The Evolution of Raleigh's African-American Neighborhoods in the 19th and 20th Centuries

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The black neighborhoods of Raleigh, North Carolina reveal in their geography and architecture the history of the African-American community in this Southern city. The locations of black neighborhoods, replete with identifiable building types and institutions, at once embody local and personal choices, tastes, and constraints, as well as much broader cultural and regional characteristics. The formation and development of African-American Raleigh is set against a backdrop, marked by slavery and Jim Crow, generations of sedulously defended legal and customary racial segregation, and an unprecedented "farm-to-factory" migration.

This study aims to define and interpret the evolution of Raleigh's black districts from antebellum times to the post-World War II period. The examination represents the first phase of a three-part project, funded by the City of Raleigh and the North Carolina Division of Archives and History, to identify the City's inact, historically and architecturally significant African-American neighborhoods. The other components of the project include a comprehensive architectural survey and a public education phase. 1

Antebellum Raleigh: Slaves and Free Blacks

In North Carolina as in the entire South, slaves and free blacks lived and labored in cities long before the great northern migration in the 20th century. In 1860, blacks comprised 20% to 40% of the population of the typical Southern city. Usually, they worked in the most menial and low paying of jobs--"negro jobs" they came to be called which included unskilled mill and

railroad laborers; domestic servants; and road gang workers. However, it was indeed possible, through diligence, apprentice—ships, and some luck, for slaves to earn enough money to buy their freedom, and for free blacks to gain economic security and, occasionally, even middle-class status, as working barbers, draymen, carpenters, brick masons, stone cutters, and harness makers. In Raleigh, Lunsford Lane, who would later write a book about his life as a slave, purchased his freedom as well as his own house and town lot while working as a tobacco merchant and janitor. Yet, Lane's growing wealth and status also made him enemies, and he was effectively run out of Raleigh in 1841, before being able to buy the freedom of his family and friends. 5

Neither slave nor completely free, free blacks held a peculiar status in the antebellum South. They were "a caste within a caste," in the words of John Hope Franklin. During the early decades of the 19th century, as the fear of slave insurrections mounted among whites, Southern legislatures enacted laws that intruded upon virtually all aspects of free black life. In the 1820s, and especially following the Nat Turner uprising in 1831, the State of North Carolina passed legislation that, among other prohibitions, stripped free blacks of the right to vote, to preach, to carry firearms, to marry whites or slaves, or even to transact business with slaves. Moreover, a strong public sentiment arose opposing the formal education of free blacks. 6

In the midst of this white distrust and discrimination, black residential areas developed in and around Raleigh. Founded in 1792 as the nation's first planned state capital, Raleigh

contained a grid pattern of streets with a large Capitol Square near the center. While prominent white families purchased spacious lots and erected homes commensurate to their wealth and status near the heart of the young city, slaves, and free black people, too, lived throughout Raleigh. A census conducted in 1807 recorded 33 free blacks, 270 slaves, and 423 whites living in the city's three wards. The most populous East Ward contained the vast majority of free blacks (28), as well as 111 slaves and Three free blacks, 107 slaves, and 140 whites occu-197 whites. pied the Middle Ward, while the Western Ward held 2 free blacks, 52 slaves, and 86 whites. To be sure, such ward data fail to show the distribution of the two races within each ward; and one can only speculate about the existence of black districts outside the city's bounds. However, the census suggests a residential pattern that would become more and more distinct over time; and one which was common to cities across the antebellum South. While blacks were interspersed among whites across the city, free blacks, in particular, also tended to live near one another (note the 28 living in the East Ward in 1807), reflecting segregation along racial as well as economic lines.

This spatial arrangement would become more fully developed as Raleigh's population grew. By 1860, 4,780 people lived in the city, including 466 free blacks and 1,621 slaves (44% of the total population). These figures reflected the city's slow but steady commercial expansion, given impetus by the completion of the Raleigh and Gaston Railroad in 1840, the construction of a second rail line (the North Carolina Railroad) in 1854, and the

rebuilding of the state capitol between 1833 and 1840. Small foundries, railroad repair shops, and other assorted industries and warehouses appeared around the tracks skirting the fringe of the city, and the fledgling central business area assumed a more sophisticated air. Raleigh's antebellum expansion was capped by the annexation of 1857, which extended the original grid of streets by one quarter mile in each direction. The capital city was now a neat square mile in size.

Enslaved blacks, according to contemporary accounts of both blacks and whites, lived throughout this landscape. On the eve of the Civil War, 152 white Raleigh families owned slaves, who resided in the main house--in separate wings, basements, and upper stories -- as well as in detached dwellings at the back of the lot. 11 For example, Charles N. Hunter, a former slave of Raleigh's William Dallas Haywood, wrote of living with fellow slaves on the Haywood family lot. 12 Bertha Lane, as a slave and domestic worker for North Carolina Governor Charles Manly, occupied a two-story, three-room, frame house on his South Street property. 13 Reflecting upon his childhood in antebellum Raleigh, John H. Winder (who was white) described slave quarters behind the J. H. Bryan home on Blount Street. And, in his 1937 memoir, Judge Robert Watson Winston wrote in a patronizing way of ex-slaves who were so content with their pre-war accommodations in the masters' residences, that they "never left the premises and scarcely knew that they had been set free."14

No clear evidence exists that slaves in Raleigh ever lived beyond the slave owner's house lot. Indeed, historian Richard

C. Wade asserts that slaveholders, desiring to exercise maximum control, kept their slaves living close at hand. 15 However, in numerous Southern cities, such as Richmond, Virginia, Charleston, South Carolina, and Lexington, Kentucky, slaves occupied dwellings and factory barracks located away from the master's eye and close to workplaces and free blacks. 16 Thus, in Raleigh, where slaves were regularly hired out as railroad laborers and servants, and where slaves from surrounding plantations contributed to the erection of the capitol, it is quite conceivable that a number of them "lived out," sharing areas of the city with families of free blacks, as well as white laborers. 17

By the Civil War, Raleigh's burgeoning free black population underlined the residential pattern that had been only faintly drawn by the 1807 census (Figure 1). Households of free blacks were both scattered from one end of the city to the other, as well as clustered together. Small groups of black families occupied the cheaper tracts of land beyond the city limits, the less desirable bottomland closer to downtown, and especially the narrow streets that bordered the railroad-related industries. Working-class white families frequently lived nearby.

This historical pattern reveals itself through an examination of the 1855 Raleigh tax list and the 1860 federal census. ¹⁸ Although only a small fraction of free blacks possessed taxable real estate, the town plats that belonged to free blacks were often located among lots owned by white residents. ¹⁹ Several blacks even owned parcels right in the heart of Raleigh. ²⁰ Barber Alfred Mitchell, for example, possessed \$800

in real estate and a home near the corner of Cabarrus and Person streets (several blocks south of the capitol), while John Malone, a free black brick mason, resided behind the white graded school north of the capitol, and owned part of a lot in the center of the commercial district.

An analysis of the 1860 census reveals an urban landscape that was at once racially mixed and economically and racially segregated. Although the census does not indicate addresses of households, it is assumed that census takers followed a reasonably methodical house-by-house route through the city. Thus, if the addresses of selected residents can be determined (using tax lists and other historical data), then it is possible to approximate the locations of other households that were listed nearby. 21 The census, therefore, records free blacks, as servants and laborers, boarding with 55 white households. And, though segregated areas of white middle- and upper-class families existed (the first 90 households in the census are all white), integrated blocks of skilled workers and laborers were commonplace. example, in southeast Raleigh, near Lenoir and Person streets, the census taker recorded free black painter William Jones, bricklayer Sidney Dunston, and grocer Ben Mansley, maintaining households beside a pair of white families headed by a blacksmith and conductor. 22

Free blacks also lived in small enclaves, especially in the southern periphery, where the railroad tracks crossed Fayetteville Street, and in northwest Raleigh, in low-lying terrain near the railroad repair shops. 23 Here families headed by

car builders, train hands, laborers, and domestics made their homes. Most likely it was in reference to some of these racially segregated areas--"the suburbs" they were sometimes called before the 1857 annexation--that the city commissioners decried the moral climate of outlying black districts. Reflecting trepidation and a profound disdain for the race, the commissioners inveighed against those "indolent and worthless [free blacks] living not by labor but by depredation. . and by midnight robberies." After the Civil War, in an article for the Atlantic Monthly concerning Raleigh's antebellum settlements of free blacks, O. W. Blackwell described clusters of "frail little huts" occupied by "barbers, fiddlers, and jacks-of-all-trades." 25

No doubt, these were places marked by poverty, and where the path to salvation was most commonly found through religion, not economic advancement. But here the seeds of the postwar black community were planted. From these areas would come the black leaders and middle class of the late 19th century, and along these streets would appear churches, schools, and substantial homes. Even before the war the free black neighborhood northwest of the capitol (near Edenton and Harrington streets) boasted Raleigh's first African Methodist Episcopal Church (St. Paul), which was organized in 1849. The "plain, white, wooden building," as described by a Chicago and Boston news correspondent, held 300 people on the main floor, and contained a gallery that held 100 more. The st. Paul A.M.E. Church was among the first and most significant symbols of black community and cohesiveness prior to the war, and anticipated the major role that churches

would play in the intense neighborhood building that would soon take place.

Postbellum Raleigh: The Growth of Black Neighborhoods

After the Civil War, Raleigh, like many other Southern cities, witnessed a sharp rise in its black population. From the surrounding countryside freedmen poured into the city, fleeing white hostility and seeking jobs and refugee assistance from the Freedman's Bureau and U. S. Army. Between 1860 and 1870, the number of Raleigh's blacks rose from 2,087 to 4,094, or 53% of the total population. And even this figure may have been conservative, for the federal census in the 19th century regularly undercounted blacks living in cities. By the 1890s, the influx of black people had totaled over 6,000 (50% of the population), contributing to mature and solidly segregated neighborhoods that nearly encircled the city.

The hostile reaction of many influential whites to the rapid flow of blacks into Raleigh reflected the social, economic, and, ultimately, political pressures blacks faced as their numbers mounted. One scholar has described this postwar white attitude as "racial claustrophobia," a feeling that Raleigh was virtually under siege by displaced black rural refugees. Raleighites wrote bitterly of the city being "offense with the dirty negroes," who were lured by "delusions" of "easy employment and high wages." In the fall of 1867, the editor of the Raleigh Weekly Progress railed against "the great mass of unbleached

Americans in the western and contiguous counties. . . overcrowding our beautiful city with a population capable of at times being made a dangerous instrument in the hands of vicious men."

Regardless of how disruptive and potentially malevolent that whites may have perceived the new urban freedmen to be, black urban migration created unprecedented opportunities for educational and economic improvement, for cultural expression and politi-The array of black cal influence, and for self-identity. schools, churches, other institutions, and businesses that arose in the postwar decades both depended on the black community for their survival and strength, and, in turn, fostered racial solidarity and segregation. The distribution of black civic and religious institutions are thus solid clues to racial housing (Figure 2). By the mid-1880s, nine black churches stood in black neighborhoods. A decade later, southern Raleigh, below Davie Street (the predominately black Second and Fourth Wards between 1875 and 1895), contained the city's two black graded schools, six black churches, one of the city's two black colleges, the Colored Masonic Hall, and the Institute for the Colored Deaf, Dumb, and Blind. 33 The black areas developed most dramatically in the postwar era were, for a variety of reasons, those surrounding Raleigh's core. Set apart from the potentially hostile white environment, these areas could also expand more easily than enclaves closer to downtown. Here, too, large property owners subdivided their estates to meet the soaring demand for housing among blacks. Perhaps most importantly,

outlying black neighborhoods promised lower property costs and the opportunity to purchase homes.

One of the major residential trends in the postwar period was the emergence of freedmen's villages around Raleigh's border. As blacks migrated into the city in the late 1860s and 1870s, they created at least 13 such settlements. It was in reference to these unprecedented all-black districts that the Raleigh Directory for 1880 carefully noted:

There is a growing taste for houses in the suburbs. Quite a town, composed almost entirely of colored people, has grown up a mile northwest of the city. The length is more than a mile and it has some 750 inhabitants. It has been given the name Oberlin. There is another suburb, called Brooklyn, in the same direction, with about 100 residents. The houses. . . are almost entirely of wood, but little stone or brick being used in the construction of dwellings. An ample space is given each dwelling, and this causes the city to cover much ground. . .36

Oberlin and Brooklyn, as well as Method and Lincolnville (both west of the city, near Hillsboro Road) were the principal freedmen's villages. Whereas both Brooklyn and Lincolnville would lose their functions as black villages as they were absorbed by expanding white communities and institutions as the century drew to a close, Oberlin and Method grew steadily in size and influence.

Oberlin, which had been sparsely settled before the war, developed soon after farm land in the area went on sale in 1866. Occasionally known as "Save Rent" in tribute to the affordable land prices and the freedman's aspiration to own his house and lot, Oberlin proceeded to grow as a community of black homeowners. 38 The tax list for 1880 shows that residents of Oberlin,

more than in any other section of Raleigh Township, possessed land. Ninety black landowners dwelled in the village in that year, typically having between \$200 and \$500 worth of real estate. By 1891, a decade after Oberlin was incorporated, it boasted stores, Baptist and Methodist churches, and two schools, including Latta University, a short-lived private academy. One-and two-story frame houses lined Oberlin Road and adjacent streets to the west. The 19th-century dwellings that survive today reveal an array of traditional and popular designs. Two-room cottages, many with formal, central halls and decorative center roof gables, dot Oberlin, while several spacious, two-story homes in the Queen Anne style illustrate the growing middle-class stature of Oberlin's residents. All of these house types and designs could have been readily seen in Raleigh's white neighborhoods of the day.

Located several miles southwest of Oberlin, and below Hillsboro Road, Method started growing in the early 1870s, when General William R. Cox sold tracts of his rural property to blacks. In her memoir of a childhood in Method, Bertha Maye Edwards recalled residents engaged in occupations typical of Raleigh's freedmen. They worked in an "assortment of odd-jobs," as workers in the railyards, small farmers, and washerwomen. However, the achievements of several people stood out, including C. H. Wood, who owned a two-story house and store in 1879, and especially Berry O'Kelly. Through the efforts of O'Kelly, Method acquired the first rural high school for blacks in the state, a post office, and a railroad spur line. Three churches

eventually arose in the village, as well as social halls and a group of stores. 42

The rapid growth of these outlying settlements was paralleled by the emergence of black neighborhoods skirting Raleigh's borders. East Raleigh (beyond East Street), which had been a fashionable white residential area before the Civil War, in the Reconstruction period became a focus for black settlement. By the end of the war, freedmen were already settling around the state fairgrounds (relocated west across town in 1873), which was the site of a U.S. Army and Freedman's Bureau hospital. Within a decade, other African-American neighborhoods, known as St. Petersburg and Hungry Neck, were developed just east of the fairgrounds. To the south, around Smith and Haywood streets, land was also platted and houses constructed for black residents. 44

North of the fairgrounds, in 1867, the Freeman's Bureau and Protestant Episcopal church helped fund and establish St. Augustine's College for the purpose of educating black teachers. By 1896, this Episcopal college contained St. Agnes Hospital for blacks, the first such health care facility in the South. As St. Augustine's grew, so too did the black community around it. Between 1869 and the turn of the century, the Idelwild Plantation of John W. Cotton, situated south of the college, was subdivided into "Cotton Place" (south of New Bern Avenue) and "Idelwild" (to the north). Many of the black residents in this area worked as washerwomen, yardmen, and domestics for white families living in the fashionable Oakwood neighborhood immediately to the west.

But they also reaped benefits from their proximity to the college. St. Augustine's was an integral part of the black community, providing health care, a Sunday school and kindergarten, a clothing store and missionary guild, and a women's group that counseled on child care, nutrition, and related matters. 46

A black-owned real estate firm, the Raleigh Cooperative Land and Building Association, was the principal developer of this area, as well as St. Petersburg (a division of the Governor Charles Manley estate), Hungry Neck, and Oberlin. The company devoted much of its efforts to selling lots to freedmen, and this objective was apparently quite successful. By 1872, the year that Raleigh's bird's-eye view map was drawn, East Raleigh was bristling with one-story frame houses.

The 1872 bird's-eye view, the plat map of Raleigh drawn by A. W. Shaffer in 1881, and an array of city directories beginning in the 1870s, all combine to provide a revealing portrait of East Raleigh in the postwar decades. 48 Cotton Place, which contained a scattering of 15 two-room, frame dwellings in 1882, had twice that number in 1881. The Smith-Haywood section had over 50 houses by the early 1880s, a figure matched by the Old Fairgrounds, which also featured the Garfield grade school for blacks and a Baptist church. St. Petersburg had several dozen houses, while Hungry Neck included a small mode of one-room cottages abutting stylish, white-owned residences to the west. Cox Memorial Church, with membership of 25 in 1887, also stood in Hungry Neck. These neighborhoods represented a melange of social groups and contained white residents as well as black. Whites, includ-

ing merchants and skill craftsmen, built homes along portions of Martin, Haywood, Swain, and Hargett streets. Blacks, meanwhile, included not only laborers and domestics, but also a host of skilled workers, such as stonemason Allen Lane (Smith-Haywood), shoemaker J. M. Jones (Hungry Neck), and blacksmith Henry Hatfield (St. Petersburg). The intermixing of races was clearly evident along Martin Street east of East Street, where, for example, Hatfield the blacksmith occupied a fashionable two-room, central-hall house beside white brickmason William Hunnicut, who resided in an identical house. In dwellings across the street lived a black huckster and a white machinist. East of this area, the Old Fairgrounds district housed mostly black and white laborers, many of them single males renting from white landlords. 49

Like East Raleigh, the broad south end of the city below South Street attracted hundreds of freedmen. Here, too, the expanding housing market enticed the heirs of large antebellum estates to break up their lands for house lots. In southeast Raleigh, the heirs of the John W. B. Watson farm divided the land into hundreds of narrow lots for rental housing. Referred to this day by local residents as "Watson's Field," this subdivision was among the city's major black districts at the turn of the century. Underlining this assertion, in 1897 the Crosby Colored Graded School was established in this area, occupying the former Watson residence. 50

In southwest Raleigh, west of the North Carolina Railroad tracks, the Robert Cannon estate was also subdivided into small parcels. These were then sold primarily to white speculators who

erected housing for blacks. The 50 or so one-story wooden houses that appeared in the area by the early 1870s typified black housing across the city in this period. 51

Directly southeast of the Cannon tract, along the west side of the North Carolina Railroad tracks, the freedmen neighborhood of Hayti also materialized quickly following the Civil War. The name appears in the 1870 Raleigh tax list, which records both blacks and whites owning property here. Hayti may have been one of Raleigh's rougher neighborhoods, for the white press was quick to brand it as crime-ridden. But this area also included 36 married couples headed by an assortment of craftsmen and small merchants, and by 1900 contained the Washington Graded School (for blacks) and four churches. 52

The 1896 Sanborn Map of Raleigh depicted the houses in this newly built southwest tract. 53 They included the traditional one- and two-room, gable-roofed cottages shown in the 1872 bird's-eye view lining the narrow streets of south and southeast However, the inherently greater detail of the Sanborn Raleigh. Map disclosed other vernacular house types as well. The houses here at the turn of the century epitomized those built for working-class blacks in cities across the South. They included tworoom duplexes, or "saddlebag" houses. The saddlebag house, as defined by students of vernacular architecture, has a central chimney and two front entries, each leading into a separate room. Many of the examples of this form in the district had rear shed extensions used for sleeping rooms and kitchens. 54 in southwest Raleigh, set in small, tightly arranged rows, were "shotgun" houses. The shotgun house is a long, narrow, gable-end form, typically one room wide and three rooms deep (15 by 30 feet) with a front porch. 55 Ideally suited for tight fitting, urban lots, shotgun dwellings rapidly appeared along Manly Street and Hayti Alley.

With the burgeoning of Hayti, the Cannon lands, and adjoining tracts, southwest Raleigh—the city's Fourth Ward—emerged as a dominant black district. In 1896, 66% of its 3,200 residents were black, signifying the greatest percentage of blacks among any of Raleigh's four wards. Politically, the southwest sector was a local force for a quarter of a century. Between 1875 (when there were five gerrymandered wards) and 1900, the Fourth Ward consistently elected black aldermen. No other ward could claim such black political influence. ⁵⁶

Whereas southwest Raleigh comprised the greatest percentage of blacks, southeast Raleigh (the Third Ward by 1896) actually had the highest black population, 2,238. Furthermore, the area bounded roughly by Fayetteville, Bloodworth, and Smithfield streets, developed as a cultural and intellectual hub of the It was here in 1870 that the Raleigh Institute, a black city. college and preparatory school founded by yankee Baptist missionary Henry M. Tupper, took possession of the Daniel M. Barringer estate. By 1875, Shaw University, as the school was then named, was a magnet for intensive residential growth. Shaw's development and influence was characteristic of black colleges through-It was founded through northern philanthroout the South. py--"northern friends' money"--constructed in part by the hands of its students (who also sold the brick they made), and acquired adjacent property for the express purpose of housing blacks. ⁵⁷ Josephus Daniel, who was the editor of the <u>News and Observer</u> in Raleigh and, in fact, lived across the street from Shaw, once described the institution as commanding "the heart of the negro district." ⁵⁸

The impact of Shaw University in south Raleigh was enor-By the 1890s, the 10-acre campus held six structures, including a stylish Victorian seminary and dormitory (Estey Hall), a spacious classroom building, and a Baptist chapel. Leonard Medical College, operated by Shaw, stood across the The nation's first medical school for street to the west. blacks, Leonard also offered limited hospital care to the community. 59 Across the street to the east, one- and two-story frame houses were occupied by both whites and blacks. However, by the 1890s, these dwellings were beginning to evolve into a "faculty row" for black teachers at Shaw. 60 Facing the campus to the north, across South Street, stood the house of successful black entrepreneur Charles Hoover. Two prominent whites, Josephus Daniels and the widow of W. H. Bagley, the former clerk of the North Carolina Supreme Court, occupied homes on this block as The Daniels residence, a two-story, Greek Revival design well. erected before the Civil War, had been the homeplace of the Bagley family. By the 1880s it was one of the rare antebellum houses in south Raleigh occupied by a member of the white elite. By the early 20th century, this house, too, would be owned by an influential black resident, the Dean of Shaw's Theological School, A. W. Pegue. 61

In addition to the expanding neighborhoods around and beyond Raleigh's borders, the black presence also remained strong near the city's core. The nascent black district that had existed north and west of the capitol before the war grew and matured in the 1870s and 1880s. This area was known by blacks and whites alike as "Smoky Hollow." The appellation referred to the train smoke (emanating from the Raleigh and Gaston Railroad roundhouse) that hung over the bottomland here. 62 Smoky Hollow was at the heart of Raleigh's small industrial district, where railroad machine shops, two planning mills, a phosphate company, and a foundry provided jobs for both black and white workers. However, it was also a neighborhood in the fullest sense, in which families prayed and played, made a living, and raised children. 1872 bird's-eye view illustrates three "black" churches here, the First Baptist, St. Augustine's Episcopal, and St. Paul A.M.E. Each of these churches helped support a graded school for black children, the largest being the publicly assisted Johnson School located beside St. Paul A.M.E. Church. 63

As with other black areas around downtown, Smoky Hollow's expansion was checked by surrounding white neighborhoods. A middle-class white subdivision began forming to the west in the 1880s, and by the turn of the century mill housing for whites employed at two new cotton mills dotted streets to the north. Raleigh's white establishment also appeared to take deliberate steps to hinder Smoky Hollow's population growth. Although vot-

ers in northwest Raleigh (constituting the Fifth Ward between 1875 and 1895, and the First Ward between 1895 and 1913) consistently elected white aldermen, the conservative Democratic Party perceived the district as a potential black (i.e. Republican) stronghold. It included a solid bloc of black voters and was a major area of black employment. Moreover, in 1875, Democrats accused blacks of flooding the ward in an unsuccessful attempt to swing the city election to the Republicans. Consequently, the conservative press wrote in praise of white landlords and property owners restricting black occupancy in the Fifth Ward; and in 1884 the city's school committee shut down the Johnson School. The latter act, though not explicitly done to erode the Smoky Hollow neighborhood, has been suspected by historians of being so. 64

Elsewhere near the city's center, blacks continued to live in smaller working-class neighborhoods, in the homes of their white employers, or in dwellings "on the lot." Raleigh's late 19th-century city directories and Sanborn maps document such residential patterns. That many blacks lived where they worked, of course, reflected the fact that low-paying jobs in the direct service of white families were blacks' main source of employment. 66

The 1891 city directory recorded 205 black workers living in the homes of white families. The great majority were classified as "cooks" (91), and others listed themselves as servants (60), nurses (23), drivers, gardeners, and housekeepers. These people could claim some of the most prestigious addresses in the

capital city: they lived in the residences of doctors and lawyers on Halifax Street; of merchants and planters around Burke Square in Northeast Raleigh; and of businessmen and industrialists in Oakwood and near Peace Institute north of the capital.

Many other blacks lived in crude apartment housing and what the Sanborn maps labelled "negro shanties." On Morgan Street, only one block off the capitol square, was a two-story, wooden tenement called "Buttermilk Castle." Attached to the Wynne Livery Company, it housed black renters, some of whom worked in the The origin of the name Buttermilk Castle is unknown. But it carries an unmistakable irony when applied to such a utilitarian structure adjoining to a stable. Other buildings identified on the Sanborn maps as "negro tenements" were scattered around the edges of the central business area, usually close to small factories and workshops. By the 1880s, an assortment of tenements, "negro cabins," and "shanties" packed the area where West Cabarrus Street crosses South Dawson Street. were small, porchless shelters--the kinds of "cheerless boxes" that W. E. B. Dubois would come to describe in the black districts of Atlanta. 69 Concurrently, in the midst of downtown businesses and along surrounding residential avenues, two-room "servant's quarters" and one-room "shanties" occupied the backs Sometimes these dwellings lined small alleyways, but more often they stood alone, usually accompanied by a woodshed. 70

The black presence in downtown Raleigh was commercial, as well as residential. Although few blacks operated businesses in

the postwar city, they actually dominated selected ones. All but two of the 22 barbers in 1891 were black, and blacks enjoyed a long-time monopoly in running "eating houses" and huckster stalls. Their businesses also included boarding houses, meat and fish markets, and a variety of skilled trades, such as shoemaking, blacksmithing, and upholstering. These businesses served a clientele that was both black and white, and consequently were located throughout the business district. In 1886, for example, as the number of downtown black enterprises peaked before the turn of the century, 19 were situated along Wilmington Street, nine on Hargett Street, and 20 others were dispersed along other streets that crisscrossed the commercial cove. 71

As the 19th century drew to a close, Raleigh's black community reflected both antebellum and new, postwar characteristics. On the one hand, numerous blacks continued to live throughout the city, often on the property of former masters. As before the war, many continued to hold traditional "negro jobs" as manual laborers and servants. In 1896, barely 2% of working blacks were professionals. Most blacks remained illiterate and victims of proportionately high death and crime rates. Furthermore, as the conservative Democrats came to dominate municipal government after 1898, and white supremacy reigned in statewide politics, blacks once again faced disfranchisement (which effectively began in 1901) and de jure segregation. On the other hand, the postwar decades saw the development of substantial black neighborhoods, nourished by schools and churches. Moreover, though the architectural character of these districts was still

being defined, the appearance of traditional saddlebag dwellings and especially shotgun houses would anticipate the proliferation of these two domestic forms in the early 20th century.

Early 20th-Century Raleigh: The Maturing of the Black Community

During the early years of the 20th century, the black community created a major new urban district devoted to commerce. It was Raleigh's version of the "Negro Main Street," that place where black-oriented businesses were concentrated, and which emerged as a racially distinctive but integral part of American urban economic life in the first part of this century. To In Raleigh, the commercial focus of the black community rapidly became East Hargett Street, west of Moore Square (Figure 3). Between 1900 and the mid-1920s, the number of black-operated businesses on this street soared from nine to 50 (more than twice the number of white establishments there). Only two businesses run by blacks remained on other downtown streets.

Black businessmen were "pushed" as well as "pulled" onto East Hargett Street. They were pushed by segregationist Jim Crow attitudes that asserted themselves through laws and social expectations into all facets of Southern life by the early 20th century. Although Jim Crow laws did not legally restrict blacks from operating businesses elsewhere in the commercial district, white property owners stopped leasing space to black entrepreneurs, and a growing number of whites ceased patronizing black establishments. Instead, whites

began seeking out white-operated enterprises, many of which forhad mally virtually monopolized by blacks. Black barbershops, for example, closed along Fayetteville and Wilmington streets as they lost their trade to white competitors. Between 1900 and 1915, the proportion of Raleigh's black barbershops fell from 82% to 67%, and by 1925, only half of the barbershops were run by blacks. 78 While blacks were being forced away from many downtown locations, they were also "pulled" to East Hargett Street for many reasons. First, historically blacks had run businesses and institutions on this street. The Colored Odd Fellows Hall, for example, had been located there since 1881. Second, though East Hargett was not one of the city's premier thoroughfares, (always the first choice among leading white merchants and businessmen) it was readily accessible to these streets, and was itself a main artery through the city. Third, black enterprises in the Moore Square area of East Hargett Street provided a commercial link between black neighborhoods directly to the east and south, and to major white-owned establishments to the west. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, as influential black entrepreneurs and professionals began occupying spaces on the street, others followed suit.

In 1911, black businessman C. E. Lightner opened a funeral parlor and real estate office at 125 East Hargett Street. Soon other black entrepreneurs, such as saloon operator and restaurateur Charles Hoover, opened businesses nearby. Within little more than a decade, the 100 block of East Hargett Street was

bursting with commerce and entertainment, symbolized by Lightner's new, three-story brick "Arcade," which commanded the middle of the block. Lightner himself would later sum up the commercial importance and cultural vitality of the area this way: "Every Negro who wanted to go into business in Raleigh wanted to on East Hargett Street because we had built it up," he stated. ". . . everybody who came to Raleigh felt he hadn't been to the city until he had been to East Hargett Street."

Raleigh's black commercial district was supported by a growing African-American population. By 1920 there were over 8,500 blacks in Raleigh, which had grown to more than 24,000. total population had risen from 13,643 at the turn of the century, and reflected the city's emergence as a regional trade center with an expanding industrial base. Raleigh was the hub of four railways, and had six cotton mills, a trio of iron foundries, four bottling plants, and 30 other factories. 80 The population increase also resulted from the annexation of new, segregated black and white subdivisions. 81 The predominately black south end of the city was expanding at an unprecedented rate. Southeast Raleigh, and especially Watson Field, was thick with shotgun houses by the early 1900s. 82 To the west, the Raleigh Real Estate and Trust Company (a white firm) platted South Park, a "resident suburb" bounded by Bledsoe, Hoke, East, and Wilmington In 1907, the company published advertisements urging streets. speculators and potential homeowners to "Buy a lot in South Park," which people enthusiastically did. In that year 122 house lots were sold in the 15-block subdivision. By 1910 its streets were lined with shotgun cottages and two-room dwellings with center gables, many of them built for black workers at the nearby American Veneer and Box Company. 83

North of Watson's Field, beyond Tarboro Road, and farther north, around St. Augustine's College, other black "residential suburbs" began in the 1910s. Known as Battery Heights and College Park, respectively, both of these outlying areas developed slowly until the 1920s. By then, the extension of streetcar service, and to some degree the increased use of automobiles, attracted black homebuyers to these subdivisions. 84

Expanded streetcar lines and the greater use of motorcars also contributed to the establishment of fashionable white suburbs on Raleigh's west side. Glenwood (1906), Boylan Heights (1909), and Cameron Park (1910) all developed under the legal guidelines of restrictive deed covenants. The covenants explicitly prohibited the occupance of land "by Negroes or persons of mixed blood" (excepting servants). Thus, for the first time in post-Civil War Raleigh, black exclusion from housing was codified by law, as well as by custom.

Inside this ring of new subdivisions, established black neighborhoods were filling out and taking on a more substantial appearance. By 1920, the major streets had been paved and water and sewage lines laid through black areas within the city limits. Streetcars rumbled down Blount Street to South Park, and crossed the south and east sides of the city along Martin, Hargett, and Cabarrus streets. 86

The pre-1900 neighborhoods comprised a mix of house types and styles that reflected a variety of social classes living close together. Unlike many other Southern cities with sizeable black communities, Raleigh did not have a specific street or neighborhood where black professionals and leading merchants and builders resided. 87 Rather, in the early 20th century, the African-American middle class occupied residences throughout the black community.88 If patterns existed, they were that the black elite tended to live on streets near the black colleges, public schools, and churches where black professionals taught and preached. However, no exclusive black neighborhood emerged near businesses on East Hargett Street, as the residential streets closest to downtown were the domain of whites (and black servants). Indeed, the leading black businessmen and lawyers, who worked on East Hargett Street, lived throughout south and east Valentine Hamlin, for example, owner of a major drug company, lived at the very south end of Fayetteville Street. C.E. Lightner lived on South East Street. Merchant Britton Pearce resided on East Lenoir Street, and attorney Roger O'Kelly occupied a house on the 400 block of South Blount Street. 89 Black physicians, whose numbers rose from one in 1900 to nine by the middle of the 1920s, resided on seven different streets at the south end of the city, and on two different streets near St. Agnes Hospital. 90

Small clusters of black middle-class homes, however, did occasionally appear in the early decades of the century. South Street across from Shaw University has already been mentioned as

one. Others were along Tarboro Road south of St. Augustine's College; on East Lenoir Street east of Wilmington Street; and on the 400 block of Oberlin Road. Each of these areas by the 1920s included a host of residences owned by black professionals (lawyers, doctors, teachers, and preachers), merchants, porters, butlers, and builders. In the case of East Lenoir Street, blacks in the 1910s took over dwellings previously occupied by members of the white middle class, who were leaving enclaves in South Raleigh for predominately white neighborhoods. 91

Whether once inhabited by whites or built for blacks, the homes of the rising black middle class represented both traditional and stylishly new designs. Neatly epitomizing this variety of domestic architecture were houses built along Tarboro Road between 1900 and 1920. Here, at the west end of College Park, skilled craftsmen and mechanics owned time-tested two-room, central-hall cottages, modestly dressed up with decorative patterned wood shingles in the gables and turned porch posts. A two-story version of this basic house type, labelled by students of vernacular architecture as the "central-hall I-house," appeared before 1910 at the north end of Tarboro Road. 92 The I-house form, decorated in a variety of styles, widely symbolized high social standing in the rural South from the late 18th century until the However, in urban areas, like Raleigh, style conscious elites were regularly choosing more complex, picturesque house forms by late 19th century. The presence of I-houses on Tarboro Road, therefore, represented a conservative choice by socially aspiring black residents. However, not all of the inhabitants on Tarboro Road were that conservative in their architectural predilections. Physician L. E. McCauley at the turn of the century

selected an up-to-date, consciously asymmetrical, Queen Anne residence. And, a decade later, brickmason Jacob Hayes would occupy a prominent two-story house in the fashionably current Colonial Revival style. This boxy dwelling with its deep, airy verandah and bold hip roof would have fit comfortably in any of the new white subdivisions of the period. 93

Like their wealthier neighbors, the black laborers and domestic workers of the early 20th century occupied both traditional and popular forms of houses. Unquestionably, the most significant worker cottage was the shotgun house. Between 1900 and World War I, white and black speculators alike erected hundreds of these narrow, wooden forms. In a four-block area in southeast Raleigh, for example, 75 of the 110 houses were shotguns ("negro tenements" in the 1909 Sanborn Map). 94 Although whites occasionally lived in them, and they were sometimes owner occupied, shotgun houses in Raleigh primarily represented rental housing for the working-class black family. More emphatically than a ream of statistics, a row of these tightly packed gable-end cottages signalled the predominance of laborers and tenants in local black society, and the powerful role of speculators and absentee landlords in the shaping of the working-class landscape.

Two of South Raleigh's major developers and landlords in this period were E. A. Johnson and Milford Gurley. Johnson, a black attorney, probably built over 100 rental units in the south

end, best represented by a row of 14 shotgun cottages on a single block of South Bloodworth Street. Gurley, who was white, owned nearly that many houses, mostly in the (the southwest side). A number of Gurley's properties were "double shotguns," accommodating two families, which his company built during the 1920s. 95 The landscape created by Johnson, Gurley, and others was one that maximized housing density. Lots that were only 25 feet wide were commonplace, and streets were often not much broader than that. With increasing regularity in the 1910s and 1920s, the city directories listed black workers living on cramped "alleys," "lanes," and "rows" that consumed previously open space. 96

In addition to the marked increase in both working and mid-dle-class dwellings, the black community was changing in other ways. Population growth coupled with the Jim Crow mentality resulted in a multiplicity of small businesses appearing throughout black neighborhoods. Grocery stores, which had previously been concentrated around the Wilmington Street marketplace in downtown, started appearing on a host of street corners. By the middle 1920s, of the 50 black-operated markets in the city, only two were downtown, and these were on East Hargett Street. Barbershops, too, became neighborhood enterprises. Whereas at the turn of the century all 14 barbershops run by blacks were along downtown streets, by 1928, nine of the 13 shops were located outside Raleigh's business district. 97

Although the distribution of religious and civic institutions did not change nearly as much as businesses, many of them were rebuilt or remodeled in more sophisticated styles. In 1907, members of the segregated black order of the Masons built a spacious, three-story, brick lodge hall in the Third Ward. About the same time, black churches, most notably St. Paul A.M.E. Church in Smoky Hollow and the First Baptist Church near Capitol Square, ambitiously replaced their simple wooden, gable-end structures with steepled brick edifices in the Gothic Revival style. Moreover, in the 1920s, two large brick grade schools were built in southeast Raleigh, while Washington School was rebuilt using handsome red brick and cream terra cotta, and was reorganized as a black high school. Standing a top a rise of land overlooking Fayetteville Crossing and the Fourth Ward, Washington High School proudly announced the premier role of education in the blacks' strategy for social and economic advancement. 98

Thus by the end of the 1920s, Raleigh's black community contained many tangible signs of its growing maturity and self-identity. They were symbols borne of an entrenched racial segregation that made black neighborhoods, according to one historian, "prisons" as well as "fortresses" for their inhabitants. On the one hand, many residents were confined to the bottom rungs of the occupational ladder, and lived in cramped quarters along narrow alleys that would not be paved until at least the following generation. On the other hand, a myriad of institutions flourished that were devoted exclusively to promoting the social, physical, spiritual, and economic welfare of blacks. As never before, the growing segregation of black-operated businesses, the increased architectural sophistication of churches, schools, and

lodge halls, and the proliferation of distinctive worker housing, sometimes interrupted by pockets of middle-class homes, gave the black community a look and feel that was decidedly Southern, urban, and black.

Black Raleigh in the Middle Decades of the 20th Century

While development in Raleigh continued to expand outward during the 1930s, 1940s, and subsequent decades, the black community largely consolidated itself into densely populated interior neighborhoods. After a major annexation of 3.5 square miles in 1941, Raleigh's total area stood at 10.8 square miles (compared to 1.7 at the turn of the century). 100 Yet much of this area would soon be filled with young, white households headed by returning GIs. Some African-American families did settle Battery Heights, College Park, and other outlying all-black subdivi-But, for the most part, entrenched discrimination confined blacks to their long-held wards and neighborhoods, where the homes of remaining whites were increasingly being turned over to black families (Figure 4). In sharp contrast to the early 20th century, new construction in this period was greatly outweighed by remodelings and additions. Few members of the black middle-class erected new homes in the middle decades, and only one sizeable new church was established. By 1950, Raleigh's population had soared to over 65,000 with blacks comprising about They lived mostly in the south and east sides, where, in 27%. the words of one writer, "some of the Negro houses are overcrowded and substandard, but most are in good repair and stand in neat grounds." 101

No studies exist concerning the northern migration of Raleigh's blacks in this period, though across the South African-Americans were heading north in search of better education and To be sure, the presence of St. higher paying employment. Augustine's College and Shaw University kept some ambitious young blacks at home, and induced others to move to the capital city; but Raleigh continued to afford them only limited and narrow avenues to financial and social advancement. 102 Thus, while certain established black families such as the Lightners, the Winters family, and the Boyers would prosper as funeral home operators, realtors, and educators, respectively, the sons and daughters of numerous others eventually moved to Washington, D.C., Baltimore, and other points north, their names gradually disappearing from the city directories, and their homeplaces converted to apartments or razed for commercial uses. 103

Although the physical appearance of black Raleigh did not change a great deal in these years, one major construction project foreshadowed later urban renewal efforts that would alter the community's character. In 1940, on the site of Watson's Field in southeast Raleigh, the Chavis Heights public housing complex was completed. The city's first multi-family, federally-funded housing project, Chavis Heights was built to house 295 black families in 231 brick dwelling units. Parallel rows of attached two-story structures extended southward from Lenoir Street, which was lined with newly planted oak trees. Chavis

Heights also featured a day nursery for residents, a community building, and an auditorium. $^{104}\,$

Following the completion of Chavis Heights, the patterns and processes of development in the black community significantly changed. By the late 1950s and early 1960s, an escalating national policy to fight poverty and improve substandard housing with federal funds and large-scale federally administered programs led to a number of urban renewal projects in the city. Several major black neighborhoods were completely transformed. First, city officials targeted Smoky Hollow for demolition and reconstruction. One-hundred sixty-five families were removed and 223 buildings demolished. 105 Subsequently, "Southside," a densely populated residential area in the Fourth Ward, was razed and replaced by public housing. Highway construction projects across both the south and north sides, as well as through Oberlin, also razed blocks of frame houses that had been occupied by blacks. projects to improve African-American housing conditions, as well as to speed automobiles along their way through the city, have thus wrought direct and major changes on the geography of black Raleigh. 106

African-American Raleigh: A Conclusion

Typical of other major Southern cities, segregated black residential areas have existed in Raleigh since at leat the early 19th century. Free blacks--and perhaps slaves, too--lived in the city's borders, as well small enclaves around in bottomland (such as Smoky Hollow) closer to the center. also lived interspersed among the white population. They shared streets along the railroad tracks with white families of similar economic status, and resided throughout white Raleigh while working in an assortment of "negro jobs." After the war, as freedmen poured into Raleigh, larger and more clearly defined African-American districts were formed. Again reflecting a pattern found in other cities in the South, these neighborhoods were usually located around the periphery. Here, where land was less expensive than near the heart of Raleigh, landowners subdivided antebellum estates to profit from the soaring demand by blacks for urban housing. To an extent not known before the war, a geography of racial segregation was clearly taking shape. Yet blacks continued to live and work across the city, sharing selected residential blocks with white laborers, craftsmen, and clerks, and, occasionally, even white professionals.

In the early decades of the 20th century, African-American Raleigh matured as well as assumed new patterns of development. The strict enforcement of racial segregation at this time led to the formation of the "Negro Main Street" on East Hargett Street. Furthermore, black-operated businesses, especially barbershops

and eating houses, began appearing across black neighborhoods. Also in this period, the burgeoning black population—including an expanding middle-class—contributed to an era of new construction, which to this day gives the black community a distinctively early 20th—century appearance. New brick schools and churches arose, and black businessmen and professionals announced their social status with up—to—date new homes. Meanwhile, working—class black families were moving into traditional shotgun houses, whose numbers in the south end soared between 1900 and 1910.

As the century progressed and the city grew outward, the black community solidified within established neighborhoods. The numbers of white families in these areas diminished (though white households would persist on the south side until the 1960s). The city's two black colleges, St. Augustine's College and Shaw University, proved powerful magnets, and influenced young, aspiring blacks to stay in Raleigh, or to move here for their schooling and subsequent careers. As the 1940s drew to a close, African-Americans in and around the city had created a cultural landscape that was sharply drawn and largely self-sustaining.

To some degree it remains so; but in Raleigh, as in urban places across the country, a new era of demolition, reconstruction, and growing disinvestment began in the late 1950s and peaked in the mid-1970s. 107 Some of the goals that led to this transformation have been noble ones: to eliminate substandard housing; attack the proportionately high crime rates; and improve the overall quality of life. City planners and an army of civic leaders and new urban reformers are still looking for the best

solutions to these vexing problems. Today, as Raleigh continues to expand and as the central commercial area grows outward into historically black neighborhoods, city leaders, developers, and the community as a whole must confront the importance of preserving and revitalizing portions of these established residential areas.

As noted, this study has represented the initial phase of a larger project that addresses the historical and architectural significance of the city's African-American community. An architectural inventory ensues. That survey will identify individual structures and entire districts that best illustrate the development of black neighborhoods. It will help establish some clear guidelines for the preservation of parts of the city whose cultural value has been too long overlooked by decision makers and many inhabitants alike.

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Taylor, R. H. "The Free Negro in North Carolina," The James Sprunt Historical Publications, 17, Chapel Hill: 1920. Includes census data on free blacks in North Carolina counties in 1860, as well as discussion of occupations of free blacks before Civil War; names several notable Raleigh free blacks, including Lunsford Lane.

Tudor, Phoebe. "The Development of the Shotgun House," New Orleans Preservation in Print, March, 1987. Good historical description of shotgun house types in Louisiana; explores a variety of antecedents.

Vlach, John M. "The Shotgun House: An African Legacy." Pioneer America, 8 (January-July, 1976(), pp. 47-70. One of few existing studies of black architecture; focuses on the origins and evolution of one house type, the shotgun house.

Weisman, Ann E. "Greenwood, Tulsa's Phoenix." American Vision, 10, August, 1987, pp. 35-39. Description of the development of a large black neighborhood in Tulsa, including the riot there in 1921, and the rise of a black professional class.

PUBLISHED DOCUMENTS, RECORDS, REPORTS

<u>Downtown East/Downtown East Side Redevelopment Plan.</u> Raleigh: Housing Authority of the City of Raleigh, October, 1981. A thorough analysis of the economic social, and physical conditions of southeast Raleigh, including list of shotgun houses.

Mattson, Richard. "National Register Nomination for the East Wilson Historic District, Wilson, North Carolina." Raleigh: North Carolina Division of Archives and History, 1987. A comprehensive inventory combined with historical and architectural descriptions of a 70-block black neighborhood in Wilson, North Carolina; a valuable base of reference for architectural studies of black urban areas in North Carolina.

North Carolina General Assembly. City Commissioners November 8, 1882 Session Records. A letter to the General Assembly outlining laws related to slaves and free blacks in North Carolina as a result of Southern slave insurrections 1830-31.

Raleigh Neighborhoods. Raleigh: Raleigh Planning Commission, 1974. Features maps, photographs, and social, physical descriptions (with statistics) of black neighborhoods.

United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Eighth Census of the United States, 1860. Slave Schedule. Records slaves of Raleigh residents, but not necessarily those slaves residing in the city.

United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Negro Population, 1790-1915. Washington, D.C.: 1918. Records Raleigh's black population for 1900 and 1910; classified by age and sex.

United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Negroes in the United States, 1920-1935. Washinton, D.C.: 1935. Records Raleigh's black population for 1920 and 1930.

Wake County Register of Deeds. Wake County Courthouse, Raleigh, North Carolina. Includes deed transactions, names of neighborhoods, as well as maps; see, for example, Official Maps, 1885, Vol. 1, No. 10 is map of vineyard tract in southern Raleigh - a 77-lot black neighborhood.

Wake Count Tax Lists. State Archives, Raleigh. Tax lists for antebellum period reveals names and locations of Raleigh's free blacks who paid taxes; for postwar era, tax lists record rise of property owning blacks in Raleigh.

UNPUBLISHED MANUSCRIPTS AND PRIVATE COLLECTIONS

The Charles N. Hunter Papers, Manuscript Department in the Duke University Library. Durham, North Carolina. The papers include 2,946 items, 18 volumes of newspaper clippings, photographs, and other memorabilia concerning such subjects as the attitude of whites toward blacks, black education; Hunter, Raleigh-born, was a black educator between 1875-1928.

North Carolina State Archives. Photographic Collection. Raleigh. Includes a limited number of black scenes, including the Lightner Arcade, ca. 1930, and the interior of the O'Kelly High School ca. 1910(?).

Pathak, Chittaranjan. <u>Growth Patterns of Raleigh, North</u> <u>Carolina</u>. Unpublished PhD. Dissertation, University of North

Carolina, Chapel Hill, 1964. An Analysis of Raleigh's growth since 1930, including solid summaries of post-Civil War black areas, tables showing annexations, impact of urban renewal, and distribution of blacks by tract in 1960.

Richard B. Harrison Library, Raleigh. Includes city's most comprehensive collection of black-related literature, as well as extensive vertical file on black issues and notable Raleigh blacks.

DIRECTORIES

Branson, Levi. <u>Branson's North Carolina Business Directory</u>. Raleigh: Branson and Jones (Succeeded by other names), 1866-1867, and succeeding editions. Records black businesses and residences in Raleigh.

Chataigne's Raleigh City Directory, 1875-76. Washington, D.C.: J. H. Chataigne. Earliest complete city directory of Raleigh, indicates blacks by the asterisk symbol. In N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C.

Hill's Raleigh, N.C. Directory. Richmond, Virginia: Hill's Directory Company, 1905-present. In N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Complete run of directory between 1905 and present; black residents and institutions are included; notably, each volume is organized by street as well as by resident's name.

Maloney's Raleigh, N.C. City Directory. Atlanta Georgia: Maloney Directory Company, 1899, 1900, 1901. In N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. These volumes indicate blacks by symbol (c). The 1899 volume is organized by street address as well as by resident's name.

Raleigh Directory. Raleigh: Edwards, Broughton and Company, 1879, 1880, 1883, 1886, 1887. These volumes are in N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Blacks are indicated by abbreviation (col.). All the directories include black institutions and cemeteries. Blacks are listed separately at the back of the directory for volume 1886.

NEWSPAPERS

<u>Daily Sentinel</u> (Raleigh) 1863, 1865-1876. Periodic, often critical, references to Raleigh's black neighborhoods.

Gazette (Raleigh). 1885, 1891, 1894, 1896-1898. Surviving in scattered issues especially in the Charles N. Hunter MSS at Duke

University, this black newspaper includes valuable advertisements of black businesses, as well as local news items.

News and Observer (Raleigh). 1880, 1885, 1889-91. Edited by Josephus Daniels, this newspaper includes a number of references to black activities and institutions.

Observer (Raleigh). 1877-1880. Includes descriptions of black activities in Raleigh - usually negative.

MAPS

Bird's Eye View of the City of Raleigh, North Carolina, 1872. Drawn by C. Drie. In map collection of N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Depicts building types from the standard oblique angle of panoramic maps; denotes black churches and schools; this is very valuable resource.

City of Raleigh, 1819. In map collection, North Carolina Department of Archives, Raleigh North Carolina. Includes a census of inhabitants for March 23, 1807, which lists for Eastern Ward: 197 whites, 28 free blacks and 111 slaves; Middle Ward: 140 whites, 3 free blacks and 107 slaves; Western Ward: 86 whites, 2 free blacks and 52 slaves. Wards are not specifically defined, however.

Insurance Maps of Raleigh, North Carolina 1884, 1888, 1896, 1903, 1909, 1914, 1949. Sanborn Map Company, New York. Map Collection, University at North Carolina, Chapel Hill. Maps available for the above dates. Dwellings marked "negro shanty" are indicated in the 19th and early 20th century maps.

Insurance Maps of Raleigh, North Carolina, 1942. New York: Sanborn Map Company. In map collection of the N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. This map is update of 1914 Sanborn Map; includes areas north to Woodrow Park, south to Mt. Hope Cemetary, east to Wilson Park, west to Meredeth College.

Insurance Maps of Raleigh, North Carolina, 1952. New York: Sanborn Map Company. In map collection of N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Updated version of 1914 map, including the great westward expansion of Raleigh.

Map of the City of Raleigh, 1847. Surveyed and drawn by J. W. Johnson. In map collection, N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C.; shows structures and property ownership; indicates "brick" and "wood" houses.

<u>Plan of Raleigh, 1792</u> (From Cameron Papers #133 of Southern Historical Collection). Shows numbered blocks of city, but no buildings.

<u>Plan of the City of Raleigh</u>, printed by Walters, Hughes, and Company, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1792. Includes names of the owners of lots, no black are indicated. In map collection of N.C. Department of Archives, Raleigh. N.C.

Plan of the City of Raleigh with all the Improvements and all the Numbers, July 1, 1797. (From the Susie Gentry Papers, Southern Historical Collection, U.N.C., Chapel Hill). Includes names of owners of lots, as well as buildings; may speculate that some of smaller structures near larger houses are slave quarters.

<u>Plan of the City of Raleigh</u>, printed by Thomas Henderson, Raleigh, North Carolia, 1817. Shows names of the owners of lots; no black properties indicated, though several white churches depicted.

<u>Plan of the City of Raleigh, 1834</u>. Printed by Walters, Hughes and Company, Raleigh, North Carolina. In map collection, N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, North Carolina. Depicts names of owners of lots in 1834; no black properties specified.

Plan of Raleigh, N. C., 1882. Drawn by O. W. Gray and Son, Philadelphia. In map collection of N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Illustrates wards, property ownership; when used with city directories, this map effectively shows black ownership of lots; black institutions are noted.

<u>Plan of Raleigh, N. C., 1891</u>. Drawn by T. C. Harris. In map collection, N.C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Includes a list of institutions, and, notably, shows locations of black churches, schools, and asylums.

Shaffer's Map of Raleigh, North Carolina, 1881. Drawn by A. W. Shaffer, C.E. In map collection of N. C. Department of Archives, Raleigh, N.C. Illustrates lot ownership and ward boundaries. Shows black institutions; this map and O. W. Gray's 1882 map together will be useful for deliniating black areas for late 19th century.

UNPUBLISHED THESIS

Larson, Karl. A Separate Reality: The Development of Racial Segregation in Raleigh, 1865-1915. Unpublished Masters Thesis, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, 1983. Excellent survey of the physical and political segregation of races in Raleigh; thorough inspection of city maps, directories, and census records.

INDIVIDUALS

Angelou, Maya. Writer in residence at Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, North Carolina. A black writer sensitive to North Carolina's black communities, and a potential source for contacts with black literary figures, artists, photographers.

McDaniel, George, Atlanta Historical Society, 301 Andrews Drive, NW, Atlanta Ga, 30305. One of leading scholars of Southern black material culture; particularly knowledgeable regarding oral history techniques and community involvement in local history.

Nathans, Sydney. Professor of History, Duke University. 101 E. Duke Building (684-6179). General information on history of blacks in the state and the South; no specific research interests in Raleigh, however.

Wood, Peter. Professor of History, Duke University. 205 E. Duke Building (684-3694). Useful source of information concerning black history in North Carolina and South; no specific interest in Raleigh, however.

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