomplish this and Virginia voters approved amendments in a statewide referendum in January of 1956.⁴³

However, in

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August of 1956, the Virginia General Assembly "passed twenty-three segregationist measures which constructed a uniform massive resistance policy opposed to any form of integration anywhere in the state." Under these new laws, the Governor was empowered to close any school forced to desegregate under court order. Virginia's "Massive Resistance" plan, designed to negate the Brown Decision of 1954, became the "test case" for all Southern states. The moving political force behind Massive Resistance, Virginia's Senator Harry Byrd wrote, "Virginia offers

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its peaceful leadership to the South and I believe the offer will be accepted.”⁴⁴

During the pivotal years surrounding *Brown*, the Negro community was moving towards a more active role in securing political power in the community. In 1953 four Charlottesville native sons – Eugene Williams, Ray Bell, Charles Fowler, and George Ferguson, who became president of the local chapter, – took over the leadership of the local NAACP and worked to reinvigorate the organization whose membership had dropped to only 24 people by that year.⁴⁵ When Thurgood Marshall visited Charlottesville to address local NAACP members in 1954 “the chapter had grown to 867 members.”⁴⁶ On October 6, 1955, Marshall’s law school classmate Oliver Hill, representing fourteen-year-old Olivia Ferguson and forty-three other Negro students from Charlottesville, petitioned the school board “to reorganize the public schools...so that children may attend them without regard to their race or color.” Oliver W. Hill, a Richmond attorney, and Spotswood W. Robinson, III, were the lead counsel in the Virginia case of *Davis v. County Board of Prince Edward County*, which was ultimately consolidated with *Brown* in the Supreme Court. The School Board refused the petition and in response, on August 6, 1956, the NAACP filed a suit against the City of Charlottesville on behalf of the young students, which was filed in the United States District Court for the Western District of Virginia requesting the integration of Venable Elementary School and Lane High School beginning immediately. On July 12, 1956, U. S. District Judge John Paul issued an order effective September 1956, restraining the school board from any and all action that would deny admission of any child to any public school on the basis of race or color.

In July of 1958, the School Board “adopted a resolution establishing a pupil assignment plan.” It called for attendance zones with the boundaries drawn in such a way that the majority of Negro students lived in the Jefferson School zone. The plan also included the administration of an achievement test for any Negro student wishing to attend a school outside his or her residential zone. It was believed that such tests would eliminate many Negro pupils wishing to transfer to previously all-white schools. Finally, an interview with the student and his or her parent was required, with students denied transfer who appeared to have “hostile attitudes or indifference.”⁴⁷

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During the summer and early fall of 1958, the Charlottesville City School Board examined the applications of 22 black students – 10 at Burley and 12 at Jefferson – for admission to Lane, Venable, and in two cases, McGuffey, schools. The school board denied all of the applications based on geographical location (the student lived closer to the school in which they were already enrolled), test results which the Board believed showed that the students were not qualified to keep up with the work, and a personal interview with both the students and their parents. In all cases, the evaluation closed with the statement “for the foregoing reasons, this application is

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denied.”⁴⁸ After several lengthy appeals that reached the U. S. Supreme Court, Judge John Paul ordered the City to “begin admitting back students to its white schools in September,” (1958).⁴⁹ On September 13, 1958, Judge Paul signed the order directing that ten Negro students, who had been at Jefferson Graded School be admitted to Venable Elementary School and two students, previously at Jackson P. Burley High School be admitted to Lane High School. On September 19, 1958, the Governor, J. Lindsay Almond, Jr., acting on the Massive Resistance legislation enacted by the legislature, took control of those two previously all white schools in Charlottesville, Venable Elementary and Lane High School and closed them. Virginia was the first state and Charlottesville among the first Virginia communities in the nation to have any of its schools closed to avoid integration. For the next four and one-half months, two of Charlottesville’s public schools were closed and the 1,700 students that attended them were privately educated in homes or other community buildings. The rest of the schools including Jefferson School remained open.

In January of 1959, the Virginia Supreme Court ruled that Massive Resistance was unconstitutional. On the same day, January 19, a three-judge federal court in Norfolk ruled that the school closings in Norfolk were unlawful as well. There was much disagreement in Charlottesville after this ruling, with ardent segregationists wanting to keep the schools closed and many others wanting to reopen them and operate a fully functional public school system. The School Board passed a resolution to reopen Venable School with pupil assignments to be made on a non-discriminatory basis. They also resolved to ask the Federal Circuit Court to delay implementation until September, 1959, allowing Venable and Lane to operate on a segregated basis for the balance of the 1958-59 school year. The ten Negro elementary school children, who had formerly been enrolled at Jefferson, and were to attend Venable School according to Judge Paul’s order, were enrolled in a program held in the School Board offices, with the Board hiring a teacher to instruct them.⁵⁰

During the summer of 1959, the NAACP embarked on an aggressive program to obtain

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additional applications from Negro students to attend previously all white schools. Twenty-nine Jefferson students submitted applications, seventeen of whom applied to Venable, three to Johnson Elementary, and one to McGuffey Elementary. Eight students applied to Lane High School. Under various rulings and state law, the School Board submitted the applications to the State Pupil Placement Board with the recommendation that only one student, a high school student, be allowed to transfer to Lane. The Charlottesville School Board directed its attorney to obtain a ruling from Judge Paul in the “conflict between the State Board and the federal court.” Judge Paul ordered that nine of the Negro pupils be transferred to Venable from Jefferson and

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three be assigned to Lane High School.⁵¹ This set the stage for the initial integration of two of Charlottesville's previously all-white schools on September 8, 1959. The integration proceeded peaceably with no incidents except some jeering and calling of names on opening day as recalled by John Martin, one of the Negro students going to Lane.⁵²

It was during this period that a large addition was built onto the north end of the Jefferson School. The student population of Jefferson School had increased to 847 by the fall of 1958, and the main block of the structure was extended to accommodate the growing Negro school population. The auditors report in September, 1958, for the previous year shows that \$84,506 had been spent on school improvements for Jefferson with the architectural fees entered as \$3,613. These costs were presumably associated with the new addition.⁵³ Designed by the Charlottesville architectural firm of Baker, Heyward and Llorens, the addition primarily contained classroom space. Much of the property for the extension was acquired by the School Board, some using their power of eminent domain to condemn during the 1950s, probably in recognition of the serious overcrowding at Jefferson. In 1959, the School using the same architects, added a large gymnasium to the upper floor of the complex. On the lower level, an auditorium and athletic facilities were added and this area was designated as the Carver Recreation Center. Both upper and lower levels are now known as the Carver Recreation Center and serve the central Charlottesville community. Construction of the new portions of Jefferson was accompanied by the demolition of "Old Jefferson" in 1959 which had housed the elementary grades since 1926. Ironically, this expansion appears to have had a dual purpose: to provide a segregated public recreation facility and to somehow "equalize" the educational facility for Negro children with that of white children in reaction to the 1954 *Brown* decision.

The next six years saw essentially only token school integration in Charlottesville, while the communities, both black and white, pressed for resolution. Many white parents sent their children to newly-formed all-white private schools, Robert E. Lee and Rock Hill Academy,

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thereby siphoning off some of the more vocal objectors to desegregation. The public school desegregation issue was described by Dr. Dallas Crowe as a "hotly debated question in Charlottesville," and it was not clear to the white community until July 26, 1955, that blacks in Charlottesville were going to attempt to desegregate the public school system. On that date Charles D. Fowler, Jr., President of the Charlottesville Branch of the NAACP, announced that petitions from black parents would be presented to the School Board requesting transfer of their children to white schools. Fowler said: "We believe it is the constitutional right to attend integrated schools. We're asking the board to abide by the decision of the Supreme Court, and do it in good faith, we are afraid if we don't do anything; it will just be waiting a long time. We

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waited a long time for equalization of schools; I'd like to see Charlottesville face reality. It's going to come one way or another...it's certainly going to Court." On October 13, 1955, the School Board acted upon the request of forty-four black children to study the situation as represented by Oliver W. Hill, Martin A. Martin, Spottswood W. Robinson III and Roland D. Ealey, Richmond attorneys.⁵⁴ There was, however, strong sentiment on the part of many parents and educators in the white community to preserve the public school system, and these sentiments, accompanied by energetic efforts on the part of the persistent Negro community to pursue a desegregated school system, undoubtedly contributed to Charlottesville's relatively peaceful resolution of the conflicts. The absence of serious violence was in part due to the leadership of Mayor Thomas Michie who in a speech early in his tenure on September 2, 1958, stated that "these are not ordinary times...efforts of hotheads to take the law into their own hands will not be tolerated."⁵⁵ George Ferguson, also a former president of the local branch of the NAACP during the time of desegregation litigation over the enforcement of the *Brown* decision, in an oral history account "tells about the delays, the frustrations and local lawsuits that had to be filed to breathe life into the *Brown* decision. Ferguson declares, this was all a long, drawn out process. It didn't just happen here, here, here. We had these hearings in court. Then the city, I guess, spent million dollars fighting or more."⁵⁶ Ray Bell, a former member of the Charlottesville School Board, "was asked, before a civil rights commission one time, 'How was Charlottesville able to desegregate its schools so much faster than other places like Prince Edward County?'" His response was that it was because of the court case *Allen v. Board of Education*. "We went through the courts and I think the NAACP selected Charlottesville as one of the test cases, to spearhead that whole effort. They concentrated on Charlottesville. And Judge Paul issued an order that the schools would be desegregated, and they were."⁵⁷ During his tenure as President of the NAACP, Eugene Williams commented regarding the actions of the School Board and City Council the School Boards request for a stay of execution in transferring black plaintiffs to elementary schools:

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Each stumbling block gives us more courage and determination to continue to push for our Negro children to get a desegregated education. We regret the action of the City Council and the School Board yesterday because such action is parallel to the Prince Edward County situation. We have always had high hopes that Charlottesville, with its many opportunities for educational and cultural growth, would be a shining example for its neighboring communities. To pattern its action after Prince Edward County overshadows all the prospects for a peaceful settlement of the case.⁵⁸

While the parents of the earliest student plaintiffs Ernest Allen and Olivia Ferguson and the NAACP attorneys Oliver Hill, Samuel Tucker and Spottswood Robinson fought in the state and

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federal courts to desegregate the Charlottesville public school system, integration of other public places such as restaurants were underway in the midst of protest and cross burnings in the yards of desegregation sympathizers. A cross burning took place on August 23, 1956, at a church during a meeting of the Charlottesville Human Relations Council and again on August 30, 1956, at the home of Sarah P. Boyle, a long time leader of and spokesman for the Human Relations Council.⁵⁹ If it had not been for the strong white opposition in the Charlottesville community to desegregation the schools, coupled with the particularly aggressive stance of the state power structure in its efforts to avoid desegregation altogether with Massive Resistance and an arbitrary pupil placement board, it is at least possible that issues might have been resolved much earlier.

In 1960 the NAACP filed a formal request that the School Board “enter into a program for complete desegregation of the City schools...”⁶⁰ Gradually over the next several years, as local parents, the NAACP and the federal courts continued to apply pressure on the School Board, more Negro pupils transferred to previously all-white schools. The result ultimately was under-enrollment resulted at Jefferson School since no white students requested transfer there. Moreover, a large number of seventh graders at Jefferson requested transfer to the white junior high facilities, leaving a greatly reduced student population at Jefferson. Other elementary and junior high schools in the City were overcrowded. On June 30, 1965, the School Board acted to close Jefferson as an elementary school and “its new status was to serve as the location of the junior high schools, housing all seventh, eighth, and ninth grade pupils on a split shift basis until the new schools were completed.” One student body and faculty [Walker Junior High] were to attend in the morning and one [Buford Junior High] in the afternoon. Further the School Board’s “No Transfer” policy and school attendance zones also set in motion the eventual city-wide integration of Charlottesville City Schools. Thus, for the school year 1965-1966 Jefferson School would house all junior high students, both black and white, for the year that it would take

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to complete the construction of the new junior high schools (Walker and Buford), thus achieving for the first time city-wide integration.⁶¹ The plan agreed upon for the 1966-67 period (later extended to 1968) was that Jefferson Elementary School building would house all of the sixth grade classes, both black and white – from across the City, for the year or two it would take to complete construction and expansion of the junior high schools around the city, thus continuing city-wide integration. This decision demonstrated that the City of Charlottesville was agreeing to comply with the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and “by that action announced that future school operations were to be administered in a racially non-discriminatory matter.”⁶² According to one writer in 1974, there were some problems with the so-called Sixth Grade Center. Some white parents were “apprehensive” about sending their children to a formerly all black school. There was some concern about the integrated faculty, with some white students having black teachers

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for the first time. There were similar concerns among Negro parents. A reorganization of curriculum established three ability-level groups, which tended to group more Negro students in the lowest group. One of the more successful efforts to ease the consolidation problems was the establishment in 1967-68 of a student activity program to involve all students in recreational/learning activities together. According to the same author, although some adjustments were needed, the consolidation of the sixth grades worked very well.⁶³

Jefferson School continued to function as a “swing school” from 1975 to 1992 for elementary schools that were undergoing renovations in the public school system. It also served at various times as a consolidated city-county health department, storage and office space for the school system as well as a citywide pre-school program. The legacy of Jefferson School is a truly remarkable one- it has stood for over 125 years as a symbol of the dedication of the Charlottesville Negro community to the education of its children. It represents a spirit of tenacity and dedication to the highest national ideals of equality and fairness. And today, it marks the coming together of the black and white communities of Charlottesville to plan for the future use of this important structure that is a testament to the durability of the human spirit.

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² Benjamin Ford, “Charlottesville, Virginia, and its African-American Educational History,” [Jefferson School Oral History Publication, Charlottesville, 2004], 17-18.

³ Ford, 19.

⁴ W. E. B. Du Bois, “The Freedman’s Bureau,” The Atlantic Monthly, 87 [No. 519, March 1901]: 361.

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⁵ Laurant L. Lee. “Crucible in the Classroom” The Free People and Their Teachers, Charlottesville Virginia, 1861-1876, [Charlottesville: University of Virginia, PhD, 2002].

⁶ Ibid. 33.

⁷ Ford, 21; Joseph C. Vance, “The Negro in the Reconstruction of Albemarle County, Virginia,” 87. [Masters Thesis, University of Virginia, 1953].

⁸ William Henry Brown, The Education and Economic Development of the Negro in Virginia, [Charlottesville, 1923] 49.

⁹ Liz Sargent, “The Establishment of Jefferson Graded School ca 1894 and Jefferson High School, ca. 1925,” Jefferson School Oral History...., 31-32; Sanborn Company Fire Insurance Maps for Charlottesville, Virginia, 1907, 1913, 1929, 1942.

¹⁰ James D. Anderson, The Education of Blacks in the South, 1860-1935, [Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1988] 192.

¹¹ Black Laws of Virginia: A Summary of the Legislative Acts of Virginia Concerning Negroes from Earliest Times to the Present, Article X, Chapter 259, [1870] 180.

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- ¹² *Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 U.S. 537 (1896).
- ¹³ Anderson, The Education of Blacks..., 191.
- ¹⁴ Ibid, 228.
- ¹⁵ Ibid, 191 ff.
- ¹⁶ Luther Porter Jackson, A History of the Virginia State Teacher's Association, [Norfolk: Guide Publishing Co., 1937] 67-69.
- ¹⁷ Petition, Circa 1925, a copy of which is in the Charlottesville Assistant City Manger's Office.
- ¹⁸ Liz Sargent, "Educational Opportunities, 1894-1925," [Jefferson School Oral...], 34.
- ¹⁹ Anderson, The Education of Blacks in the South..., 236.
- ²⁰ Archie Gibbs Richardson, The Development of Negro Education in Virginia, 1831-1970, [Richmond Virginia Chapter, Phi Delta Kappa, 1976], 23-38. Note: Mr. Richardson was the Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction for Negroes in the Virginia Department of Education in the 1930s and 1940s.
- ²¹ Anderson, The Education of Blacks in the South..., 236-237.
- ²² "Jefferson High School and Carver Recreation Center," Preliminary Information Form [Department of Historic Resources, 2004], 9.
- ²³ The Daily Progress (Charlottesville), September 1, 1926, 1.
- ²⁴ The Phelps-Stokes Fund was established in 1909 with a bequest from Caroline Phelps-Stokes who died in 1909. It was one of the earliest family foundations in the United States. Its mission was to "ameliorate race relations and improve educational opportunities for Africans, African-Americans, and American Indians." See www.wellsgroup.ws "Legacy Across Continents: the Phelps-Stokes Fund." The program at the University of Virginia has provided valuable insight into Negro life in Virginia in the 20th century.
- ²⁵ Phelps-Stokes Papers, University of Virginia, 1929-1930, 39-40.
- ²⁶ Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the School Year 1929-1930, Volume XIII, 55.
- ²⁷ Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the School Year 1930-1931, Volume XIV, 50-51.
- ²⁸ Richardson, The Development of Negro Education in Virginia..., 77, 84 ff.
- ²⁹ Luther Porter Jackson, A History..., 87, 100.

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- ³⁰ James Gibson Johnson, The McGuffey Reader: historical supplements to McGuffey reader and other documents concerning the public schools of the City of Charlottesville, Virginia. [Charlottesville: Michie Company, 1941], 5-6.
- ³¹ Julie Gronlund, [Jefferson School Oral History Project...], 39.
- ³² The Jeffersonian, selected issues from 1936 to 1938.
- ³³ Charlottesville Library Board Minutes, January 21, 1947; Daily Progress, January 28, 1947.
- ³⁴ Charlottesville City School Board minutes, August 24, 1938.
- ³⁵ Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, "Terms and Conditions," Notice dated August 12, 1938.
- ³⁶ Charlottesville City School Board, Agreement for Project # 1287-F, September 5, 1938; Hill's Directory, City of Charlottesville, 1938..
- ³⁷ Council Minute Book H, 469, 470, 476, 488. (1938).
- ³⁸ Michael James, "The Conspiracy of the Good: Civil Rights and the Struggle for Community in Two American Cities, 1875 to 2000," [Jefferson School Oral History...], 67. Note: this is an excerpt from the book of the same name published by Michael James in December, 2004.
- ³⁹ James W. Barksdale, A Comparative Study of Contemporary White and Negro Standards in Health, Education, and Welfare [Phelps-Stokes Fellowship Papers, No. 20, Charlottesville: 1949], 77-83.

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⁴⁰ Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction...School Year 1953-54, Volume XXXVII, November, 1954. [Richmond, 1954], 38-39. By this report Burley was listed as have graduated one senior class of 74.

⁴¹ Jacky Taylor, "Desegregation in Charlottesville Public Schools, a 15-Year Odyssey," [Jefferson School Oral History Publication], 47.

⁴² Brown v. Board of Education, 347 U.S. 483 (1954).

⁴³ Alexander De Mont. "The Denouement of Virginia's Massive Resistance to Desegregation: The Closing of the Schools in Charlottesville, Norfolk, and Warren County," A Bachelor of Arts Thesis, [Trinity College, Oxford, 1978] 6-7.

⁴⁴ Alexander De Mont, "The Denouement...." Quoting from the Papers of Harry Flood Byrd, 9.

⁴⁵ Matthew D. Lassiter and Andrew B. Lewis, editors. The Moderates' Dilemma Massive Resistance to School Desegregation in Virginia [Charlottesville: University Press of Virginia, 1978] 76.

⁴⁶ Andrew B. Lewis, "Emergency Mothers: Basement Schools and the Preservation of Public Education in Charlottesville," The Moderates' Dilemma Massive Resistance to School Desegregation in Virginia, eds. Matthew D. Lassiter and Andrew B. Lewis, Charlottesville: University Press of Virginia, 1998, 76.

⁴⁷ Dallas Randall Crowe, "Desegregation of Charlottesville, Virginia Public Schools, 1954-1969: A Case Study," [Charlottesville: University of Virginia, Ed.D., 1971], 84-86.

⁴⁸ Charlottesville City School Board Minutes, July, 1958-December, 1958.

⁴⁹ Andrews B. Lewis, "Emergency Mothers....," 77.

⁵⁰ Dallas Crowe, "Desegregation of Charlottesville....," 123-127.

⁵¹ Crowe, 145-147.

⁵² The Hook, # 0314, April 8, 2004 [www.readthehook.com/stories/2004/04/08/cover]

⁵³ Statement of Cash Receipts and Expenditures, School Board of Charlottesville School Improvement Funds, June 30, 1958. "Exhibit A" [filed with the minutes of the Charlottesville School Board, September, 1958].

⁵⁴ Crowe, 36-37.

⁵⁵ The Moderate's Dilemma...., 83.

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⁵⁶ James Robert Saunders and Renae Nadine Shackelford. Urban Renewal and the End of Black Culture in Charlottesville, Virginia. An Oral History of Vinegar Hill. [Jefferson, North Carolina: McFarland and Company, Inc., 1998], 48-49.

⁵⁷ Ibid., 42

⁵⁸ Crowe, "Desegregation of Charlottesville....," 184.

⁵⁹ Ibid., 60-61.

⁶⁰ Ibid., 156.

⁶¹ Ibid., 222, 225.

⁶² Ibid., 341.

⁶³ Anna Holden, The Bus Stops Here, [New York: Agathon Press, Inc., 1974], 57-60.

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**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet**

**Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center
Charlottesville, Virginia**

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10. GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

VERBAL BOUNDARY DESCRIPTION:

Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center are identified on the tax parcel maps for the City of Charlottesville as plot 89 on Tax Map 32.

BOUNDARY JUSTIFICATION:

The nominated property includes the entire acreage historically associated with the Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center.

Section Photos Page 37

PHOTOGRAPHIC DOCUMENTATION

Unless otherwise noted, all photographs are of:

**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet**

**Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center
Charlottesville, Virginia**

JEFFERSON SCHOOL AND CARVER RECREATION CENTER, DHR File #: 104-5087

Location: Charlottesville, Virginia

Photographer: Maral S. Kalbian

Date of photographs: February 2005

All negatives are stored at the Department of Historic Resources Archives unless noted.

SUBJECT: View of school and setting

VIEW: Looking northeast along Commerce Street

NEG. NO.: 22326 (39)

PHOTO 1 of 20

SUBJECT: Front façade along Commerce Street

VIEW: South

NEG. NO.: 22326 (34)

PHOTO 2 of 20

SUBJECT: Front/side view

VIEW: Southeast

NEG. NO.: 22326 (31)

PHOTO 3 of 20

SUBJECT: Front/side view

VIEW: Southwest

NEG. NO.: 22326 (36)

PHOTO 4 of 20

SUBJECT: Side view, looking across Fourth Street

VIEW: East

NEG. NO.: 22326 (23)

PHOTO 5 of 20

SUBJECT: Interior open-air courtyard

VIEW: north view of original section

NEG. NO.: 22326 (12)

PHOTO 6 of 20

Section __Photos__ Page __38__

SUBJECT: Side entrance of 1958 portion

VIEW: East

**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet**

**Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center
Charlottesville, Virginia**

NEG. NO.: 22325 (32)
PHOTO 7 of 20

SUBJECT: West side of school, Fifth Street, NW
VIEW: Looking south
NEG. NO.: 22325 (24)
PHOTO 8 of 20

SUBJECT: Side/rear view
VIEW: Northeast
NEG. NO.: 22325 (35)
PHOTO 9 of 20

SUBJECT: Entrance Hall
VIEW: Looking north into auditorium area
NEG. NO.: 22325 (21)
PHOTO 10 of 20

SUBJECT: Auditorium
VIEW: Looking northeast, towards stage
NEG. NO.: 22326 (21)
PHOTO 11 of 20

SUBJECT: Closets and sink in east classroom in original section
VIEW: Southeast
NEG. NO.: 22326 (18)
PHOTO 12 of 20

SUBJECT: Auditorium looking toward 1938-1939 addition
VIEW: Looking north
NEG. NO.: 22326 (15)
PHOTO 13 of 20

Section __Photos__ Page __39__

SUBJECT: Hallway in 1938-1939 section looking toward auditorium
VIEW: Looking south
NEG. NO.: 22326 (14)

**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet**

**Jefferson School and Carver Recreation Center
Charlottesville, Virginia**

PHOTO 14 of 20

SUBJECT: Door, transom, and chalkboard in 1926 section

VIEW: Northwest

NEG. NO.: 22326 (17)

PHOTO 15 of 20

SUBJECT: Door, transom, and chalkboard in 1939 section

VIEW: Northwest

NEG. NO.: 22326 (7)

PHOTO 16 of 20

SUBJECT: Hallway in 1958 section

VIEW: Looking north

NEG. NO.: 22324 (36)

PHOTO 17 of 20

SUBJECT: Classroom in 1958 section

VIEW: Looking southwest

NEG. NO.: 22324 (35)

PHOTO 18 of 20

SUBJECT: Side view of Carver Recreation Center

VIEW: West

NEG. NO.: 22325 (25)

PHOTO 19 of 20

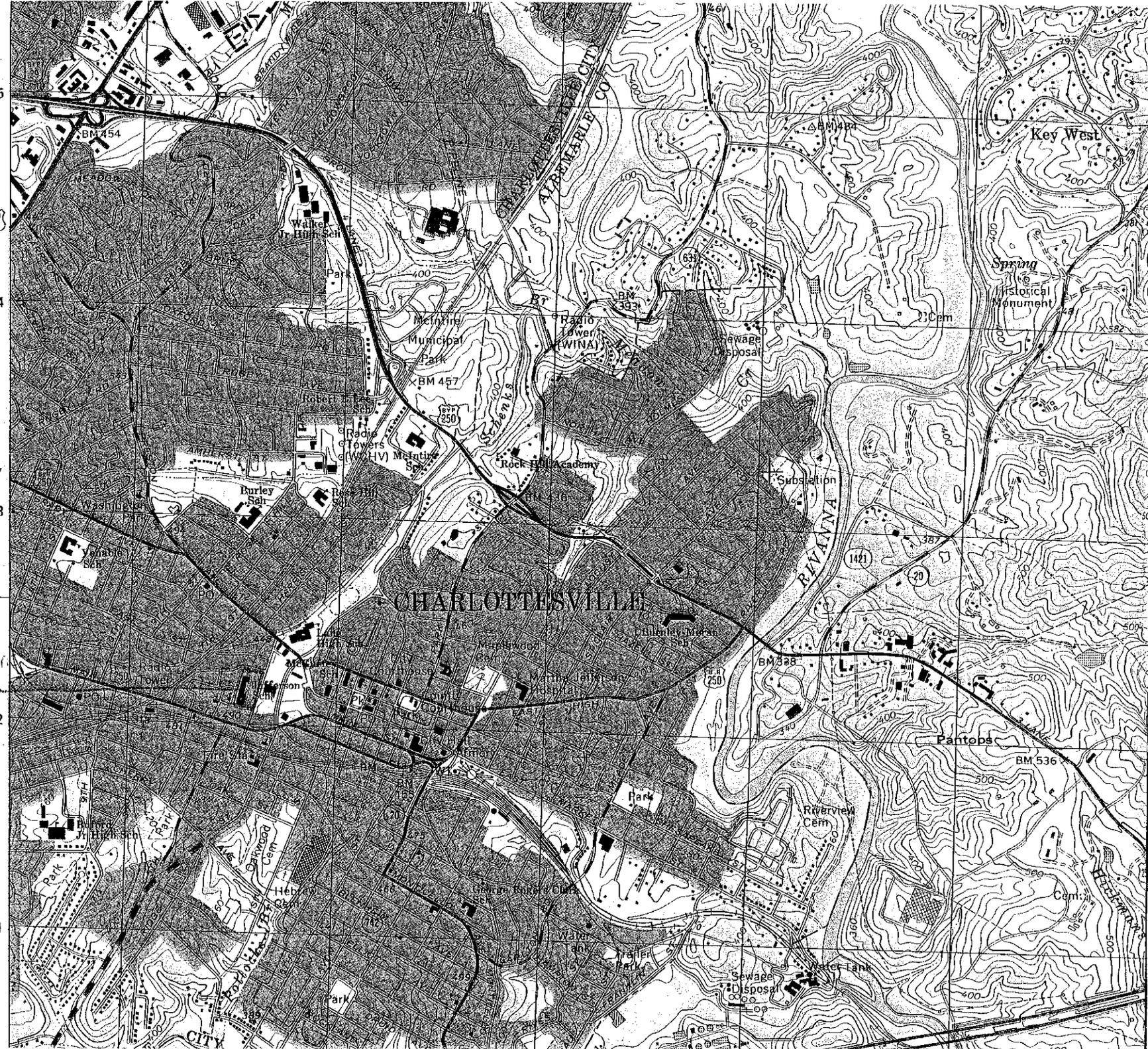
SUBJECT: Interior of gymnasium in Carver Recreation Center

VIEW: Northeast

NEG. NO.: 22325 (7)

PHOTO 20 of 20

415
414
2'30"
413
412
411



Jefferson School
and Career Recreation
Center
(MNR 1041 5087)
UTM Reference:
17T20551E 4812377N