

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

National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (formerly 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information.

New Submission Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Green Book Sites in West Virginia

B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

- Black Migration to West Virginia, 1870-1945
- The Role of Black Women in West Virginia, 1870-1967
- Post Civil War Segregation/Jim Crow Era in West Virginia, 1868-1967
- 20th Century Automobile Travel in West Virginia, 1920-1967

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D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR 60 and the Secretary of the Interior’s Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation.

Signature of certifying official	Title	Date
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State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Signature of the Keeper	Date of Action
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Green Book Sites in West Virginia
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Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Create a Table of Contents and list the page numbers for each of these sections in the space below.

Provide narrative explanations for each of these sections on continuation sheets. In the header of each section, cite the letter, page number, and name of the multiple property listing. Refer to *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* for additional guidance.

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

F. Associated Property Types

G. Geographical Data

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

I. Major Bibliographical References

Page Numbers

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

(If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)

Black Migration to West Virginia, 1870-1945

E-4 to E-5

The Role of Black Women in West Virginia, 1870-1967

E-4 to E-6

Post-Civil War Segregation/Jim Crow Era in West Virginia, 1868-1967

E-6 to E-

20th Century Automobile Travel in West Virginia, 1920-1967

F. Associated Property Types

(Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)

West Virginia Businesses Listed in the Green Book

F-

Historic Districts

G. Geographical Data

The State of West Virginia

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

(Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.)

I. Major Bibliographical References

(List major written works and primary location of additional documentation: State Historic Preservation Office, other State agency, Federal agency, local government, university, or other, specifying repository.)

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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.460 et seq.). We may not conduct or sponsor and you are not required to respond to a collection of information unless it displays a currently valid OMB control number.

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for each response using this form is estimated to be between the Tier 1 and Tier 4 levels with the estimate of the time for each tier as follows:

- Tier 1: 60-100 hours (generally existing multiple property submissions by paid consultants and by Maine State Historic Preservation staff for in-house, individual nomination preparation)
- Tier 2: 120 hours (generally individual nominations by paid consultants)
- Tier 3: 230 hours (generally new district nominations by paid consultants)
- Tier 4: 280 hours (generally newly proposed MPS cover documents by paid consultants).

The above estimates include time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and preparing and transmitting reports. Send comments regarding these estimates or any other aspect of the requirement(s) to the Service Information Information Collection Clearance Officer, National Park Service, 1201 Oakridge Drive Fort Collins, CO 80525.

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

Green Book Sites in West Virginia

Introduction

West Virginia became a state on June 20, 1863, a product of the Civil War. Geographically, West Virginia is centrally located between the Northern and Southern United States and represents a mixture of both regions.¹ The state's economy was agriculture-based until its economy was transformed by industrialization during the mid-to-late 19th century and early 20th century. Industrialization brought Black people from the southern United States and immigrants from Europe to West Virginia. Social, educational, and political opportunities influenced southern Black people's decision to migrate to West Virginia. The small number of Black politicians and government officials at the municipality, district, county, and state levels worked with white people to ease racial tensions and prevent the passage of Jim Crow laws that would disenfranchise Black people. While Black people and white people worked together in some capacities, segregated schools, social institutions, and businesses persisted into the mid-twentieth century.

During the early-to-mid-twentieth century, race relations were a significant theme found in available literature about the Black experience in West Virginia. Biannual reports prepared by the West Virginia Bureau of Negro Welfare & Statistics, a state organization created in 1921 to improve the social and economic conditions of Black people and encourage a friendly relationship between Black and white people, discussed the educational, social, political, and working conditions of Black people. The organization's director devoted a section in each report to inter-racial relations. Other states established similar state-level Black organizations including Missouri's Negro Industrial Commission and Michigan's Department of Labor Division of Negro Welfare and Statistics.² Historian Joe William Trotter's book *Coal, Class, and Color: Blacks in Southern West Virginia, 1915-32*, published in 1990, examines how industrialization, race, class, and region shaped the lives of Black people in southern West Virginia. Trotter discussed how separate institutions for Black people emerged during a time when segregation and racial discrimination was present in the workplace and in communities.³ One approach of Black leaders in the early Civil Right movement favored working with white people and establishing separate Black institutions. However, by the mid-1950s and 1960s, Black people were advocating for and demanding equality. Integration of institutions first began with the state's schools and colleges after the 1954 Supreme Court decision in *Brown v the Board of Education* and then extended to businesses.

Black men and women responded to segregation by establishing their own social, educational, fraternal, and religious institutions as well as businesses to accommodate Black clientele. These institutions provided services to meet the needs

¹ Trotter, Joe William, *Coal, Class, and Color: Blacks in Southern West Virginia, 1915-32*, page 3.

² Hill, T. Edward, "The Negro in West Virginia: Report of Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics of the State of West Virginia, pages 5-6.

³ For more information see *Coal, Class, and Color: Blacks in Southern West Virginia, 1915-32* by Joe William Trotter, Jr. and Reports by the Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics.

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of the Black community. In the early-to-mid twentieth century, Black people opened businesses including hotels, restaurants, beauty parlors and barber shops, automobile-related services such as service stations and garages, night clubs, dry cleaning, and tailor shops. A small number of Black people worked in professional fields in urban areas. They established Black owned and operated medical practices and hospitals, dentist offices, law offices and newspapers while others pursued careers in public education or nursing.

Black-operated businesses proved valuable as Americans began traveling longer distances for business and pleasure. The rise of the middle class, affordability of automobiles and construction hard surfaced roads allowed Americans the freedom to travel more. However, Black people were limited in where they could stay or eat with segregationist policies extending to restaurants, hotels, and automobile-related services. White-owned businesses that refused to serve to Black people were prevalent in both northern and southern states. In addition, some towns enacted “sundown” laws that made it illegal for a Black person to be within city limits after dark. Without careful planning, Black travelers ran the risk of being stranded in an unfamiliar place without access to lodging, food, fuel, or services, or in worst-case scenarios, harassment, violence, and death. Victor Green, a postal worker from New York, recognized this need and published *The Negro Motorist Green Book*, a travel guide that listed safe places for Black people to frequent, between 1936 and 1966.

Sites listed in *The Negro Motorist Green Book* in West Virginia are related to four historic contexts, summarized below. The contexts are presented in further detail on the following pages.

- **Black Migration to West Virginia, 1870-1945**

Black Migration describes the movement of Black people following the Civil War, primarily from the South to Northern states, including West Virginia. Many of these Black migrants were former enslaved people who were now free to relocate and seek work as they chose. As Black people relocated to towns and cities throughout West Virginia, some established businesses including boarding houses, restaurants, barber shops, and law and medical practices. Both the increase in the Black population of West Virginia, and the presence of Black-owned and Black-friendly businesses resulted in the inclusion of West Virginia sites in the *Green Book*.

- **The Role of Black Women in West Virginia, 1870 to 1967**

The Role of Black Women describes how Black women financially and socially contributed to their households and communities. Single, married, and widowed Black women not only worked as teachers and nurses in Black schools, hospitals, and doctor offices but operated Black businesses such as hotels, tourist homes, and beauty parlors. Black women also played a vital role in religious life and the Civil Rights Movement where they held leadership positions.

- **Post-Civil War Segregation/Jim Crow Era in West Virginia, 1868-1967**

While West Virginia may have lacked the extensive Jim Crow laws that limited and oppressed the Black community in other states, a culture of racism and segregation still existed within the state. Business owners were not required by law to segregate or deny services to Black people, but neither were they prohibited from such. The racism, segregation, and violence that necessitated the publication of a directory of safe places for Black travelers extended across West Virginia’s borders.

- **Transportation: Twentieth-Century Automobile Travel in West Virginia, 1920-1967**

The proliferation of the automobile in the early 20th century allowed unprecedented freedom of movement for hundreds of thousands of Americans, including Black Americans. As roads were improved and extended to more destinations, automobile-related services and businesses including gas stations, repair shops, restaurants, and lodging accommodations were constructed. For Black travelers, automobile ownership was an alternative to segregated public transportation, but traveling by car carried its own set of risks, including difficulties accessing services and amenities: lack of dining and lodging options and the threat of violence if caught in an unfriendly place at the wrong time. *The Negro Motorist Green Book* was an indispensable tool for Black travelers who had to carefully plan every trip.

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Black Migration to West Virginia, 1870-1945

Following the Civil War, West Virginia remained an agriculture-based society with both Black and white people working as farmers or farm laborers. The number of Black people residing in the state was small compared to the total population until the late-1800s and early 1900s. According to the 1870 United States Census, of West Virginia's total population of 442,014, 17,890 (4%) were Black, with the majority of the Black population living in farming communities in Jefferson, Kanawha, Greenbrier, Berkeley, and Hampshire counties.⁴ The remainder of the Black population was scattered throughout the state. By comparison, former slave states had Black populations ranging from 7-60%, with an average of 35%.⁵ Though West Virginia had been a part of Virginia and had enslaved Black people living within its borders prior to the Civil War, the topography of the Appalachian Mountains was not conducive to large plantations that required large numbers of enslaved laborers to function. This explains both the disparity in the 1870 Black population between West Virginia (4%) and Virginia (42%), and West Virginia's ranking as second highest among historically anti-slavery states (after Kansas, 4.7%) in Black population percentage. West Virginia's unique political history as a free state formed during the Civil War as well as its geographical location on the border of North and South continued to shape the state's race relations, economy, and social/cultural norms well into the 20th century.

In the late 19th century, the same Appalachian Mountains that kept West Virginia's Black population low in the plantation era now began to offer new opportunities in the extraction of natural resources, namely coal and timber, and the railroads being built to access them. Beginning in the 1870s, industrialization brought thousands of Black migrants, many of whom who were formerly enslaved people, from surrounding states to West Virginia. These migrants initially found work constructing the Chesapeake & Ohio (C&O) Railroad, the Norfolk & Western (N&W) Railroad, and the Virginian Railway. As the railroads were constructed, railroad towns such as Hinton in Summers County and Huntington in Cabell County developed along the mainline. After completing the rail lines, many decided to stay and work in the developing towns and coal fields.

In the early twentieth century, an increasing number of Black people migrated to West Virginia to work in the emerging coal, timber, and railroad industries. West Virginia was rich in natural resources and the railroads opened new areas to development. The majority of Black people who migrated were between the ages of 20 and 44 and came from agricultural backgrounds, working as sharecroppers or laborers.⁶ Some migrated despite opposition from their family members. A large concentration of Black migrants settled in southern West Virginia and worked in the coal industry. Black people living in West Virginia played a significant role in encouraging their families and friends to migrate.⁷ Coal companies noticed their influence and began hiring them as recruiters.

In addition to working directly in the coal, timber, and railroad industries, Black migrants found work in cities that were developing as commercial and manufacturing centers around the state's industries. T. Edward Hill, Director of West Virginia's Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics, noted in the bureau's 1925 report that Black people were employed in mills, factories, and the trades such as bricklaying, carpentry, plastering, and plumbing.⁸ Black people also found employment opportunities in the service industry working in households and as janitors and cooks. According to the 1930 United States Census, more Black people resided in rural areas compared to urban areas in West Virginia. The population of Black people residing in rural areas was 83,669 in 1930 compared to 31,224 in urban areas.⁹ A small number of Black people worked as businessmen and professionals such as teachers, doctors, dentists, attorneys, and pharmacists. Black

⁴ Posey, Thomas E, *The Negro Citizen of West Virginia*, page 32.

⁵ "Table 1: Population of the United States (by States and Territories)." 1870 United States Census. www2.census.gov/library/publications/decennial/1870/population/1870a-04.pdf

⁶ Trotter, Joe William. *Coal, Class, and Color: Blacks in Southern West Virginia, 1915-32*, page 18.

⁷ Trotter, Joe William, "Race, Class, and Industrial Change: Black Migration to Southern West Virginia, 1915-1932." *The Great Migration in Historical Perspective: New Dimensions of Race, Class, & Gender*, page 54.

⁸ Hill, T. Edward, "The Negro in West Virginia: Report of Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics of the State of West Virginia," page 17.

⁹ U. S. Department of Commerce, "Population: Montana-Wyoming" *Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930*. Volume III. Part 2. Page 1259.

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businessmen established and operated businesses including hospitals, pharmacies, hotels, restaurants, theaters, funeral services, grocery stores, barber shops, and beauty parlors.

Migration Influences

Black people migrated to West Virginia for a number of reasons including employment opportunities and better pay. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, coal companies recruited “native” white people, European immigrants, and Black men to work in the emerging bituminous coal industry. Black men were hired in less desirable positions such as day laborers and coal and coke loaders. Coal miners earned between \$3.20 and \$5 for an 8-hour day compared to 75 cents to \$1 per day working as a farmer.¹⁰ According to the 1930 census, the Black population in West Virginia increased from 32,690 in 1890 to 64,173 in 1910 to 114,893 in 1930 with the majority residing in McDowell County followed by Kanawha, Fayette, Raleigh, Mercer, and Logan counties.¹¹

Other factors that influenced Black migration, particularly from the southern United States, included fewer lynchings, more educational opportunities, and the rights to vote, hold political office, and serve on juries. The number of lynchings in West Virginia was significantly less compared to other southern states with ten lynchings reported between 1890 and 1900 and three more in 1912.¹² According to the Equal Justice Initiative, 37 lynchings were reported in West Virginia between 1877 and 1951.¹³ Circa 1891, Alexander Foote of Princeton in Mercer County was the first Black man lynched in West Virginia.¹⁴ The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) records show 4,743 lynchings occurred in the United States between 1882 and 1968 with 581 recorded in Mississippi, 531 in Georgia, and 493 in Texas; the exact total number of lynchings nationwide is unknown.¹⁵ In 1912, Black people delegate John Coleman of Fayette County introduced and argued for passage of an anti-lynching bill; however, his attempt was unsuccessful. Nine years later in 1921, Harry J. Capehart, an attorney and delegate representing McDowell County in the West Virginia legislature, introduced the Capehart Anti-Lynch Act or House Bill 270 as a proactive measure to prevent lynchings. The Capehart’s Anti-Lynch Act passed and signed into law by Governor Ephraim Morgan.¹⁶

West Virginia also provided more educational opportunities to its Black residents compared to southern states. The state’s second Constitution established a system of free schools with white and Black students educated separately. Following the Civil War, Storer College opened in Harpers Ferry to educate formerly enslaved people.¹⁷ Storer College, the first Black school in West Virginia, also provided training for Black people to become teachers. It later educated all genders and races.¹⁸ As the Black population increased, additional elementary and secondary schools were opened as well as two Black institutions of higher learning: West Virginia Colored Institute (West Virginia State University) and Bluefield Colored Institute (Bluefield State University). In 1919, the West Virginia legislature created a Negro Board of Education and appointed William W. Sanders as Supervisor of Negro Schools. William W. Sanders established the Division of Negro Schools in the State Department of Education five years earlier.¹⁹ Throughout his career, Sanders advocated for equal educational opportunities, better teacher salaries, and better school facilities.

Finally, while segregation and racism were present in West Virginia, the state did not enact “Jim Crow” laws that prevented Black people from voting or serving as jurors. In 1869, the West Virginia legislature voted for ratification of the 15th Amendment to the US Constitution, granting Black men the right to vote.²⁰ In Fayette, McDowell, and Kanawha

¹⁰ Ibid. page 52.

¹¹ Carper, Isaac M, *Biennial Report of Bureau of Negro Welfare & Statistics, West Virginia, 1933-34*, page 7.

¹² Konhaus, Tim, “‘I Thought Things Would Be Different There:’ Lynching and the Black Community in Southern West Virginia, 1880-1933.”

¹³ Equal Justice Initiative, “Lynching in America,” Web.

¹⁴ West Virginia Lynching Victims Memorial. Web.

¹⁵ “How Many People Were Lynched?” *National Association for the Advancement of Colored People*. Website.

¹⁶ Hill, T. Edward, “The Negro in West Virginia,” page 120.

¹⁷ Rasmussen, Barbara, “Storer College,” *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

¹⁸ “Storer College,” Harpers Ferry National Historical Park.

¹⁹ Posey, “The Negro Citizen of West Virginia” page 48.

²⁰ “A Timeline of African-American History in West Virginia,” West Virginia Archives & History.

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counties where there was a large Black population, Black voters elected Black candidates to serve as representatives in the state legislature. They believed Black legislators were the best advocates for social and racial justice and could influence legislation that affected them. In 1881, Governor Henry M. Mathews signed a bill allowing all eligible voters including African American men to serve as jurors.²¹ In 1896, Christopher Payne of Fayette County became the first Black man elected to the West Virginia Legislature.²²

The Role of Black Women in West Virginia, 1870-1967

Prior to the early twentieth century, there were few opportunities for Black women to work outside of the home. The majority of Black women took care of the home and their children in addition to growing crops including corn, beans, cabbage, and collard greens in their gardens and raising livestock like hogs, chickens, and cows. Some Black women found work in the homes of middle-class white residents as domestic servants.²³ Other Black women financially contributed to their households by opening boarding houses and restaurants or renting an available room in their private residences.

Black women also found employment as teachers and nurses. Teachers were needed throughout the state to educate the growing Black population. Some of the state's first Black teachers migrated from surrounding states such as Ohio and Virginia to meet this need. Black students attended Storer College, West Virginia State College and Bluefield State College, to become teachers. The teaching programs were established in 1868, 1892, and 1895 respectively.²⁴ After acquiring an education, they began working in Black schools throughout the state. Black nurses found employment at Black hospitals and physician offices. The Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics 1925-1926 report cites fourteen registered nurses in West Virginia with the majority working in southern West Virginia.²⁵ Women not only became teachers and nurses but also beauticians, dressmakers, and cooks. Since the majority of white employers would not hire Black people, Black women found employment in Black owned and operated businesses.

Single, married, and widowed Black women living in urban areas served as the operators and managers of hotels, tourist homes, and beauty shops. Thelma Stone (1905-1981) was one of these businesswomen. Born in Pocahontas, Virginia, Thelma Stone moved to Bluefield in Mercer County in the 1930s where she operated a number of businesses during her lifetime. Stone managed Jane's Greenleaf Sandwich Shop (Jane's Café) on Bland Street and the Florence Hotel and Jane's Dining Room at 105 Wilson Street before opening Hotel Thelma on Thanksgiving Day in 1949.²⁶ Located in Bluefield's East End neighborhood, Hotel Thelma was a social center for the community and featured hotel rooms, apartments, a grocery store and restaurant. Hotel guests, residents, and the community members gathered in Hotel Thelma's restaurant for meals. Hotel Thelma was listed in the Green Book between 1950 and 1961.

Black women also operated beauty parlors in private residences and hotels in urban areas. In 1934, Katie Mae Levels migrated to Beckley, West Virginia from Mississippi and opened a beauty parlor inside her home at 200 Willow Lane.²⁷ She was one of the first beauticians licensed in West Virginia and earned a master's degree in Cosmetology from Ohio University and an associate doctorate in the Arts of Beauty and Culture from St. Louis University.²⁸ Katie Levels also managed Katie's Vanity Shops in Beckley, Mt. Hope, and Fayetteville hotels. Between 1947 and 1955, Katie's Vanity Shop on S. Fayette Street in Beckley was listed in the Green Book. Beauty parlors also served an important community role as a place to build social networks. Some beauty shops were safe places where Black women could discuss civil rights and organize upcoming events. Proprietors also encouraged their clients to vote.²⁹

²¹ Ibid.

²² "Christopher Payne," West Virginia Archives & History

²³ Trotter, *Coal, Class, and Color*, page 98.

²⁴ "Storer College," "The Institute Monthly" (December 1906).

²⁵ Hill, T. Edward, "The Negro in West Virginia," page 59.

²⁶ *Polk's Bluefield City Directory, 1934*, page 249 and *Polk's Bluefield City Directory, 1942*, pages 156 and 268.

²⁷ Willow Lane is located west of South Fayette Street near downtown Beckley.

²⁸ Legg, Debra, "Cosmetologist Receives Doctorate," *Beckley Register Herald*.

²⁹ National Park Service, "Green Book Historic Context and AACRN Listing Guidance."

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During the early to mid-twentieth century, two Black women served in the West Virginia legislature. In 1928, Minnie Buckingham Harper (1886-1978) of Keystone in McDowell County became the first Black woman to serve in the West Virginia House of Delegates. West Virginia Governor Howard Gore appointed Harper to complete the term of her husband Howard Harper after his death.³⁰ She was one of two female delegates who served in the West Virginia legislature in 1928 and one of seven female delegates who served during the 1920s.³¹ She also served in the legislature when southern West Virginia had a large Black population. Twenty-two years later in 1950, Elizabeth Drewry (1893-1979) became the first Black woman elected to the West Virginia legislature. During the 1950s, ten women served in the House of Delegates and one woman in the WV State Senate.³² Born in Virginia, Drewry and her family moved to Elkhorn in McDowell County and later graduated from the Bluefield Colored Institute. She served in the legislature for thirteen years where she advocated for women rights, health care reform, and wages. Drewry was active in her community and stressed the importance of Black people receiving an education.³³

Black women were involved within their communities and acquired leadership roles within their churches, fraternal orders such as the Independent Order of St. Luke, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Not only did Black women make up a larger portion of church memberships, they were involved in fund-raising activities and influencing the religious life in their communities. Black women were involved in West Virginia's Civil Rights Movement. Bluefield State College education professor Othella Jefferson assisted students and Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) members in organizing sit-ins at lunch counters and picketing the YWCA-YMCA. In Charleston, CORE members Elizabeth Harden Gilmore and Cynthia Banks organized boycotts and sit-ins at the Diamond Department Store.³⁴ Women also acquired leadership roles in the NAACP. Memphis Tennessee Garrison (1890-1988), a teacher and Civil Rights activist who resided in Gary in McDowell County was active in the NAACP, helping with fund-raising activities and developing chapters of the NAACP across southern West Virginia. She also served as national vice president and a field secretary.³⁵

Post-Civil War Segregation/Jim Crow Era in West Virginia, 1868-1967

The experience of Black people and race relations in West Virginia is unique to the state. Biannual reports published by the Bureau of Negro Welfare and Statistics highlights a cordial interracial relationship between Black people and whites. In the 1925-1926 report, Director T. Edward Hill, who was Black, writes "There is no race problem in this State that annoys officials and leaders by diverting their minds from the grave problems of education, health, and industrial development which make for the progress and happiness of all of the people. White and colored people live and work side by side without friction, each according to the other the rights which is his due and both seeking to improve general conditions in the communities in which they live."³⁶ At the same time, segregation, racism, and discrimination existed underneath the image of a cordial relationship in West Virginia. While West Virginia may have been less politically oppressive than other states, particularly southern states, a cultural attitude of white supremacy remained prevalent. Black leaders and allies worked continuously through the courts, legislature, media, and other means to address problems such as restrictive deed covenants preventing Black people from buying houses in certain areas, segregation of libraries and other public institutions, lynching, and educational inequality.³⁷

To counteract the negative portrayal of Black people and the general lack of attention to Black issues in white newspapers, several Black newspapers in West Virginia were established including the *McDowell Times*, *Charleston*

³⁰ Talbott, I. D. "Duke" and Charles M. Murphy, "Minnie Buckingham Harper" *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

³¹ West Virginia's Legislature's Office of Reference & Information, *Chronology of Women in the West Virginia Legislature: 1922-2009*, page 3.

³² West Virginia's Legislature's Office of Reference & Information, *Chronology of Women in the West Virginia Legislature: 1922-2009*, page 6.

³³ Lucas, M. Lois, "Eliabeth Simpson Drewry," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

³⁴ Webb, Jeffrey, "Elizabeth Harden Gilmore," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

³⁵ Bickley, Ancella R, "Memphis Tennessee Garrison," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

³⁶ Hill, T. Edward, "The Negro in West Virginia," pages 118-119.

³⁷ Peeks, Edward "Civil Rights." *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*. 03 November 2023. Web. 24 May 2024.

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Advocate, and *Pioneer Press*. These publications promoted a positive image of Black people by featuring articles about successful Black men and women. Black newspapers included advertisements for Black operated businesses, schools, and upcoming events as well as articles about Black people fundraising for the construction of buildings. In one issue, *The McDowell Times* featured a proclamation from the National Negro Business League, bringing attention to Black operated businesses and encouraging Black people to support them.³⁸

During and following the Civil War, questions regarding the future of Black people emerged. The first question addressed by the state involved the abolition of slavery which was a requirement of being admitted to the Union. Delegates at the West Virginia Constitutional Convention decided first to gradually abolish slavery; however, ratification of the 13th Amendment to the US Constitution abolished slavery.³⁹ Questions regarding Black people citizenship, testifying in court and serving as jurors, voting, and holding office soon followed. These topics were addressed during West Virginia's Constitutional Convention of 1872. During the convention, attempts were made to restrict the rights of Black people citizens; however, they did not pass. The state legislature generally rejected "Jim Crow" proposals from becoming law.

The issue of citizenship was addressed after abolishing slavery. On July 9, 1868, the 14th Amendment to the Constitution was ratified, granting citizenship to all persons "born or naturalized in the United States."⁴⁰ This amendment included granting citizenship to formerly enslaved people and providing all citizens with "equal protection under the laws." The next issue tackled by the WV legislature was granting Black people the right to testify and act as a witness in trials. The right to testify and serve as a juror passed the state legislature. It was followed by granting Black people the right to vote and hold office. In February of 1870, the 15th Amendment to the Constitution or "the right to citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude" was ratified.⁴¹ West Virginia was one state that did not have a "Grandfather Clause" or "Educational Requirements" that prevented Black people from voting or holding office.⁴²

The state's 1872 constitutional convention also passed a measure regarding education. West Virginia's second Constitution included a provision for a system of free public education of both white and Black students. This committed the state to the education of Black students but also required segregation of white and Black students.⁴³ Separate schools at the elementary and secondary levels were established in communities with a Black people population. As discussed in the previous section, three institutions of higher learning including Storer College in Harpers Ferry, West Virginia Colored Institute (West Virginia State College) in Institute and Bluefield Colored Institute in Bluefield (Bluefield State College) were established in the mid-to-late nineteenth century, further expanding education opportunities for Black West Virginians.

The separation of the races also extended to the creation of Black social institutions. During the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, Black people advocated for the creation of separate institutions since white institutions were unavailable to them. Black politicians serving in the West Virginia Legislature sought to improve the conditions of Black people and worked with white delegates to pass legislation creating Black educational, welfare, and social institutions. As the Black population increased in southern West Virginia, Black men began electing Black politicians in the late nineteenth century and continued into the twentieth century. Harry J. Capehart, T. Edward Hill, and Howard Harper of McDowell County, T. Gillis Nutter of Kanawha County, Christopher Payne, James Ellis, and James V. Coleman of Fayette County each served in the House of Delegates. Delegates Capehart, Harper, and Nutter were also graduates of Howard University's Law School.⁴⁴ Black legislators were involved in the creation of the State Colored Tuberculosis Sanitarium in Denmar in 1917, West Virginia Schools for the Colored Deaf and Blind in Institute in 1919, State Industrial

³⁸ "NNBL Proclamation: A Proclamation," *The McDowell Times*, 17 October 1941, page 1.

³⁹ Posey, page 20.

⁴⁰ *United States Constitution*.

⁴¹ *Ibid*.

⁴² Posey, page 55.

⁴³ *1872 Constitution of the State of West Virginia*. Article 12. Education. West Virginia Archives and History. Web.

⁴⁴ "The Negro in West Virginia," Bureau of Negro Welfare & Statistics, 1925-1926, pages 44, 45, and 46.

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Home for Colored Girls in Huntington in 1921, State Industrial Home for Colored Boys in Lakin in 1921, and the West Virginia Colored Orphans Home in Huntington in 1899.

Black West Virginians also established separate religious and fraternal organizations. These institutions included Baptist, African Methodist Episcopal (A. M. E.), and Presbyterian churches. The number of churches increased as more Black people moved into the state. Black people also formed Black fraternal organizations since they were denied entrance into white chapters.⁴⁵ These fraternal organizations included the Golden Rule Beneficial and Endowment Association, founded in 1903, the Order of Knights of Pythias, founded in 1864 and the Grand United Order of Odd Fellows, a fraternity dedicated to assisting widows, disabled, and the sick.⁴⁶ These fraternal organizations assisted Black people and workers. Branches of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and Marcus Garvey's Universal Negro Improvement Association were established in urban areas. These institutions served as social centers as well as "political forums and leadership training grounds."⁴⁷ They offered leadership roles and training for Black people in the areas of civil rights and equality.

While West Virginia did not enact many of the strict Jim Crow laws that prescribed discrimination and oppression in other states, racism was still culturally pervasive and was not prohibited by law. In 1896, the U. S. Supreme Court upheld the "separate but equal" doctrine in the case *Plessy v. Ferguson* and ruled segregation did not violate the equal protections clause under the Fourteenth Amendment.⁴⁸ The decision legalized segregation across the United States. Segregation extended to businesses including doctor offices and hospitals, barber shops, grocery stores, restaurants, hotels, newspapers, and theaters. White businesses prohibited Black people from staying in their hotels and eating in restaurants. Theaters throughout the state were segregated with separate entrances and sections for Black people. White business owners either did not hire Black people or hired them at entry-level positions with little to no opportunity for advancement. In cities such as Bluefield and Kimball, Black men established hospitals, dentist offices, pharmacies, and lawyer offices to provide services to other Black people. Opening a business was one way to provide services and employment opportunities for themselves as well as Black high school and college students and graduates.

In the 1910s, Black people recognized a need for Black owned businesses in urban areas. One of these men was Gurnett Edinburgh (G. C.) "Cap" Ferguson (1889-1982), a former teacher, World War I veteran, and state legislature delegate. He described the need for accommodations for Black people in communities after his experience traveling in New York City. Ferguson stated "You know a colored man who wants good lodgings has a difficult time when he is traveling. I spent an hour and a half in a taxi in New York City looking for a place to sleep. I didn't want to go to a cheap, unattractive and unsanitary colored lodging house and there was no good colored hotel. Of course, up there, I could have gone to a white hotel, but I did not want to do that. I finally went into a private residence."⁴⁹ Ferguson went on to open the Ferguson Hotel, a three-story, seventy room, brick hotel on Washington Street in Charleston. The building was designed by John C. Norman, West Virginia's first Black architect, and housed a café, theater, barber shop, dance hall, and pool room. Hotel Ferguson was an anchor of "The Block," Charleston's Black cultural and economic neighborhood.⁵⁰ Between 1938 and 1966, Hotel Ferguson was listed in the Green Book. In 1966, a fire started in the hotel's attic resulting in Ferguson selling the hotel. Hotel Ferguson was demolished during construction of the Heart-o-Town Motor Inn.⁵¹ Black hotels throughout West Virginia followed a similar business model by providing their clientele with multiple services and serving as social and cultural centers.

While some Black-owned businesses served a predominantly African American clientele, Black owned pharmacies also served a white clientele. One of the Black pharmacists in the state was J. C. Kingslow who established the Kingslow Drug Store on Bland Street in Bluefield. Born in Plainfield, New Jersey, James Claude Kingslow (1890-1980) attended

⁴⁵ Fain, Cicero M., *Black Huntington: An Appalachian Story*, page 109.

⁴⁶ "History," Grand United Order of Odd Fellows, Web.

⁴⁷ Trotter, *Coal, Class, and Color*, page 185.

⁴⁸ "Plessy v. Ferguson (1896)" National Archives.

⁴⁹ Sisco, Maria and Stan Bumgardner. "'Cap' Ferguson: A Black Trailblazer," *Black by God*, website.

⁵⁰ Jerry Waters, "Cap Ferguson Hotel and Business Center," <https://www.mywvhome.com/forties/ferguson.html>

⁵¹ Ibid.

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school in Plainfield before graduating from the Ohio State University School of Pharmacy where he received a Certificate of Pharmaceutical Chemist in 1911.⁵² He migrated to West Virginia to work with his older brother Dr. H. E. Kingslow. James C. Kingslow operated the Kingslow Drug Store from 1911 to 1977. During those years, his pharmacy and others served as cultural and social centers where young people and adults gathered after school, athletic events, and socials for a soft drink or milkshake at the pharmacy's soda foundation. Pharmacists also hired Black high school and college students to work for them. Bluefield attorney "J" Franklin Long explained in a 2001 *Bluefield Daily Telegraph* article about segregation "Opportunities were missing during segregation. Black people could get jobs in Black-owned businesses and expect to advance if they did a good job. Black workers who took jobs in white-owned businesses would have to remain at an entry level position as long as they stayed with the same employer."⁵³

During the late 1910s and early 1920s, branches of the Ku Klux Klan (KKK), a secret and racist organization, emerged in communities throughout West Virginia. The KKK was first organized after the Civil War with the goal of maintaining white supremacy. As Black people gained rights in the late 1800s, chapters of the KKK were organized in West Virginia but were short lived. The KKK re-emerged following World War I in Logan, Mercer, Kanawha and other counties with the goals of segregation and disenfranchising Black people; the KKK also opposed the Catholic Church and Jewish people.⁵⁴ They held meetings and marched through Black neighborhoods dressed in white robes and hoods as a show of intimidation. By 1944, branches of the KKK in West Virginia had disbanded due to scandal.⁵⁵ The same year, the Internal Revenue Service filed a lien against the KKK for failing to pay \$685,000 in back taxes.⁵⁶ In the 1970s, the KKK briefly resurfaced during the Kanawha County Textbook Controversy, a disagreement about some of the books selected for the county's students. In recent years, the modern Klan has re-emerged and is linked to white supremacist groups and neo-Nazis.

Civil Rights Movement

In the early years of the Civil Rights Movement, there were two different approaches within the Black community. Booker T. Washington and other early leaders advocated for working with white people and emphasized "separate but equal." Other Black people, who were considered more radical, demanded equal civil rights and favored protesting. Leaders from both movements met in Niagara Falls, New York in 1905 to discuss their differences. The following year, in August 1906, Black leaders met at Storer College in Harpers Ferry for the Niagara Movement's second meeting. W. E. B. DuBois spoke at the meeting and emphasized Black people should have the same rights as every freeborn American. The Niagara Movement continued until 1911 when DuBois encouraged members to join the recently formed National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP).⁵⁷ Founded in 1909, the NAACP's mission is to "ensure the political, educational, equality of minority group citizens of States and eliminate racial prejudice."⁵⁸ Chapters of the NAACP were established in cities across West Virginia including Charleston, Bluefield, Harper's Ferry, Huntington, Morgantown, Williamson, and Wheeling to name a few. These branches engaged their communities in activism and fought against inequality.

Black attorneys worked to maintain racial tolerance and prohibit discrimination in West Virginia. In 1925, Charleston attorney T. G. Nutter, State Supervisor of Black Schools W. W. Sanders, and Ferguson Hotel operator G. E. Ferguson successfully prevented the controversial movie *Birth of a Nation* from being shown in Charleston's Rialto Theater. Nutter argued showing the film would violate a 1919 law prohibiting "any form of entertainment demeaning to a race or class of

⁵² *Ohio State University Quarterly*, 1911, page 58.

⁵³ Archer, Bill, "Attorney Recalls Obstacles and Opportunities of Segregation Era," *Bluefield Daily Telegraph*, page A-3.

⁵⁴ Trotter, *Coal, Class, and Color*, pages 127-128.

⁵⁵ Statler-Keener, Teresea, "Ku Klux Klan," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁵⁶ Brunson, Samuel D. "Addressing Hate: Georgia, the IRS, and the Ku Klux Klan," Loyola University Chicago, School of Law, page 45.

⁵⁷ Johnson, Mary, "Niagara Movement," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁵⁸ "Our History," NAACP, website.

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people.”⁵⁹ The Rialto Theater disagreed and took the case to the Kanawha County Circuit Court and the West Virginia Supreme Court which upheld the 1919 law.

Housing discrimination was also common. Many housing developers placed restrictive covenants on deeds that prohibited Black people from buying houses in “whites-only” neighborhoods.⁶⁰ In the late 1920s, Nutter brought a case in Huntington fighting housing discrimination. African Americans Lewis and Cora White purchased a home that carried a restrictive deed covenant from its white owners, the Honakers. Their white neighbor H. B. White sued. The West Virginia Supreme Court ultimately ruled in favor of Lewis and Cora White in the case *White v White*, but only on the basis of the Honakers’ right to sell their property to whomever they wished without omitting an entire group of potential buyers.⁶¹ Even though the court echoed the sentiment that Black residents were undesirable in a white neighborhood, the case was celebrated by the local NAACP chapters and did set a precedent that discrimination in property transactions was unlawful.⁶²

In 1954, the United States Supreme Court ruled segregated schools were unconstitutional in the case *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka Kansas*. This decision overturned the 1876 *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision declaring “separate but equal” facilities did not violate the 14th Amendment.⁶³ Following the Supreme Court decision, schools and colleges throughout West Virginia started integrating. While some schools and colleges were quick to integrate, others in southern West Virginia and the Eastern Panhandle delayed and resisted integration. Despite varying levels of resistance and protest by white people, West Virginia schools were mostly integrated by the end of the 1950s and fully integrated by 1964. While integration was a major victory in the civil rights movement, it also resulted in a loss of Black tradition and community as well as the closing of Storer College in 1955 and other Black elementary and secondary schools. Black teachers and administrators had trouble finding employment at integrated school. By the mid-1970s, West Virginia State College and Bluefield State College became predominantly white colleges.

Black activists continued to challenge the belief of “separate but equal” and demanded equality. Across West Virginia, leaders and students at the state’s Black colleges as well as the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) organized peaceful demonstrations in the 1950s and early 1960s. They organized sit-ins at lunch counters inside department stores including Kresge, Woolworth, and the Diamond Department store. Students picketed movie theaters’ discrimination policies and peaceful protestors boycotted businesses that discriminated against Black people. These peaceful protests resulted in department stores and movie theaters changing their policies and allowing Black patrons full access to their establishments.⁶⁴

In 1961, the West Virginia legislature created the Human Rights Commission to share information and eliminate discrimination in the workplace and public accommodations. Thirty-five local community relations commissions were also established.⁶⁵ The Human Rights Commission continues to educate the public about the West Virginia Human Rights Act and West Virginia Fair Housing Act and works to eliminate discrimination. Three years later, the US Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964, prohibiting discrimination in public places and workplaces and integrated schools and other facilities.⁶⁶ This act ended segregation in hotels, restaurants, theaters, libraries, and recreational facilities. Across West Virginias, businesses began to integrate.

Transportation: Twentieth Century Automobile Travel in West Virginia, 1920-1967

⁵⁹ “Time Trail, West Virginia,” West Virginia Archives & History, website.

⁶⁰ Tauger, Nathan, *Racial Segregation in West Virginia Housing, 1929-1971*, page 176.

⁶¹ Tauger, 179.

⁶² Tauger, 179-180.

⁶³ Stack, Sam, "Integration," e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia.

⁶⁴ Peeks, Edward, “Civil Rights,” e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia.

⁶⁵ Slack, “Integration,” e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia.

⁶⁶ “Civil Rights Act (1964)” *National Archives*.

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In the early twentieth century, a new method of transportation emerged in West Virginia as automobiles gained popularity. The state's roads included former turnpikes, connector roads to railroad stations, and highways in larger cities.⁶⁷ These early roads were generally rustic and unpaved resulting in dusty conditions in the summer and muddy conditions in the winter. Beginning with statehood and continuing until the passage of the Good Roads Amendment in 1920, roads were funded, constructed, and maintained by county courts.⁶⁸ The county courts selected road surveyors for each precinct within the county who then notified the residents selected to work on the roads. State law required each man between the ages of 21 and 50 to work on the road in his precinct at least two days between April 1 and September 1.⁶⁹ Revenue from the collection of road taxes were used to maintain, repair and construct county roads.

Through the Good Roads Movement, an organization of farmers, bicyclists, and motorists who advocated for good roads, the West Virginia Good Roads Federation campaigned for a constitutional amendment that would allow the state legislature to improve roads.⁷⁰ Advocates for the amendment stressed the importance of good roads for real estate agents, farmers, businesses and children, make communication and travel easier, and bring thousands of tourists into the state for relaxation and recreation purposes.⁷¹ In 1920, West Virginians voted in favor of the Good Roads Amendment resulting in the state constructing and maintaining a 4,600 mile state road system. This state road system would connect county seats and neighboring states.

Throughout the 1920s, West Virginia's state road system continued to develop. State highway officials attended the Joint Board of Interstate Highways meeting in 1925 to select routes for the new interstate highway system and establish criteria for selecting roads such as connections to important centers and neighboring states. West Virginia selected six roads including US 11, US 19 (previously State Route 4), US 21, US 40 (previously the National Road), US 50 (previously State Route 1/Northwestern Turnpike), and US 60 (the Midland Trail) to be a part of this system.⁷² These highways would link previously unconnected cities and counties throughout West Virginia as well as neighboring states. In 1929, a state law was passed permitting contractors to use prisoners for road construction.⁷³

Road building continued throughout the mid-to-late twentieth century in West Virginia. In 1933, the state legislature passed a law bringing every road in West Virginia under state control and designated over 4,400 miles as primary state highways and 31,000 miles as secondary roads.⁷⁴ Two years later, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) was created as part of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal program. Created in 1935, the WPA hired unemployed workers to build roads, bridges, and public buildings. During Roosevelt's administration, he also appointed the National Interregional Highway Committee to study the need for a national expressway. Their report entitled "Interregional Highways" recommended a 33,900 mile federal road system. In 1944, Congress passed the Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1944, also known as the National System of Interstate Highways. Its purpose was to connect cities and industrial centers and to serve national defense.⁷⁵ Three years later in 1947, the first 37,700 miles were selected from the states; however, funding to construct the roads was not authorized.

The development of the interstate system in the 1950s-1970s greatly changed transportation in the mountainous regions of West Virginia. The studies conducted and legislation passed during the 1930s and 1940s laid the groundwork for President Dwight D. Eisenhower's Interstate System. During his administration, Eisenhower and the U. S. Congress resolved the question of how to fund the Interstate System. The Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1956 also known as the National System of Interstate and Defense Highways proposed 41,000 miles of interstate highways and funded the

⁶⁷ Callahan, James Morton, *History of West Virginia, Old and New In Volume One*. Volume 1 Historical, Pages 547-548.

⁶⁸ WVDOH, *Yesterday and Today: A Highway History of West Virginia From Colonial Times to the Present*, page 10.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ Thomas, Jerry Bruce, "Good Roads Movement," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁷¹ "Passage of the Good Roads Amendment: The Road Ahead for West Virginia," West Virginia Archives and History, L. E. Lantz Collection. Web.

⁷² Peyton, Billy Joe, "Highway Development," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁷³ WVDOH, *Yesterday and Today: A Highway History of West Virginia From Colonial Times to the Present*, page 34.

⁷⁴ Peyton, Billy Joe, "Highway Development," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁷⁵ Federal Highway Administration, "Interstate System: Dwight E. Eisenhower National System of Interstate and Defense Highways," Web.

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program through the Highway Trust Fund. Construction of the six federal expressways in West Virginia began in 1957 at a cost of \$2.8 billion dollars.⁷⁶ The first expressways assigned to West Virginia were I-64 between Huntington and White Sulphur Springs, I-81 across the Eastern Panhandle, and I-70 across the Northern Panhandle. Residents in southern West Virginia and in Morgantown, Fairmont, and Clarksburg were dissatisfied and began advocating for additional interstates resulting in I-77 and I-79 being added to the Interstate Highway System.⁷⁷

The West Virginia Turnpike, the state's only toll road, was authorized in 1947 and completed in 1955 between Charleston and Princeton. Originally planned as a four-lane highway, the difficulty and expense of constructing a highway through the mountains resulted in the road being mostly two-lane. In the 1970s it was decided that the best option for constructing Interstate 77 was to follow the existing turnpike route. It took 12 years, from 1976 to 1988, to upgrade the turnpike to interstate standards. The turnpike's design included interchanges where chain hotels, restaurants, and gas stations would later be constructed.

Automobile Travel and Tourism

As the state's roads improved and connected towns, residents began traveling longer distances for both business and pleasure. Poor roads no longer limited travel to short distances and in-town trips or discouraged tourists. Between 1900 and 1970, the number of motor vehicle registrations increased in West Virginia. The figures in Table 1 include the total number of automobiles, buses and trucks registered in West Virginia by decade.

Year	Number of Registered Motor Vehicles in West Virginia
1900	20
1910	880
1920	80,664
1930	268,897
1940	309,231
1950	482,275
1960	600,549
1970	800,933

Table 1: Number of Motor Vehicles in West Virginia by Decade. Figures from the Federal Highway Administration.⁷⁸

The popularity of automobiles, ability to travel, and rise of the middle class resulted in the emergence of automobile-related services. When roads were being improved for automobile use in the early twentieth century, taverns already existed but roads lacked automobile-related services. Full service gas stations such as Esso gas stations were constructed close to roads and near tourist cabins and in cities. Gas stations across West Virginia installed large, bold signs on the building or near the road to attract customers. These single-story buildings were designed in various architectural styles including Tudor Revival and Streamline Modern with large single pane windows. The full-service gas stations also featured glass-domed gas pumps, vending machines, and repair shops and sold tires. They offered services including pumping the gas, checking the oil, and wiping windows.

As the number of travelers and trip distances increased, more lodging options were needed. Tourist homes, tourist cabins, and motels emerged in the automobile era to accommodate travelers. Unlike hotels, which in the nineteenth century were typically multi-storied buildings located in downtown commercial areas near railroad stations, tourist cabins and motels

⁷⁶ Miller, Tom D, "Interstate Highway System," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁷⁷ WVDOH, *Yesterday and Today*, page 56.

⁷⁸ Federal Highway Administration, "Motor Vehicle Registrations, By States, 1900-1995," chart, page 13.
<https://www.fhwa.dot.gov/ohim/summary95/mv201.pdf>

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were designed specifically with the automobile in mind; a motorist could pull right off the road and park directly outside the door of the room, without navigating stairs or hallways.⁷⁹

In the early days of the automobile, travelers stayed in tourist homes, which were residences opened by their owners to overnight guests, or simply camped by the roadside. These campsites evolved into organized campgrounds operated by a proprietor and often located near a fuel pump.⁸⁰ From there, these entrepreneurs continued to upgrade their facilities, constructing individual cabins resembling small versions of typical residential forms. The interior of each cabin consisted of a bed, washbasin on a table, and a wall lamp.⁸¹ Tourist courts had a separate building with shared restrooms and showers; convenience stores and gas stations were constructed near the cabins to provide tourists with additional services. Recognizing an opportunity to provide additional amenities and increase business, tourist court owners often constructed restaurants on the premises so guests would not have to head off-site for meals. Two of the tourist camps, the J. J. Jimson Tourist Camp in Culloden (Cabell County) and Hall's Park Tourist Cabins were located along the Midland Trail (US 60) between Charleston and Huntington.

The small individual buildings of tourist cabins eventually were pushed together under one roof to create the linear, one-story motel form. Some properties remained the individual cabins and added a motel structure. In the twentieth century, ownership and the physical layout of motels began to change. Early motels were small, family-owned businesses until the 1950s when large chain hotels with amenities such as swimming pools emerged. Large, bold signs installed on the motel or along the road were used to attract travelers as they drove by.⁸²

The construction of the Interstate Highway System beginning in the late 1950s changed travel and travel-related services. Multi-lane superhighways including I-77, I-64, I-79, I-81, I-70, and I-68 were constructed to allow faster travel and for national security purposes. The interstates bypassed congested downtown and commercial districts resulting in businesses including restaurants, gas stations, and hotels relocating closer to the exits. Additional services including rest stops, visitor centers, and travel plazas were also constructed along the interstate. One consequence of interstate construction was the displacement of residents and loss of minority and poor neighborhoods. Black residents in Charleston's Triangle District, a Black neighborhood rich in Black music and culture, were displaced as new stretches of Interstates 64, and 77 were constructed.⁸³ Beginning in the mid-1960s, many of the buildings in Charleston's Triangle District were demolished as part of the city's urban renewal.

Throughout much of the twentieth century, automobile and travel-related businesses were segregated. In the southern United States, bus and railroad stations had separate facilities including waiting rooms, bathrooms, water fountains, and concession stands for white and Black people.⁸⁴ Black people also rode in separate cars or in the back of buses and trolleys. The affordability of automobiles offered Black people greater mobility and freedom as well as some relief from Jim Crow laws. However, Black people also encountered challenging situations while traveling such as being denied service at restaurants and hotels and racial profiling by police officers. Another challenge confronted by Black people was Sundown Towns or white neighborhoods and communities where Black people were prohibited after dark. Whites often utilized discriminatory laws or threats of violence to exclude Black people and other minorities from town. These challenges resulted in Black people carefully planning their trip and utilizing guide books.

Segregation resulted in Black people establishing separate automobile-related services including gas stations, service garages, taxi services, and repair shops. One company that established a good relationship with Black people was Esso, the retail organization of the Standard Oil Company. Esso did not have discriminatory policies when it came to hiring

⁷⁹ Aurora Research Associates, LLC. *US Route 1, Baltimore, MD to Washington, DC: Development of America's Main Street, 1600-1990*, page 37.

⁸⁰ Wood, Andrew, "The Rise and Fall of the Great American Motel."

⁸¹ National Museum of American History, "Tourist Cabin."

⁸² Aurora Research Associates, 38.

⁸³ WV Public Broadcasting, "Black Community In Charleston, Destroyed For Interstate, Not Forgotten," Web.

⁸⁴ Sugrue, Thomas J. "Automobile in American Life and Society, Driving While Black: The Car and Race Relations in Modern America."

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Black people. They worked as mail clerks, pipeline workers, and Esso gas station franchise operators; 312 out of 820 dealers were black.⁸⁵ Black- operated Esso gas stations were located in Black communities including in Charleston and Institute.

The Negro Motorist Green Book

During segregation, *The Negro Motorist Green Book* served as a travel guide for Black travelers. It assisted Black people with planning their domestic and international travels by providing a list of safe Black-operated and non-discriminatory businesses. Victor H. Green, a postal employee in Harlem, New York recognized the challenge Black people faced when traveling and sought to “compile facts and information connected with motoring, which the [Black] motorist can use and depend upon.”⁸⁶ He intended to help Black motorists travel safely while avoiding harm, harassment, and humiliation.⁸⁷ Green wrote in the introduction that one day this “guide will not be published when race will have equal opportunities.”⁸⁸

Victor H. Green published the *Negro Motorist Green Book*, also known as *The Negro Travelers’ Green Book* and *The Travelers Green Book*, annually between 1936 and 1966. Between 1942 and 1945, Green took a brief break from publishing during World War II due to rations. The first two editions largely featured Black-operated and non-discriminatory sites in Harlem, New York and provided Black travelers with information about points of interest and automobile maintenance. Its popularity with readers influenced Green to expand the listings beginning with states in the Northeast, South, and Midwest regions then stretching westward. By 1963, businesses in all fifty states were featured.

Word of mouth, the post office, and Esso Standard Oil helped the Green Book gain exposure and readership. In the Explanation section of the 1952 edition, the author writes that they rely on their readers to spread the word about the Green Book. They also encouraged readers to purchase subscriptions for themselves and their friends since the *Green Book* was initially unavailable in stores and on newsstands.⁸⁹ Green Book readers submitted subscription cards to Green in New York. The price of a subscription ranged from twenty-five cents in the years before World War II to \$1.95 in 1962.⁹⁰ Black postal employees helped identify businesses and sell both advertisements to Black operated businesses along their route and copies of the Green Book. Green also established a relationship with Esso Standard Oil Black representative James A. Jackson. In return for featuring Jackson in a Green Book article, Esso would sell copies of the book at their gas stations across the United States.

Black women played a significant role in the publication and sale of the Green Book. Alma Green, Victor Green’s wife was one of these women. She was involved in the publication and became the editor and publisher after her husband’s retirement and later death. The staff also consisted of women including Novera Dashiell, Assistant Editor; Dorothy Ash, Advertising Director; Evelyn Woolfolk, Sales Correspondent; and Edith Greene, Secretary. The gender of J. C. Miles who served as Travel Director is unknown.⁹¹ Novera Dashiell wrote many of the articles featured in the *Green Book* between 1956 and 1967. Victor Green also hired Black women to work as Advertising Representatives in their states. Mrs. A. Pack Hairston of Clifftop, West Virginia was one of the two women listed as Ad Reps in the 1949 Edition of the Green Book.

West Virginia

Black businesses in West Virginia first appeared in the 1938 edition of the Green Book. This edition featured two sites in Charleston: the Ferguson Hotel and A. Brown’s Tourist Home and fourteen sites in Huntington: four hotels, one tourist home, a restaurant and tavern, beauty parlor and barber shop, the Sterling service station, South Side garage, Appomattox

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Green, Victor, *The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1937 Edition*.

⁸⁷ National Park Service, “Green Book Historic Context and ACCRN Listing Guidance (African American Civil Rights Network).”

⁸⁸ Green, Victor, *The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1948 Edition*.

⁸⁹ Green, Victor, *The Negro Travelers’ Green Book, 1952 Edition*, page 4.

⁹⁰ Green, Victor, *The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1936-1942 and The Negro Travelers’ Green Book, 1951-1966-67 Editions*.

⁹¹ National Park Service, “Green Book Historic Context and ACCRN Listing Guidance (African American Civil Rights Network).”

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Night Club, the Fox Theater, and Alpha Dance Hall. The majority of the businesses listed in the Green Book were located in urban areas in southern West Virginia (See Table 2 Green Book Sites by County). However, northern West Virginia cities including Wheeling in Ohio County, Clarksburg in Harrison County, and Fairmont in Marion County had Black-operated businesses featured in the *Green Book*.

County	Number of Listed Sites
Cabell	31
Kanawha	18
Raleigh	16
Ohio	15
McDowell	9
Mercer	9
Fayette	7
Harrison	6
Marion	5
Greenbrier	4
Mingo	4
Monongalia	4
Summers	3
Taylor	3
Hancock	2
Jefferson	2
Marshall	1
Wood	1
Total	140

Table 2. Number of Green Book Sites by County (Cumulative Listings 1938-1966)

Huntington, the county seat of Cabell County, had the largest number of sites listed in the Green Book at thirty-one. In the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, Huntington developed as an economic, industrial, social, and political hub.⁹² Huntington also had a large Black population with the majority residing near the Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad. A community developed along 7th and 8th Avenues with a mixture of structures including residences, churches, hotels, and other businesses. A review of Green Books found sixteen of the thirty-one Black businesses were located on 8th Avenue including four entertainment venues, two taverns, three restaurants, one garage, two hotels, two tourist homes, one barber shop, and one tailor. The majority of the Black operated businesses on 8th Avenue have been demolished.

The second largest number of Black businesses featured in the Green Book was found in Charleston, the county seat of Kanawha County and state capital of West Virginia. A total of fifteen Black businesses listed in the Green Book were located in Charleston's Triangle District with the majority on Washington Street. Charleston's Triangle District was situated northwest of the Elk River, south of Washington Street and north of Slack Street in the West Side. It was home to Black residents, Jewish people and immigrants from Eastern Europe. Black residents resided in a 25-acre section of this neighborhood known as "The Block" which had its own hotels, restaurants, churches, drug stores, and theaters.⁹³ One of the hotels located in "The Block" was the Ferguson Hotel, a 72-room hotel designed by Black architect John C. Norman and constructed by Charleston contractor J. H. Love.⁹⁴ Opened in 1922, the Ferguson Hotel was part of a larger business center that included independently-run departments: theater, restaurant, dance hall, barber and beauty shops and office space. Ferguson operated the hotel between 1922 and March 1966 when a fire started in the hotel's attic. Ferguson sold the hotel a few years later and it became the site of the Heart-o-Town Motor Inn.⁹⁵

⁹² Fain, Cicero M., *Black Huntington: An Appalachian Story*, page 71.

⁹³ Bumgardner, Stan, "Charleston's Triangle District," *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

⁹⁴ Sisco and Bumgardner, "'Cap' Ferguson: A Black Trailblazer."

⁹⁵ *Ibid.*

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Sixteen Black businesses were listed in the Green Book for Beckley, the county seat of Raleigh County. In the early twentieth century, Black businesses opened on Prince Street and then South Fayette Street near Downtown Beckley. Black businesses on South Fayette Street including physician offices, drug stores, filling stations, and hotels thrived in this district. Located at 501 S Fayette Street, John E. Moss (c1897-1971) owned and operated the Moss Auto and Electric Service. He opened the Moss Auto and Electric Service in 1929 and continued to operate the business until his death in November 1971.⁹⁶ The two-story, tan brick building housed the business on the first story and his residence on the second story. Moss's Auto Service was listed in the Green Book between 1939 and 1955 and the building is extant.

Wheeling, the county seat of Ohio County, had the most Black-operated businesses featured in the Green Book in Northern West Virginia with fifteen businesses. The majority of these Black-operated businesses were located on the 1000 block of Chapline Street in East Wheeling. Housed in a three-story, brick building, the Blue Goose Restaurant is one of the existing buildings located on Chapline Street. This restaurant was featured in the Green Book between 1950 and 1957. Another extant building is Wheeling's YWCA (Young Women's Christian Association) located at 108 12th Street. In 1921, the Wheeling YWCA organized a club to advocate and protect African American women and girls.⁹⁷ This club became the YWCA Blue Triangle Branch and opened at 1041 Chapline Street. It later relocated to 1035 Chapline Street followed by a three-story brick building at 108 12th Street. The YMCA Blue Triangle Branch offered classes in sewing, dancing, typing, shorthand, and dressmaking.⁹⁸ It was featured in the Green Book between 1949 and 1956. Both buildings are listed on the National Register of Historic Places as part of the East Wheeling Historic District.

Between 1938 and 1966, twenty different business types were represented in the Green Book. Hotels and restaurants constituted the largest number of sites followed by tourist homes, nightclubs, beauty parlors and barber shops, lodgings, and taverns. During the first thirty years of its publication, the *Green Book* listed a variety of businesses. However, starting with the 1956 edition, Green changed the book's layout to only list hotels, motels, tourist homes, and restaurants. This change occurred after the 1954 Supreme Court ruling in *Brown v Board of Education* that ruled segregation was unconstitutional. The figures in Table 3 show the number of each type of businesses listed in the Green Book over all years of publication.

Business Type	Number of Listed Sites
Hotel	20
Restaurant	20
Tourist Home	18
Nightclub	13
Beauty Parlor	12
Lodging	12
Tavern	11
Service Station	7
Barbershop	6
Drug Store	5
Taxicab	5
Motel	2
Tailor	2
Dance Hall	1
Dry Cleaning	1
Garage	1
Other	1
Retail	1
Theater	1

⁹⁶ "Rites Incomplete for John Moss," *Post Herald and Register*, 13 November 1971, page 8.

⁹⁷ "YWCA Blue Triangle Branch," Ohio County Public Library, Web.

⁹⁸ *Ibid.*

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Tourist Cabins	1
Total	140

Table 3. Types of Businesses Listed in the Green Books, 1938-1967

Post World War II Era and the End of the Green Book

Following World War II, the United States became more economically prosperous. While white veterans used the GI Bill to further their education by attending colleges and to purchase homes, it was denied to Black veterans. The number of students attending college was increasing, however white colleges rejected Black applications for admission. An article entitled “Money for Negro Colleges” was republished in the 1947 edition of the Green Book and encouraged readers to contribute to the United Negro College Fund.⁹⁹ This fund raised money to help Black veterans attend college. This article was followed by a list of Black schools and colleges including all three Black colleges in West Virginia.

The number of Green Books listings started to increase following World War II. Listings reached a peak of 93 businesses in 23 cities in 1951 before beginning to decline. A number of factors contributed to the decline of Green Book sites in West Virginia such as increased competition, population decline, and urban renewal.

Year	Number of Green Book Sites in West Virginia	Number of WV Cities
1946	24	8
1947	37	8
1948	38	8
1949	71	15
1950	82	20
1951	98	23
1952	91	22
1953	90	23
1954	78	23
1955	63	21
1956	27	15

Table 4: Number of Green Book Sites and Cities between 1946 and 1956

As previously mentioned, Green altered the content and layout in the *Green Book* beginning in 1956. He stopped listing automobile-related services, beauty parlors and barber shops, entertainment venues, dry cleaning, tailoring shops and drug stores and only included hotels, motels, and restaurants. This change came two years after the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision, ruling that segregated public schools were unconstitutional. As businesses became integrated, white hotels, restaurants and other businesses opened to Black people, increasing competition. The Nationwide Hotel Association acknowledged the changing business climate in an article about the challenges Black hotel operators would face. The article explained how Black-operated businesses were created for Black people and they would now see increased competition. Black operators were also encouraged to improve and modernize their hotels.¹⁰⁰

In the 1950s, the population of West Virginia began to decline as residents searched for new employment opportunities. Mine mechanization in the coal industry resulted in coal miners losing their jobs. The number of coal miners decreased from 117,104 in 1948 to 42,557 in 1961.¹⁰¹ The population in other West Virginia cities also lost workers due to factories and other industries closing. Many Black people who resided in coal communities and other cities migrated to northern and Midwest cities such as Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Akron, and Chicago.¹⁰² The decline in population resulted in vacant

⁹⁹ Green, Victor, *The Negro Motorist Green Book, 1947*, page 3.

¹⁰⁰ “Nationwide Hotel Association. *The Negro Travelers Green Book* 1956 edition, page 69.

¹⁰¹ Rice, Otis K and Stephen W. Brown, *West Virginia: A History*, page 280.

¹⁰² Trotter, Joe William, “African-American Heritage,” *e-WV: The West Virginia Encyclopedia*.

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residential and commercial buildings in communities throughout West Virginia. Over the years, neglect and exposure left these buildings in a state of disrepair.

Urban renewal efforts in the 1960s and 1970s resulted in the removal of residential and commercial properties, displaced residents, and destroyed once thriving Black and minority neighborhoods. The process of identifying blighted areas by city officials was based on segregation and institutionalized racism. Its origins date back to the Great Depression and the creation of the Federal Housing Administration (FHA), which insured private home mortgages. The FHA also encouraged the use of restrictive deed covenants.¹⁰³ City officials across the United States assisted the FHA in creating “residential security maps” of their cities. These color-coded maps helped banks and mortgage lenders determine whether or not it was “safe” to lend money to potential homeowners. Green areas or predominantly white neighborhoods were labeled as desirable or the best while predominantly Black neighborhoods and other “undesirable populations” were labeled hazardous or red.¹⁰⁴ This process became known as “redlining.” Redlining and restrictive deed covenants limited where Black people could live and their ability to acquire loans.

Cities throughout West Virginia also established Urban Renewal programs. City officials decided to demolish buildings that they considered a fire hazard, blight or slum rather than invest in rehabilitation. In Wheeling, for example, city officials labeled two thriving Black neighborhoods as slums. They first called for the demolition of residences and commercial buildings in Central Wheeling between 23rd and 27th Streets to Market and Main.¹⁰⁵ The second wave of the city’s Urban Renewal program occurred in the early 1970s in East Wheeling. Wheeling demolished residences, the Pythian Building, churches, and commercial building on Chapline Street resulting in the displacement of Black residents and destruction of a community.¹⁰⁶ A large number of Black residences and business including Green Book sites located on Chapline Street were demolished.

The construction of the Interstate Highway System also resulted in the loss of Green Book sites in West Virginia. Between urban renewal efforts and the construction of I-77 and I-64 in Charleston, Black businesses and residences in the Triangle District were lost to demolition and 391 residents were displaced.¹⁰⁷ Another impact of the interstate’s construction was amenities and services moved from the downtown to near highway exits. As more motorists traveled the interstate, services including chain motels and hotels, restaurants and gas stations were built closer to its exits. Green Book businesses, most of which were located in downtown business districts or residential neighborhoods, were bypassed.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964, which outlawed discrimination in public accommodation, essentially made the Green Book obsolete. Black travelers now had unlimited options for lodging, dining, and other services. The last issue of *The Negro Motorist Green Book* was published in 1966-67.

Table 5 contains a comprehensive listing of all businesses and sites listed in the Green Book in West Virginia.

Name of Resource	Address	City	County	Green Book Years	Business Type
Mrs. M. E. Carter	206 Church Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1949	Lodging
American Legion	S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1949	Nightclub
Home Service	37 Prince/338 ½ S. Fayette	Beckley	Raleigh	1939-1953	Restaurant
Moss’s Service Station	135/501 S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1939-1955	Automobile-Related
New Pioneer Hotel	58 S. Fayette Street/340 S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1939-1966	Hotel
Mrs. E. Morton –	430 S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1949	Tourist Home

¹⁰³ “How I Benefited from White Supremacy Growing Up in Wheeling, West Virginia. *Daily Kos*.

¹⁰⁴ Kammer, Brian, “Broken Promises” Webinar.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ US General Accounting Office, “Triangle Project Chronology of Events Extracted From HUD Project Files,” page 11.

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Name of Resource	Address	City	County	Green Book Years	Business Type
Tourist Home					
Beckino Club	S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1949	Nightclub
Robertson's Taxicab		Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1949	Automobile-Related
Chesterfield Club	New Pioneer Hotel	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1949	Nightclub
Fuqua's Beauty Parlor	Fugua Building/S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1954	Beauty Parlor
Simpson's Barbershop	New Pioneer Hotel	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1954	Barbershop
Katie's Vanity	S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1955	Beauty Parlor
Payne's Barbershop	338 S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1955	Barbershop
Morton Drug	S. Fayette Street	Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1955	Drug Store
Nuway Taxicab		Beckley	Raleigh	1947-1955	Automobile-Related
Priscilla's Lunch Hub	336 S. Fayette Street 731 Bland	Beckley Bluefield	Raleigh Mercer	1951-1953 1961	Restaurant Restaurant
Traveler's Inn	602 Raleigh Street	Bluefield	Mercer	1940-1957	Hotel
Traveler's Inn	1039 Wayne Street	Bluefield	Mercer	1959-1966	Hotel
Hotel Thelma	1047 Wayne Street	Bluefield	Mercer	1950-1961	Hotel
Kinglow's Drug Store	Bland Street	Bluefield	Mercer	1950-1955	Drug Store
A. Brown Tourist Home	1001 Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1938-1940	Tourist Home
Ferguson Hotel	Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1938-1966	Hotel
White Front	1007 Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1939-1950	Tavern
Palace Café	910 Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1939-1950	Tavern
Penn's Hotel	W. Charleston	Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1966	Hotel
Bob's Place	E. Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1951	Restaurant
White Front Inn	1001 E. Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1952	Hotel
Perkins & Watson at Bradford Service Station		Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1953	Automobile-Related
Bridge's Esso Service Station	Washington & Truslow Streets	Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1954	Automobile-Related
Red Star Cab	403 Shrewsbury Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1953	Automobile-Related
The Hut	1329 Washington Street	Charleston	Kanawha	1950-1959	Restaurant
Brown's Hotel	Capitol & Donnelly Streets	Charleston	Kanawha	1954-1956	Hotel
Edna's Tourist Home	808 Donally	Charleston	Kanawha	1961	Tourist Home
Thomas' Letter Service		Charleston	Kanawha	1951	
Hall's Park Tourist Cabins	US Route 60, 10 miles west of Charleston	Charleston/St. Albans	Kanawha	1949-1953	Tourist Cabins
Kenneth B. Johnson – Barbershop	505 Carolina Avenue	Chester	Hancock	1953-1955	Barbershop

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Name of Resource	Address	City	County	Green Book Years	Business Type
Tasty Lunch	308 Water Street	Clarksburg	Harrison	1949-1953	Restaurant
Mrs. Ruby Thompson - Lodging	309 Water Street	Clarksburg	Harrison	1949-1966	Lodging
American Legion	Monticello Street	Clarksburg	Harrison	1949-1954	Nightclub
Elks - Nightclub	First Street	Clarksburg	Harrison	1949-1955	Nightclub
Pythians - Nightclub	119 Harper Street	Clarksburg	Harrison	1949-1955	Nightclub
Johnson's Tavern	Monticello Street	Clarksburg	Harrison	1949-1955	Tavern
Traveler's Inn	Main St/Rt 60	E. Rainelle	Greenbrier	1949-1952	Restaurant
Cobb's Hotel	226 Jackson Street	Fairmont	Marion	1940	Hotel
Whittaker's Grill	Pennsylvania Street	Fairmont	Marion	1949-1955	Restaurant
Parker's Beauty School	Pennsylvania Street	Fairmont	Marion	1949-1955	Beauty School
Monongahela Hotel	Madison Street	Fairmont	Marion	1949-1954	Hotel
Bailey's Barbershop	Madison Street	Fairmont	Marion	1949	Barbershop
Boston's Billiard Parlor - Tavern	36 Latrobe Street	Grafton	Taylor	1949-1955	Tavern
Jones Restaurant	Latrobe Street	Grafton	Taylor	1949-1966	Restaurant
Mrs. Geo. Jones	Front Street	Grafton	Taylor	1949-1961	Lodging
River View Lodge	Storer College	Harpers Ferry	Jefferson	1939-1940	Hotel
Hilltop House Hotel	400 E Ridge Street	Harpers Ferry	Jefferson	1939-1940	Hotel
Maya Priv. Guest House	136 State Street	Hinton	Summers	1950-1966	Tourist Home
Emile's Cleaning & Pressing		Hinton	Summers	1951-1955	Dry Cleaning
The Price House	109 2 nd Avenue	Hinton	Summers	1952-1966	Tourist Homes
Fox Theater	1640 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1939	Theater
Alpha Dance Hall	1636 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1939	Dance Hall
E. Washington	1657 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1941	Tourist Home
Appomattox Club	1659 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1941	Nightclub
J. Harrison	1615 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1941	Barbershop
Mrs. Pack	1612 Artisan Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1941	Beauty Parlor
Massey's Hotel	837 7 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1949	Hotel
Southern Fair	921 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1949	Hotel
J. Gross	839 7 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1949	Restaurant
South Side Garage	716 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1951	Automobile-Related
Monroe's Tavern	1616 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1955	Tavern
Sterling Service Station	Corner of 12 th Street & 3 rd Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1955	Automobile-Related
Ross House	911 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1938-1966	Hotel
Mrs. R. J. Lewis	1412 10 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1939-1940	Tourist Home
Mrs. C. J. Barnett	810 7 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1939-1940	Tourist Home
Mrs. Jones-Tourist	1824 10 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1939-1940	Tourist Home

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Name of Resource	Address	City	County	Green Book Years	Business Type
Home					
Mrs. B Bowling Tourist Home	1517 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1939-1940	Tourist Home
The Alpha	1624 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1947-1948	Tavern
Louise's Beauty Parlor	821 19 th Street	Huntington	Cabell	1947-1955	Beauty Parlor
Parker's Restaurant	8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1949-1952	Restaurant
Seventh Avenue Grill		Huntington	Cabell	1949-1953	Tavern
Harlem Club	1211 7 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1949-1950	Nightclub
Party Taxi Cab		Huntington	Cabell	1949-1955	Automobile- Related
Dick's Place	830 7 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1950-1952	Restaurant
The Spot	1614 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1950-1966	Restaurant
Madelon's Beauty Parlor	1802 Doulton Avenue/917 16 th St	Huntington	Cabell	1950-1952	Beauty Parlor
McDade's Clean & Press	1642 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1950-1951	Tailor
Uptown Record Shop	1616 8 th Avenue	Huntington	Cabell	1950-1953	
Finley's Tavern	8 th and 16 th Streets	Huntington	Cabell	1951-1955	Tavern
Billy's Place	850 16 th Street	Huntington	Cabell	1961	Restaurant
Barnett Motel	9 th Avenue at 14 th Street	Huntington	Cabell	1961	Motel
White's Superette Service Station	Rt. 25	Institute	Kanawha	1950-1955	Automobile- Related
Pack's Esso Station Service Station		Institute	Kanawha	1950-1955	Automobile- Related
State College Esso Service Station	PO Box 113, Route 25, on the highway adjoining WVSC	Institute	Kanawha	1961	Automobile- Related
Franklin Motel		Keystone	McDowell	1950-1957	Motel
Howard's Drug Store		Keystone	McDowell	1950-1955	Drug Store
Sam Wade's Café		Keystone	McDowell	1951-1955	Restaurant
City Hotel		Kimball	McDowell	1951-1954	Hotel
Smith's Beauty Shop		Kimball	McDowell	1951-1954	Beauty Shop
Palace Restaurant		Kimball	McDowell	1951-1954	Restaurant
New Royal Hotel	223 Gaines Street	Montgomery	Fayette	1949-1957	Hotel
Ritz Café	211 Gaines Street	Montgomery	Fayette	1949	Restaurant
The Green Front	188 ½ 3 rd Avenue	Montgomery	Fayette	1949-1955	Tavern
Synder's Beauty Parlor	Fayette Pike	Montgomery	Fayette	1949-1955	Beauty Parlor
Gray's Taxi Service	212 Gaines Street	Montgomery	Fayette	1949-1955	Automobile- Related
Cobb's Restaurant	116-118 Kirk Street	Morgantown	Monongalia	1949-1953	Restaurant
American Legion	1020 University Avenue	Morgantown	Monongalia	1949-1954	Nightclub
Okey Ogden	1046 College Avenue	Morgantown	Monongalia	1949-1952	Tourist Home

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Name of Resource	Address	City	County	Green Book Years	Business Type
Lodging					
Mrs. Linnie Mae Slaughter Lodging	3 Cayton Street	Morgantown	Monongalia	1949-1966	Tourist Home
Mrs. Jeannette O Parker Lodging	2 Cayton Street	Morgantown	Monongalia	1949-1966	Tourist Home
J. A. G. Edwards Lodging	504 (501) White Avenue	Morgantown	Monongalia	1949	Tourist Home
Mrs. Blanch Campbell	300 West 4 th Street	Moundsville	Marshall	1950-1966	Tourist Home
Houchins Hotel & Café		Northfork	McDowell	1951-1966	Hotel/Restaurant
Hough's Barbershop		Northfork	McDowell	1951-1955	Barberhop
American Legion	812 Avery St	Parkersburg	Wood	1941-1955	Nightclub
Barnett's Lodging	Beckley Road	Princeton	Mercer	1951-1952	Lodging
Johnson's Lodging	High Street	Princeton	Mercer	1951-1952	Lodging
Twilight Inn	High Street	Princeton	Mercer	1951-1955	Tavern
Spotlight Grill	Beckley Road	Princeton	Mercer	1951-1955	Tavern
Mrs. Robert Williams Lodging	Kessel Street	Weirton	Hancock	1950-1954	Tourist Home
Capheart Hotel	14 Virginia Avenue	Welch	McDowell	1939-1966	Hotel
Verse Hotel	1042 Market	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1940	Hotel
Mrs J. T. Hughes Tourist Home	1021 Goff (Eoff) Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1940	Tourist Home
Mrs. C. Early Tourist Home	132 12 th Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1949	Tourist Home
Mrs. R. Williams – Tourist Home	1007 Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1949	Tourist Home
Singetlery	1043 Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-19449	Restaurant
Miss Hall - Beauty Parlor	Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1949	Beauty Parlor
Miss Taylor – Beauty Parlor	Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1949	Beauty Parlor
American Legion	1516 Main St (1059 Chapline)	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1955	Nightclub
Elk Club	1010 Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1955	Nightclub
Mrs. W. C. Turner – Tourist Home	114 12 Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1939-1960	Tourist Home
Blue Traingle Branch, YWCA	108 12st Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1949-1956	Lodging
Blue Goose	1035 Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1950-1957	Restaurant
Daisy Hall – Beauty Parlor	41 ½ 11 th Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1950-1953	Beauty Parlor
Mode Craft – Beauty Parlor	1028 ½ Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1950-1954	Beauty Parlor
North Side Pharmacy	Chapline Street	Wheeling	Ohio	1950-1955	Drug Store
Brooks - Tourist	138 Church Street	White Sulphur	Greenbrier	1941-1955	Tourist Home

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Name of Resource	Address	City	County	Green Book Years	Business Type
Home		Springs			
Haywood Place	Church Street	White Sulphur Springs	Greenbrier	1947-1955	Tourist Home
Slaughter's – Tourist Home		White Sulphur Springs	Greenbrier	1949-1966	Tourist Home
Whittico's Drug Store	E Third	Williamson	Mingo	1949-1955	Drug Store
Elk's Club	Vinson Street	Williamson	Mingo	1949-1955	Nightclub
Mrs. A. Wright – Lodging	603 Logan Street	Williamson	Mingo	1949-1955	Lodging
Garner's Tailor	E Third	Williamson	Mingo	1950-1955	Tailor

Table 5: Green Book Sites in West Virginia

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Green Book Sites in West Virginia
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F. Associated Property Types

(Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)

Historic properties associated with the “Green Book Sites in West Virginia” historic context fall into two categories: West Virginia Businesses listed in the Green Book and historic districts. The West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office has reviewed available issues of *The Negro Motorist Green Book* and compiled an Excel spreadsheet of 140 sites in West Virginia in one or more available issues. This spreadsheet includes the name of sites, resource type, address (if known), city, years listed, and whether the sites are extant. Of the 140 sites, three are extant and listed in the National Register of Historic Places, 10 are extant and not listed in the National Register, 56 have vague or incomplete location information and have not been verified as extant, 13 are possibly extant but require further verification, and 58 have been demolished.

1. *West Virginia Businesses listed in the Green Book* include both residential and commercial properties that are located in urban areas. Residential and commercial properties in West Virginia were listed in *The Negro Motorist Green Book* between 1938 and 1966.

- Residential properties include single family dwellings that served as boarding houses, tourist homes, or beauty parlors and are located in predominantly Black neighborhoods. Constructed in the early twentieth century, the residences were designed in a variety of architectural styles. It is very likely residential properties have been altered with replacement windows, siding, and additions or a new roof; however, alterations should not affect the property’s eligibility.
- Commercial buildings are also located in predominantly Black neighborhoods and in and near commercial downtown. Constructed in the early twentieth century, the commercial buildings were designed in a variety of architectural styles. These commercial buildings may be serving other functions or are vacant. Similar to residential properties, commercial buildings may have been altered with replacement windows or a new roof. Two types of businesses, tourist homes and beauty parlors, may qualify as both residential and commercial.

Subtypes/Historic Functions:

Hotels
Motels
Tourist Cabins
Tourist Homes
Restaurants
Taverns
Theaters
Dance Halls
Beauty Parlors
Barber Shops
Pharmacies/Drug Stores
Gas Stations
Service Garages
Repair Shops
Taxi Services

2. *Historic Districts* include residential and commercial properties that are located close together in urban areas with little to no intrusions. Historic Districts have two or more properties that were listed in *The Negro Motorist Green Book* between 1938 and 1966. The properties may share the same or include a variety of business types. The properties were constructed in the early-to-mid twentieth century. It is likely the properties have been altered with replacement windows, siding, additions, or a new roof.

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Significance

Most properties associated with the MPD form “Green Book Sites in West Virginia” will be significant at the local level under Criterion A, in the areas of Commerce, Transportation, and/or Ethnic Heritage/Black. If a residential or commercial property is extant and was listed in the *Negro Motorist’s Green Book* at any time, the property contributes to the larger narrative of African-American heritage and history in West Virginia.

Some properties may be eligible under Criterion B for being associated with a person significant to the story of Green Book sites in West Virginia. Black business owners and operators were often involved within their communities, serving in leadership roles within the church, fraternal organizations, or civil rights organizations.

Registration Requirements for Residential and Commercial Properties

1. Listing in the *Negro Motorist Green Book*

Residential and commercial properties recommended eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places individually or as a historic district should be verified as listed in the *Negro Motorist Green Book*. Copies of the Green Book are available online at the New York Public Library website as well as the Library of Congress website. Victor H. Green’s Publishing Company published the *Negro Motorist Green Book*, also known as *The Negro Travelers’ Green Book* and *The Travelers Green Book*, annually between 1936 and 1966. Green took a brief break from publishing between 1942 and 1946 due to World War II rationing. The 1938 edition of the Green Book was the first time sites in West Virginia appeared and continued until the last edition was published in 1966. The number of sites and their locations varied from year to year.

2. Period of Significance

The overall Period of Significance for Green Book sites in West Virginia is 1938 to 1966-67, beginning with the first year West Virginia sites were included in *The Negro Motorist Green Book* and ending the last year it was published. The Period of Significance for individual properties and districts listed under this Multiple Property Documentation includes the year or span of years the sites were listed in the Green Book.

3. Historic Integrity

Location

Residential and commercial properties should be located on the original site. Green Book sites were located in urban areas such as in commercial downtown areas or predominantly Black neighborhoods. Some properties listed in the Green Book lack an address or the street name and number may have changed. Additional research using historic maps and city directories should be utilized to verify the site’s location.

Setting

The neighborhoods in which Green Book sites were located have likely undergone substantial changes since a property’s appearance in the Green Book, including alterations and demolitions. Predominantly Black neighborhoods historically received less investment than white neighborhoods due to discriminatory lending practices and socioeconomic challenges. Urban renewal and associated discriminatory policies and segregation also lead to the demolition and bifurcation of historically Black neighborhoods. Changes in the setting around a Green Book site do not diminish a Green Book property’s significance under Criterion A.

Design, Materials, and Workmanship

As function-based buildings rather than high-style architecture, automobile and travel related properties are likely to have undergone alterations including additions, replacement materials, and conversion to different uses. Furthermore, increased poverty in West Virginia due to the decline of industry and investment disparities in Black neighborhoods may have resulted in damage, deterioration and repairs, additions, and alterations using historically incompatible materials. Materials including siding, windows, and doors are likely to be replaced, covered, or otherwise altered. A Green Book

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site's significance lies in its listing as a safe place for Black travelers regardless of its design, materials, or workmanship. However, the original historic design of the building, including its basic form, massing, and scale, should be discernible as the original building listed in the Green Book in order to retain sufficient integrity to be listed under Criterion A.

Examples of properties likely to retain integrity under this context:

- Tourist home retaining original house form, but has replacement siding and porch removed.
- Gas station with garage bays infilled or replaced and original pumps removed
- Hotel that has been converted into offices and has replacement windows and storefronts

Examples of properties that may not retain sufficient integrity under this context:

- Commercial building that has only the façade remaining, and the rest of the building structure has been reconstructed
- A structure that has been enclosed on all sides with large additions that completely obscure the original building
- A building that is so altered that it is unclear whether it is the original structure or a replacement

Feeling and Association

By virtue of its inclusion in the Green Book, a Green Book site retains feeling and association as a place where Black travelers could safely obtain food, lodging, and services. If the building is still standing and is discernible as the original structure, it retains integrity of feeling and association.

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G. Geographical Data

The State of West Virginia.

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H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

The project area for Green Books Sites in West Virginia is defined as within the borders of West Virginia. The West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) staff reviewed available issues of the *Negro Motorist Green Book* and compiled a spreadsheet of 140 sites listed in one or more issues, including the site name, addresses (if known), cities, years included in the Green Book, survey identification number, and existence status (if known). Additional research is needed to determine whether unknown or possible sites are demolished or extant. 58 of the 140 sites are confirmed to have been demolished. Table 4 lists the remaining 82 extant or potentially extant sites.

The preparers of this MPD reviewed copies of *The Negro Motorist Green Book* as well as the “Green Book Historic Context and AACRN Listing Guidance” prepared by the National Park Service. These resources assisted in the selection of themes including the Role of Black Women, Segregation, and Transportation. Additional existing literature regarding Black history, industrialization, migration, laws, and the state’s political climate were also consulted. Staff consulted articles and books written by historian Joe William Trotter, Jr. He is a Professor of History and Social Justice where he teaches courses in African American, labor, and working-class history and is also the founder of the Center for African American Urban Studies and the Economy (CAUSE) at Carnegie Mellon. The book *Black Huntington: An Appalachian Story* and articles written by Huntington native and historian Dr. Cicero M. Fain III were also consulted. Dr. Fain is a professor of History and serves as the Assistant Provost for Inclusive Excellence at Marshall University.

City	Name & Resource Type	Green Book Address	Green Book Year(s)	Status
Cabell County				
Huntington	South Side - Garage	716 8th Ave	1938-1951	Possibly Extant
Huntington	Barnett Motel	9th Avenue at 14th Street	1961	Possibly Extant
Huntington	Madelon's - Beauty Parlor	1802 Doulton Ave. / 917 16th St.	1950-1952	Possibly Extant (Doulton Ave. location)
Huntington	Parker's - Restaurant	8th Avenue	1949-1952	Location not identified
Huntington	Seventh Avenue Grill - Tavern		1949-1953	Location not identified
Huntington	Party Taxi Cab		1949-1955	Location not identified
Huntington	Finley's - Tavern	8th & 16th	1951-1955	Location not identified
Huntington	Mrs. R. J. Lewis - Tourist Home	1412 10th Ave	1939-1940	Extant, not listed
Huntington	Louise's - Beauty Parlor	821 19th St.	1947-1955	Extant, not listed
Fayette County				
Montgomery	Snyder's - Beauty Parlor	Fayette Pike	1949-1955	Location not identified
Greenbrier County				
White Sulphur Springs	Brooks - Tourist Home	138 Church St	1941-1955	Possibly Extant
E. Rainelle	Traveler's Inn - Restaurant	Main St. / Rt. 60	1949-1952	Location not identified
White Sulphur Springs	Haywood Place - Tourist Home	Church St.	1947-1955	Location not identified
White Sulphur Springs	Slaughter's - Tourist Home		1949-1966	Location not identified
Hancock County				
Chester	Kenneth B. Johnson - Barbershop	505 Carolina Ave.	1953-1955	Possibly Extant
Weirton	Mrs. Robert Williams - Lodging	Kessel St.	1950-1954	Location not identified
Harrison County				
Clarksburg	American Legion - Nightclub	Monticello St.	1949-1954	Location not identified

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City	Name & Resource Type	Green Book Address	Green Book Year(s)	Status
Clarksburg	Elks - Nightclub	First Street	1949-1955	Location not identified
Clarksburg	Johnson's - Tavern	Monticello St.	1949-1955	Location not identified
Jefferson County				
Harpers Ferry	River View Lodge - Hotel	Storer College	1939-1940	Possibly Extant
Kanawha County				
Charleston	Penn's - Hotel	W. Charleston	1950-1966	Location not identified
Charleston	Bob's Place - Restaurant	E. Washington St.	1950-1951	Location not identified
Charleston	Perkins & Watson at Bradford - Service Station		1950-1953	Location not identified
Charleston	Thomas' - Letter Service		1951	Location not identified
Charleston / St. Albans	Hall's Park Tourist Cabins	U.S. Route 60, 10 miles west of Charleston	1949-1953	Location not identified
Institute	White's Superette - Service Station	Rt. 25	1950-1955	Likely Demolished
Institute	Pack's Esso Station - Service Station		1950-1955	Location not identified
Institute	State College Esso Service Station	P.O. Box 113, Route 25, right on the Highway adjoining the Campus of West Virginia State College	1961	Likely Demolished
Marion County				
Fairmont	Whittaker's Grill - Restaurant	Pennsylvania Ave.	1949-1955	Location not identified
Fairmont	Parker's - Beauty School	Pennsylvania Ave.	1949-1955	Location not identified
Fairmont	Monongahela Hotel	Madison Street	1949-1954	Location not identified
Fairmont	Bailey's - Barbershop	Madison Street	1949	Location not identified
McDowell County				
Welch	Capheart - Hotel	14 Virginia Ave	1939-1966	Likely Demolished
Keystone	Franklin - Motel	Coal Street	1950-1957	Possibly Demolished
Keystone	Howard's - Drug Store	East Main Street	1950-1955	Possibly Extant
Keystone	Sam Wade's Café - Restaurant	Midway Coal Street	1951-1955	Likely Demolished
Kimball	City Hotel		1951-1954	Location not identified
Kimball	Smith's - Beauty Shop		1951-1954	Location not identified
Kimball	Palace - Restaurant		1951-1954	Location not identified
Northfork	Houchins Hotel & Café		1951-1966	Likely demolished
Northfork	Hough's - Barbershop		1951-1955	Likely demolished
Mercer County				
Bluefield	Hub - Restaurant	731 Bland	1961	Likely Extant
Bluefield	Kinglow's - Drug Store	820 Bland Street	1950-1955	Extant, not listed
Princeton	Barnett's - Lodging	Beckley Road	1951-1952	Location not identified
Princeton	Johnson's - Lodging	High St.	1951-1952	Location not identified
Princeton	Twilight Inn - Tavern	High St.	1951-1955	Location not identified
Princeton	Spotlight Grill - Tavern	Princeton-Beckley Road	1951-1955	Location not identified
Bluefield	Traveler's Inn - Hotel	1039 Wayne Street	1959-1966	Extant, not listed
Bluefield	Hotel Thelma	1047 Wayne St.	1950-1961	Extant, not listed
Bluefield	Traveler's Inn - Hotel	602 Raleigh Street	1940-1957	Extant, listed
Mingo County				
Williamson	Whittico's - Drug Store	E. Third	1949-1955	Location not identified
Williamson	Elk's Club - Nightclub	Vinson St.	1949-1955	Location not identified

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Williamson	Garner's - Tailor	E. Third	1950-1955	Location not identified
Monongalia County				
Morgantown	Okey Ogden - Lodging	1046 College Ave.	1949-1952	Extant, not listed
Morgantown	Mrs. Linnie Mae Slaughter - Lodging	3 Cayton St.	1949-1966	Extant, not listed
Morgantown	Mrs. Jeannette O. Parker - Lodging	2 Cayton St.	1949-1966	Extant, not listed
Morgantown	J. A. G. Edwards - Lodging	504 White Avenue (501?)	1949	Extant, not listed
Ohio County				
Wheeling	Verse - Hotel	1042 Market	1939-1940	Possibly Extant
Wheeling	Miss Hall - Beauty Parlor	Chapline St	1939-1949	Location not identified
Wheeling	Miss Taylor - Beauty Parlor	Chapline St	1939-1949	Location not identified
Wheeling	Daisy Hall - Beauty Parlor	64 1/2 11th Street	1950-1953	Location not identified
Wheeling	North Side Pharmacy - Drug Store	Chapline St	1950-1955	Location not identified
Wheeling	Blue Triangle Branch, Y.W.C.A. - Lodging	108 12 St.	1949-1956	Extant, listed
Wheeling	Blue Goose - Restaurant	1035 Chapline St.	1950-1957	Extant, listed
Raleigh County				
Beckley	Home Service - Restaurant	37 Prince St/ 338 1/2 S. Fayette St	1939-1953	Possibly Extant
Beckley	Moss's - Service Station	135/501 S. Fayette St	1939-1955	Likely Extant
Beckley	New Pioneer - Hotel	58 S. Fayette St / 340 S. Fayette St.	1939-1966	Possibly Extant
Beckley	Payne's - Barbershop	338 S. Fayette St.	1947-1955	Possibly Extant
Beckley	American Legion - Nightclub	S. Fayette St.	1949	Location not identified
Beckley	Beckino Club - Nightclub	S. Fayette St.	1947-1949	Location not identified
Beckley	Robertson's - Taxicab		1947-1949	Location not identified
Beckley	Chesterfield Club - Nightclub	New Pioneer Hotel	1947-1949	Location not identified
Beckley	Fuqua's - Beauty Parlor	Fugua Bldg. S. Fayette St.	1947-1954	Location not identified
Beckley	Simpson's - Barbershop	New Pioneer Hotel	1947-1954	Location not identified
Beckley	Katie's Vanity - Beauty Parlor	S. Fayette St.	1947-1955	Location not identified
Beckley	Morton Drug - Drug Store	S. Fayette St. (opposite of New Pioneer Hotel)	1947-1955	Location not identified
Beckley	Nuway - Taxicab		1947-1955	Location not identified
Beckley	Mrs. M. E. Carter - Lodging	206 Church St.	1949	Extant, not listed
Beckley	Mrs. E. Morton - Tourist Home	430 S. Fayette St.	1947-1949	Extant, not listed
Summers County				
Hinton	Emile's Cleaning & Pressing - Dry Cleaning		1951-1955	Location not identified
Taylor County				
Grafton	Jones - Restaurant	Latrobe St.	1949-1966	Location not identified
Grafton	Mrs. Geo. Jones - Lodging	Front St.	1949-1961	Location not identified

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