

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

LISTED ON:
VLR 06/21/2012
NRHP 08/22/2012

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin, *How to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form*. If any item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and areas of significance, enter only categories and subcategories from the instructions. **Place additional certification comments, entries, and narrative items on continuation sheets if needed (NPS Form 10-900a).**

1. Name of Property

historic name Armstrong Elementary School

other names/site number VDHR No. 118-5320

2. Location

street & number 1721 Monsview Place N/A not for publication

city or town Lynchburg N/A vicinity

state Virginia code VA county Independent City code 680 zip code 24504

3. State/Federal Agency Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended,

I hereby certify that this nomination ___ request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60.

In my opinion, the property meets ___ does not meet the National Register Criteria. I recommend that this property be considered significant at the following level(s) of significance:

national statewide local


Signature of certifying official


Date

Title Virginia Department of Historic Resources
State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

In my opinion, the property ___ meets ___ does not meet the National Register criteria.

Signature of commenting official

Date

Title _____
State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

4. National Park Service Certification

I, hereby, certify that this property is:

entered in the National Register determined eligible for the National Register

determined not eligible for the National Register removed from the National Register

other (explain:) _____

Signature of the Keeper

Date of Action

5. Classification

Ownership of Property
(Check as many boxes as apply)

Category of Property
(Check only **one** box)

Number of Resources within Property
(Do not include previously listed resources in the count.)

<input type="checkbox"/>	private
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	public - Local
<input type="checkbox"/>	public - State
<input type="checkbox"/>	public - Federal

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	building(s)
<input type="checkbox"/>	district
<input type="checkbox"/>	site
<input type="checkbox"/>	structure
<input type="checkbox"/>	building(s)
<input type="checkbox"/>	object

Contributing	Noncontributing	
1	0	buildings
0	0	sites
0	0	structures
0	0	objects
		buildings
1	0	Total

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

N/A

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register

N/A

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions
(Enter categories from instructions)

EDUCATION: School

Current Functions
(Enter categories from instructions)

OTHER: Storage

7. Description

Architectural Classification
(Enter categories from instructions)

MODERN MOVEMENT: Moderne

Materials
(Enter categories from instructions)

foundation: Concrete

walls: Brick

roof: Asphalt

other:

Narrative Description

(Describe the historic and current physical appearance of the property. Explain contributing and noncontributing resources if necessary. Begin with a **summary paragraph** that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, setting, size, and significant features.)

Summary Paragraph

See Continuation Sheets

Narrative Description

See Continuation Sheets

8. Statement of Significance

Applicable National Register Criteria

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

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

Criteria Considerations

(Mark "x" in all the boxes that apply)

Property is:

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

Areas of Significance

(Enter categories from instructions)

EDUCATION

ETHNIC HERITAGE: African American

ARCHITECTURE

Period of Significance

1954-1962

Significant Dates

1954

Significant Person

(Complete only if Criterion B is marked above)

N/A

Cultural Affiliation

N/A

Architect/Builder

Wickliffe, David Porter, Jr.

Period of Significance (justification)

The period of significance begins in 1954, the year that Armstrong Elementary School opened, and ends fifty years ago in 1962 when Armstrong Elementary still functioned as a segregated school.

Criteria Considerations (explanation, if necessary)

N/A

Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph (provide a summary paragraph that includes level of significance and applicable criteria)

See Continuation Sheets

Narrative Statement of Significance (provide at least **one** paragraph for each area of significance)

See Continuation Sheets

Developmental history/additional historic context information (if appropriate)

See Continuation Sheets

9. Major Bibliographical References

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

Previous documentation on file (NPS):

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

Primary location of additional data:

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

**Virginia Department of Historic Resources,
Richmond, VA**

Name of repository:

Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): VDHR no. 118-5320

10. Geographical Data

Acreage of Property About 2 acres
(Do not include previously listed resource acreage)

UTM References

(Place additional UTM references on a continuation sheet)

1	<u>17</u> Zone	<u>662748</u> Easting	<u>4143893</u> Northing	3	<u> </u> Zone	<u> </u> Easting	<u> </u> Northing
2	<u> </u> Zone	<u> </u> Easting	<u> </u> Northing	4	<u> </u> Zone	<u> </u> Easting	<u> </u> Northing

Verbal Boundary Description (describe the boundaries of the property)

The boundary for the nominated property is the southern portion of Lynchburg tax parcel 02130002. The property is shown on the attached Lynchburg tax parcel map.

Boundary Justification (explain why the boundaries were selected)

The nominated property contains the existing school and the site of the original school that was demolished in 1959. It does not include the open land northwest of the school where the playground is thought to have been located. That land is the northern half of tax parcel 02130002 and parcel 02130001 on the Lynchburg tax parcel map. The playground apparently was located across Grayson Street, which ran in front of both the existing and original school and no longer exists. There is no physical evidence of the playground and none of the playground equipment survives. The land has been graded and today is an open grass-covered field. The field lacks integrity as a playground associated with the Armstrong School.

11. Form Prepared By

name/title Ashley Neville & John Salmon

organization Ashley Neville, LLC. date March 9, 2012

street & number 112 Thompson Street, Suite B-1 telephone 804-798-2124

city or town Ashland state VA zip code 23059

e-mail ashleyneville@comcast.net

Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- **Maps:** A **USGS map** (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.

A **Sketch map** for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources. Key all photographs to this map.
- **Continuation Sheets**
- **Additional items:** (Check with the SHPO or FPO for any additional items)

Photographs:

Submit clear and descriptive black and white photographs. The size of each image must be 1600x1200 pixels at 300 ppi (pixels per inch) or larger. Key all photographs to the sketch map.

Name of Property: Armstrong Elementary School
City or Vicinity: Lynchburg
County: Independent City **State:** Virginia
Photographer: Ashley Neville

Date Photographed: November 2011 and January 2012

Description of Photograph(s) and number:

- 1 of 10. Façade, view to the east
- 2 of 10. Main entrances, view to the south
- 3 of 10. Façade, view to the east
- 4 of 10. Rear and gymnasium, view to the northeast
- 5 of 10. Lobby stairs, view to the southeast
- 6 of 10. Second floor corridor, view to the northeast
- 7 of 10. Second floor lobby-corridor, view to the northwest
- 8 of 10. Typical classroom, view to the northeast
- 9 of 10. Stage in Cafetorium, view to the south
- 10 of 10. Gymnasium interior, view to the west

Property Owner:

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

Name City of Lynchburg
street & number 900 Church Street telephone 434-455-3990
city or town Lynchburg state VA zip code 24504

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.).
Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Office of Planning and Performance Management, U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1849 C. Street, NW, Washington, DC.

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SUMMARY DESCRIPTION

The Armstrong Elementary School stands on a mostly open lot in a residential neighborhood in northeast Lynchburg. Opened in 1954 as an equalization school for African American children, it is a long, two-story, brick-veneer building with a concrete porch on the façade and paired multiple-light aluminum windows providing ample light for each classroom. The building footprint is divided into five sections: the twelve-bay-long classroom block that gives the school its horizontal massing, the shorter, rectangular-shaped cafetorium (combination cafeteria and auditorium) on the northeast end of the classroom block with a smaller kitchen wing, a large rectangular gymnasium on the rear, and the adjacent small boiler room. The building faces an open grassy area where the playground was once located but all evidence of the playground is now gone. The school was designed by David Wickline of Lynchburg in the streamlined Moderne style popular at the time and shares characteristics of many equalization schools built throughout the South prior to the *Brown v Board of Education of Topeka*, Kansas Supreme Court decision that struck down racial segregation in public schools.

NARRATIVE DESCRIPTION

The Armstrong School faces northwest on a mostly open lot and is oriented to an expansive grassy field where the playground was originally located. The former playground area is not a part of the nominated area because it has been graded and lost its ability to convey its use as a school playground. The land is open to the front with several dogwood trees near the entrance and mature white pine trees toward the southwestern end of the front. A hedge flanks the northeastern end of the concrete sidewalk that extends across the front of the school connecting each entrance. An aluminum canopy shelters the end of the sidewalk between the street and the main school entrance. Concrete sidewalks also form a square at the northeastern end of the front. The area inside the square is partially paved with bricks and was landscaped but is now overgrown. The lot slopes down to the rear where an asphalt-paved parking lot is located. A chain link fence extends along the southwestern property line and encloses a yard on that end of the school.

Most schools are oriented to a street and the original Armstrong School, built in 1917, faced Grayson Street that extended from Monsview Place on the east to Boston Avenue on the west. Houses stood across Grayson Street from the school and along the west side of Monsview Place as late as 1955. Some time after 1955, Grayson Street was closed and the land incorporated into the school grounds leaving the existing school facing an open field instead of a street. The original school stood in front of the new Armstrong School, completed in 1954, and was used as an annex for five years until it was demolished in 1959.

The school is a long, two-story concrete-block building with a brick veneer laid in five-course American bond. It has a cast-concrete foundation on the façade and sides and a cast-in-place concrete foundation visible on the banked rear. The roof is flat with cast-concrete coping and is covered with a built-up material. The building

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footprint has three main components: the twelve-bay-long classroom block that gives the school its horizontal massing, the shorter, rectangular-shaped cafetorium on the northeast end of the classroom block, and a large rectangular gymnasium on the rear. A smaller kitchen wing is located on the east side of the cafetorium and a small boiler room is located on the west side of the gymnasium.

There are three entrances on the front, two into the classroom block and one into the cafetorium. The main entrance is recessed and is sheltered by a one-story, two-bay concrete structure onto which has been added a long, corrugated aluminum canopy that extends to the street. This entrance consists of three half-light doors topped by a transom with one large side-light on the northeastern side. The entire composition is surrounded by wooden molding. A large window wraps around the southwest side of the recessed area and onto the façade. All windows and doors are covered with plywood on the first floor. The secondary façade entrance into the classroom block is located at the southwestern end and is housed in a projecting one-bay tower. The entrance tower contains a double-leaf, half-light door sheltered by a canopy. A tall single multiple-light window lights the stairwell.

The southwestern end of the classroom block is blank except for an entrance and window above. The double-leaf, half-light doors are sheltered by a canopy and projecting brick wing walls. The window above is a short, paired aluminum multiple-light window with slightly projecting lintel and sill. The wall beneath the window is stuccoed – the only example of this treatment on the school.

Windows in the classroom block are paired, multiple-light, aluminum windows with an operable center section. All windows have cast-concrete lintels and sills. On the façade, continuous concrete lintels and sills group sets of three and five paired windows together giving the illusion of larger windows. On the rear, the windows on the southwestern half of the building are likewise grouped together.

The third facade doorway enters directly into the cafetorium: a multipurpose room that served as both a cafeteria and auditorium. The three-bay cafetorium projects beyond both the classroom block on one side and its kitchen wing on the other side. The entrance and flanking windows are placed within a section that projects from the face of the cafetorium. The entrance consists of a double-leaf door with a single upper light topped with a tall multiple-light transom. Tall multiple-light windows flank the entrance, creating the impression of three tall windows. A cast-concrete cornice, the lower portion painted white, caps the window-and-door section. A wing attached to the northeastern end of the cafetorium was the kitchen. On the side of the kitchen wing is a concrete loading dock for the delivery of supplies to the school. A concrete retaining wall on the eastern side of the loading dock mediates the change in grade of the land as it slopes to the rear of the lot on this side of the school. The windows on the side of the wing are smaller but also have cast-concrete lintels and sills.

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A large gymnasium block is located immediately to the rear of the cafetorium. Due to the topography of the site, the gymnasium sits at a lower level than the cafetorium so that the roofs of the two blocks are at the same height. The gymnasium consists of two blocks: the tall six-bay gym itself and a shorter, seven-bay section across the rear or southeastern side that houses the exterior entrance and locker rooms on either side of the entrance. The gymnasium connects to the classroom block at the main stair in the classroom block, providing access directly from the classrooms to the gym; however, the main public entrance was at the rear of the gym. The windows on the gymnasium section are paired two-over-two horizontal-lights with cast-concrete lintels and sills. The lower section has single one-over-one-light windows with cast-concrete sills. Like the front entrance, the exterior gymnasium entrance is recessed with double-leaf doors with an upper light in each leaf.

Adjacent to the gymnasium on the southwestern end is the boiler room. Like the rest of the building, it is brick veneer with a cast-in-place concrete foundation and flat roof. All windows and doors are covered with plywood. There is a tall chimney toward the northwest end of the block.

The interior of the entire school is well preserved and retains its historic finishes and character-defining features. The first floor is now used for storage by the city. The main entrance opens into a lobby with the main stairs rising directly ahead on the rear wall of the classroom block. The interior entrance into the cafetorium opens on the northeastern side of the lobby and a long corridor on the southwestern side. The classroom block has a double-loaded corridor plan on both floors with stairs at each end. On the northeastern end, the stairs are located at the rear of the building while the stairs at the southwestern end are located on the front of the building. The corridor, lobby, and stair walls have a tall wainscot of glazed block with plain painted concrete block above. The ceilings are sheathed with acoustical tile with surface-mounted fluorescent light fixtures. The stairs have a solid balustrade with wooden handrails mounted on the inside of the balustrade and the walls. The floors are tile. The classrooms feature painted block walls, tile floors, and acoustical-tile ceilings with surface-mounted lights. In some classrooms, a blackboard is located along the short end wall with a bulletin board on the long wall. Some classrooms have a painted wainscot. There is plain trim around the doors and blackboards. Corridor doors are flush with a single light towards the top of the door.

The cafetorium was one large room with a raised stage at the rear but has since been subdivided into several rooms with less than full-height modern partition walls. A modern wall has also been built across the stage. The finishes in the cafetorium are similar to the rest of the school: painted block walls, tile floors, and acoustical-tile ceiling with surface-mounted light fixtures.

The gymnasium block consists of a full-size gym, two locker rooms that flank the short entrance hall, and a third room between the gym and the cafetorium. The gymnasium is outfitted as a typical basketball court with backboards and hoops at each end, a hardwood floor with typical markings, and an exposed bar joist ceiling

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with lights among the joists. The walls are painted block above a wainscot of brick laid in five-course bond with the sixth course laid in Flemish bond.

Armstrong school is in good condition and is little changed except for modern partition walls in the cafetorium and some classrooms. Most of the plumbing fixtures have been removed from the gang toilets in the classroom block. On the exterior, the only change is the addition of the metal canopy that extends from the front entrance to the street. Overall, Armstrong School exhibits a high degree of architectural integrity.

The Modern Movement in architectural design, which encompassed Art Deco, Art Moderne, and the International style, was first popularized in Europe and spread to the United States in the 1920s. Many of the schools built in the 1950s incorporated a stripped down version of Art Moderne. The height, massing, and length of the classroom block at Armstrong, with a regular pattern of fenestration and its placement relative to the cafetorium and gymnasium, create a composition with strong horizontal lines reminiscent of Art Moderne-style influences. The continuous cast-concrete lintels and sills over groups of windows continue the horizontal character of the school. Although now somewhat obscured by the later metal canopy, the original low, flat-roof concrete entrance canopy that sheltered the recessed entrance further reinforces the horizontal feeling of the school. Armstrong School is a good example of mid-1950s scholastic architecture that was used when school design shifted to smaller schools.

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Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph

Armstrong School is significant because it is a rare example in Lynchburg of an elementary school constructed for African American students just before the 1954 United States Supreme Court decision in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* that struck down racial segregation in public schools. The school is eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A for its association with the doctrine of “separate but equal” that *Brown* overturned. It was a so-called “equalization school,” intended by racial segregationists to stave off integration by offering modern amenities approximately equal to those of white elementary schools of the same era. Armstrong School is also eligible for listing under Criterion C as an example of a vernacular interpretation of the Art Moderne style that reflects the school design trends typical of the era. The school has intact exterior and interior architectural features and retains a high degree of integrity of its historic location, association, setting, feeling, design, materials, and workmanship.

Narrative Statement of Significance

In 1869, during the Reconstruction era that followed the Civil War, Virginia adopted a new state constitution that mandated public education throughout the Commonwealth. Conservative elitists, whose children typically were either tutored at home or attended private-subscription schools, vigorously opposed the concept of public education and the funding of public schools with tax dollars. The advocates of the new system gradually defeated the conservatives by acknowledging local control over each jurisdiction’s schools. As a result, the quality of both public education itself and the infrastructure that supported it—the buildings in which children were taught—varied widely from one county and city to another, depending on local customs, revenues, and preferences. By the end of the century, well-organized school systems functioned in Virginia’s cities, including Lynchburg.¹

Like most urban areas in the state, Lynchburg’s antebellum schools consisted of private and church-affiliated academies and seminaries. The students were all white, because the education of free blacks and slaves was outlawed. After the war, free schools for blacks were created in and around the city under the auspices of church groups and the Freedman’s Bureau; the largest was located on Polk Street. As the city’s schools evolved during the next two decades, the new system absorbed these Reconstruction-era schools. Separate elementary facilities for whites (six) and blacks (three) were created at first in existing houses and other buildings in 1871. In 1872, the city council appropriated \$30,000 for three purpose-built elementary school buildings: Monroe Street and Court Street for whites, and Jackson Street for blacks. Biggers School for whites followed in 1881, and Payne School for blacks in 1885. The Frank Roane School for whites (1899) was the last public elementary school constructed in the city before the turn of the century.²

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The first school for black students built in Lynchburg in the twentieth century was the first Armstrong School, completed in 1917 at a cost of \$13,922. The land—4.463 acres—cost \$41,845. The elementary school was named for Samuel Chapman Armstrong, founder and first principal of Hampton Institute. Armstrong School had a capacity of 120 students. The one-story building was constructed of brick in the Colonial Revival style; it had a slate roof, four classrooms, a basement playroom, and a basement crafts room. The lot it occupied was bounded by Monsview Place on the northeast, houses on lots to the southeast and southwest, and Grayson Street (no longer extant) on the northwest.³

During the next ten years, four other new elementary schools were constructed in Lynchburg for African American students: the new Payne school (1925); Yoder (1927); South Lynchburg (1927); and Dearington (1927). The 1872 Jackson Street School, the 1885 Payne School, and the Yoder School no longer stand.⁴

After World War II, African Americans intensified their efforts to end racial segregation in the United States. President Harry S Truman ordered the desegregation of the armed forces in 1948—a vitally important step. Also during the postwar years, black parents began filing lawsuits to end racial segregation in public education, or at least to enforce the concept of “separate but equal” by compelling the construction of new, modern schools that were as up-to-date as white schools. In 1947, for example, black parents in Surry County, Virginia, sued the school board in federal district court over discrimination, in particular the fact that there was no accredited high school in the county for blacks. The next year, the court ordered the county either to admit blacks to the white high school or to build a separate high school for them. A simultaneous lawsuit in neighboring Prince George County pointed out that although there was a separate high school there for black students, the curriculum was far short of equal to that of the white high school. For instance, no courses were available at the black school in chemistry, physics, biology, and geometry. Remarkably, the school board discontinued those courses at the white school rather than offer them to blacks.⁵

Public education in Virginia, especially at the secondary school level, was in disarray during the postwar years. The state’s Superintendent of Public Instruction, G. Tyler Miller, called the situation “acute and serious” in his 1948–1949 annual report. More than 1,700 elementary schools were at least twenty years old and more than 500 were at least forty years old. In addition, overcrowding and double shifts were becoming increasingly common, which discouraged prospective candidates for elementary-school teaching from entering the profession. With regard to African American schools, Miller noted “the court cases brought by Negro citizens against local school officials for equal educational opportunities.” In April 1948, an editorial in the *Richmond Times-Dispatch* had warned that racial segregation in the schools might fall to federal court rulings unless steps

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were taken: “Either schools for the two races will be made substantially equal, or the State may be ordered by the Federal courts to operate a single system, and to admit all children, irrespective of race.”⁶

By late in the 1940s, the old 1917 Armstrong School had become overcrowded and inadequate, with 171 students instead of the 120 for which it had been constructed. The Lynchburg School Board met on November 8, 1949, discussed the need for an addition to the existing building, and hired local architect David Porter Wickline, Jr., to design it. Over the next few months, the school board began acquiring additional land for the expansion, proposed closing Grayson Street, which ran just in front of the old school, and reviewed Wickline’s plans. The cost of the addition, however, was considered high. The *Lynchburg Daily Advance* reported on April 28, 1950, that the city council had “postponed action on a school board request for \$428,000 to enlarge Armstrong school.” In addition to the four regular classrooms, overcrowding meant that one of the basement rooms in the old school—either the playroom or the crafts room—had been converted to classroom use. The enlarged building, the newspaper stated, “would include new classrooms, auditorium, gymnasium and cafeteria.”⁷

Fortunately, school construction funds were about to become available from the state government. Governor John S. Battle, who took office in January 1950, responded to the poor condition of the public schools by announcing in his inaugural address that he intended to dedicate a \$45 million state surplus to new school construction over the next two years. The so-called “Battle Fund” required no matching funds from local governments, and it provided segregationists with the financial ammunition to create “equalization schools.” Ironically, in 1929 the *Richmond News Leader*—which later in the 1950s would be a primary advocate of Massive Resistance—had espoused the creation of an “equalization” fund, but only in regard to the disparities between urban and rural (presumably white) schools.⁸

Battle did not specifically address the equalization issue in his 1950 inaugural address, but he did spend about half of his speech lamenting the sorry state of educational facilities in Virginia and his efforts to find ways to pay for improvements. When he addressed the next session of the biennial General Assembly on January 9, 1952, however, Battle spoke directly about equalization:

I would not be frank if I did not refer to the Constitutional requirement of segregation in the public free schools. If we are to continue separate school facilities for the white and negro races, as I hope and believe that we shall, we must equalize the educational opportunities. . . . We must do this because it is right. This, I am sure, is sufficient reason for the members of the General

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Assembly; but if others should wish additional reasons, we must do it in order to comply with the law of the land as laid down by the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States which for some years have required comparable and equal opportunities for members of both races. . . . [I]n the negro schools, as in many of our white schools, much remains to be done in providing adequate buildings.⁹

The equalization movement swept through the South at about the same time that the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), which had been supporting equalization lawsuits such as those discussed above, moved toward abandoning the practice in favor of directly attacking racial segregation in the public schools. Unaware of or choosing to ignore this tactical change, the Southern states advanced their equalization plans during the decade of the 1950s to preserve racial separation, as Battle noted. South Carolina and Georgia, for example, imposed new sales taxes to fund the schools and undertook sweeping programs to replace antiquated white and black schools despite considerable local opposition to spending state funds on the latter. Architects seized on the availability of steel, glass, and other materials that had been difficult or impossible to acquire during World War II. Typically, they designed both white and black schools as single-story, steel-framed, brick-veneered, well-lighted facilities in the Art Moderne or International style or some variation thereof. Most black parents and students were delighted with the new facilities, which were vast improvements over the old, rundown, overcrowded, unsanitary buildings that they replaced. Parents, teachers, and pupils in Georgia, South Carolina, and Virginia were under no illusions, however, that the new schools for blacks were really “equal” to those constructed for white students. The buildings quickly became overcrowded, combination “cafeteriums” rather than separate cafeterias and auditoriums were the norm, equipment and furnishings that were standard in white schools were absent, sports and playground facilities were inadequate, and public transportation to the new schools was frequently nonexistent.¹⁰

By October 1950, meanwhile, the Lynchburg school board was negotiating a new contract with Wickline, and on December 11 he presented plans for an entirely new Armstrong Elementary School instead of an addition. The board approved the contract with Wickline on December 29.¹¹

Wickline had been born in the city on December 17, 1906. In about 1925, he began apprenticing as a draftsman with Lynchburg architectural firms including Stanhope S. Johnson, Aubrey Chesterman, and Craighill and Cardwell. The 1930 census listed him as an architect. He worked for Robert Allen, a Roanoke architect, in a Lynchburg office. Allen was a son-in-law of U.S. Senator Carter Glass, who took an interest in young Wickline and engaged him to design the Art Deco facade of the building housing the Glass-owned newspaper, the

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Lynchburg News and Daily Advance. Glass also partly funded a year's education for Wickline at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology architecture school. Wickline entered in September 1931; he received a scholarship for a second year, but left in May 1933 when the money ran out and did not receive a degree. He returned to practice in Lynchburg, where he received his license in 1934 and by 1946 had joined Clarence H. Hinnant in offices at 822 1/2 Main Street, Rooms 301–302. The partnership dissolved in 1950 or 1951 and Wickline opened his own firm in Room 301. Over the next few years he designed several houses in Lynchburg (including a house at 3516 Sunset Drive for the parents of the eminent architectural historian S. Allen Chambers, Jr.) as well as Armstrong School. In 1954, Wickline joined Wiley and Wilson, Consulting Engineers, in the firm's office on the second floor at 620 Court Street. The association lasted until 1959, and then Wickline practiced a year by himself until joining Stanhope S. Johnson, a noted Lynchburg architect, as a draftsman in 1961. Wickline's association with Johnson lasted until 1967, after which Wickline moved from Lynchburg and practiced in Roanoke, Richmond, and Charlottesville. While in Richmond, Ballou and Justice employed him to help design the Richmond Coliseum. In Charlottesville, where the firm of Johnson, Craven, and Gibson employed him, he assisted in the restoration of Patrick Henry's Red Hill and also worked on several courthouse renovations. Wickline retired in 1984 and returned to Lynchburg in 1986. He died on August 27, 1987, in Lynchburg.¹²

The school board submitted Wickline's plans for Armstrong School to the state's School Building Service, which by statute and regulation approved all plans for new school construction as well as alterations. Wickline reported to the board on July 10, 1951, that he had received preliminary approval, with some changes requested. "Armstrong Negro Elementary," as the Service called it, was to have seven classrooms, a library, one laboratory or special classroom (a science laboratory, an elementary playroom, etc.), five auxiliary rooms (offices, storerooms, conference rooms, etc.), a gymnasium, and a combination cafeteria and auditorium, or cafetorium.¹³

Lynchburg received \$489,180.17 in Battle Fund appropriations for school construction in 1952, and \$139,427.02 in 1953. Wickline continued to work on the plans for the new school, noting that a shortage of steel might delay construction past the proposed opening date of September 1, 1953. He presented final plans to the school board for approval (pending approval by the School Building Service) on February 27, 1952. On October 3, the school board awarded the firm of C. W. Hancock and Sons the construction contract, and site work was underway by October 14. The construction of the new Armstrong School was nearly completed by September 8, 1953, when the city council voted to spend \$4,300 for a new sidewalk along Monsview Place to serve the school, which was "expected to be ready for use by the February term next year." The school board inspected and accepted the new school on December 16.¹⁴

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Armstrong Elementary School was dedicated on Sunday, March 14, 1954. More than five hundred persons attended the ceremony, at which Dr. Paul M. Monro, the city school superintendent, spoke on the subject of the “good school system.” The Rev. John L. Suttentfield, mayor of Lynchburg, city council members, and school board members also attended, as well as principals and city school system supervisors. Mrs. Alice W. Lewis, Armstrong’s principal, introduced the school faculty and noted that “in this building we have not only new equipment but new teachers. . . . All of us should help in developing the total personality of our children.” Tours of the new building were offered after the ceremony.¹⁵

When the new building opened, it had a capacity of 220 students in kindergarten through the seventh grade. Situated just behind the 1917 building, it cost \$312,500—almost one-quarter less than the 1950 proposal for enlarging the old school. The new school was constructed of brick with a built-up roof and had fluorescent lighting, steam heat produced by an oil-fired boiler, floors of asphalt tile over concrete, acoustical tile ceilings, and plaster and block walls. It had seven classrooms, a gymnasium, dressing rooms, an office, a clinic, a teachers’ lounge, a conference room, an electric kitchen, a multipurpose room, and a combination cafeteria and auditorium (“cafetorium”). Together, both the new building and the 1917 building, in which improved lighting had been installed, had a capacity of 340 students. The playground, which included some rudimentary equipment, was located across the now-vanished segment of Grayson Street, just northwest of the 1917 Armstrong School. The old school was demolished in 1959 when the “playground” area in front of the 1954 school was expanded northwest to Holly Street and graded.¹⁶

Besides Wickline’s Armstrong School, only one other black elementary school was the subject of construction activity in Lynchburg between 1950 and 1960. A large two-story addition was attached in 1960 to Dearington School, built for African American students in 1927 and located at 210 Smyth Street. In recent years Dearington’s principal entrance has been reoriented from the street to the rear parking lot and a new facade constructed. The 1927 building was constructed for \$14,634 with a student capacity of 120; the 1960 addition cost \$287,000 and provided room for another 180 students, for a total of 300.¹⁷

The new construction campaign did have the “equalization” effect over time of reducing the ratio of Lynchburg’s elementary school teachers to students to approximately the same level for both white and black schools. In 1953, for example, there was one white teacher for every twenty-nine elementary school students; there was one teacher for every thirty-three students in the black elementary schools. By 1956, the ratio for whites was one teacher for every twenty-eight students and for blacks it was one teacher for every twenty-nine students. The next year, the ratio was one teacher for every twenty-eight students in both white and black elementary schools.¹⁸

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In sharp contrast to Armstrong School, however, the new white schools built during the 1950s were much larger, more expensive, and better equipped, undermining the segregationists' "separate but equal" approach to educational facilities. The William M. Bass School on Seabury Avenue was constructed in 1951 at a cost of \$759,452 and with a capacity of 480 students. The facade is Art Deco in style. The Perrymont Avenue School, located at 409 Perrymont Avenue, was completed in 1955 for \$303,000, with an addition completed in 1957 for \$112,550, and the total capacity was 690. The Bedford Hills School at 4330 Morningside Drive was built in 1958 for \$388,865, and had a capacity of 450. The Carl B. Hutcherson School, located at Harvey and High Streets, was built in 1960 for \$449,441, and a capacity of 360. The Sheffield School, located at 115 Kenwood Place, was constructed for \$405,522 in 1960, with a capacity of 480. Except for the Bass School, all of the white schools were of the plain brick construction typical of the era. All of them still stand and all are presently in use as schools except for the Hutcherson building.¹⁹

Although Armstrong School was constructed as an equalization school, the differences between it and its all-white near-contemporary, Perrymont, demonstrate the inequalities that racial segregation engendered, and that the U.S. Supreme Court would note in its *Brown* decision a few months after Armstrong opened. Perrymont, for example, had a purpose-built library and a librarian. Despite Wickline having designed a library for Armstrong, in fact there was no library in the school as it was constructed. Instead, the "library" consisted of a handful of books shelved in a corner of the kindergarten room. After the kindergartners went home (they only attended for half a day), the so-called "library" was then open to other students for use. In addition, Armstrong's teachers had to purchase their own supplies, and the stage in the cafetorium had no curtain—the parents of Armstrong's students raised the funds to buy one. Also, the school's playground was a "paved area with B.B. [basketball] goals; football and baseball facilities as needed, swings, etc."²⁰

The Lynchburg School Board first discussed building a new elementary school for white pupils on Perrymont Avenue at its meeting on March 10, 1953, as the construction of Armstrong was underway. The board pondered whether to adapt a standard plan offered by the State Building Service or have a new building designed from scratch. On June 16, the board approved a contract with Hinnant, Hinnant, and Harper, a Lynchburg architectural firm, and on July 14 the architects reported that the standard plans were unsuitable for the facility that the board wanted built. Construction soon began, and the building was 50 percent complete by March 9, 1954. On June 9, 1955, the architects reported that a strike at the company that was supplying tile for the bathrooms was delaying completion. At a board meeting on July 12, local parents complained that the school was far too small, and persuaded the school board to construct an addition. The main school was completed and dedicated on November 10, 1955, and on April 9, 1957, the board inspected and accepted the addition. In

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contrast to Armstrong's limited playground facilities, Perrymont had a "large paved area with B.B. goals; swings and climbing rigs; football and baseball facilities; tennis courts planned by City."²¹

After the *Brown* decision, efforts to desegregate Lynchburg's schools gained momentum and fully replaced equalization as a strategy. To counter the effort, Southern states including Virginia adopted a policy of Massive Resistance to integration. In 1956, the General Assembly created the Pupil Placement Board, which took over from localities the assignment of students to schools and routinely denied applications by black students to transfer to white schools. African American parents and attorneys pressed on, however, and decided to focus first on integrating the city's two segregated high schools, then on the all-white junior high school, and finally on the elementary schools. Dunbar, the African American high school, consisted of several buildings constructed between 1923 and 1957, with a total capacity of 840 students and 42 course offerings. It included grades 8 through 12 because there was no junior high school for blacks; R. E. Lee Junior High School was reserved for white students. E. C. Glass High School, which opened in 1953 on a 54-acre tract and cost \$3,855,068, had a capacity of 1,850 white students and 121 course offerings, three times the number at Dunbar. The disparities and inequalities between the two high schools, therefore, were obvious both in terms of physical plant and the number and quality of courses. At a time when many white and black students entered the work force from high school rather than going on to college, those inequalities had a clearer and more imminent effect on future employment and earning capabilities than the inequalities at the elementary or junior high school levels, hence the importance of equalizing or desegregating the high school first.²²

Before the Supreme Court's *Brown* decision, Lynchburg's black residents had aimed for equalization at the high school level. On July 8, 1952, when the school board held its evening meeting in the white John Wyatt School auditorium, more than fifty African American residents attended to discuss the "Negro school situation of Lynchburg." According to the minutes of the meeting,

Herman L. Taylor, Attorney at Law, from Raleigh, North Carolina, representing the Citizenship Committee, Parent-Teacher Association Council, spoke for about thirty-five minutes, climaxing his remarks by delivering to the Board an ultimatum: either provide educational facilities for Negro Secondary education equal to those of the new E. C. Glass High School, or face Federal court action. A formal reply was requested by those represented, by August 15, 1952.

Mr. [Harry G.] Green [school board chairman] gave opportunity for any present to speak, also for Board members to ask questions. No one responded, so the

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meeting adjourned, the School Board repairing to the office of the Supervisor and Clerk.²³

Subsequent Board minutes do not indicate whether the desired “formal reply” was ever given. Rather than construct a new, “equal” high school for black students, the school board made improvements to Dunbar High School in the years that followed.

In 1961, at a mass meeting of Lynchburg’s African Americans at Diamond Hill Baptist Church, the Rev. Virgil Wood called for student volunteers to apply for transfer from Dunbar to Glass. A dozen young people volunteered, but only two were admitted to Glass: thirteen-year-old Owen Cardwell, Jr., who had attended Payne, and fourteen-year-old Lynda Woodruff, who was a graduate of Armstrong School. They attended their first day of classes on January 29, 1962. Although they were not subjected to overt acts of hostility, Cardwell and Woodruff endured verbal insults and the silent treatment, despite occasional words of friendliness from Glass students and faculty members. They also discovered that the comparable classes that they had attended at Dunbar were far behind Glass’s academic level. From this beginning, the desegregation of Lynchburg’s schools proceeded. Within a decade, integration led to the consolidation of several schools, including the merger of Dunbar’s and Glass’s student bodies at the latter high school. Dunbar was converted to a middle school.²⁴

The integration of elementary schools came later. In the spring of 1962, an Armstrong fifth-grader, Ashby F. “Buddy” Morris, requested transfer to the previously all-white Garland-Rodes Elementary School. The Pupil Placement Board, perhaps yielding to the inevitable since E. C. Glass High School had been integrated, approved his request on June 11. This and similar integration efforts largely flowed one way, however, from black schools to white ones, and previously all-black schools such as Armstrong tended to remain all-black for years to come. In 1977, school consolidation resulted in the closure of Armstrong School. The student body was merged with two other schools, Garland-Rodes and Linkhorne, beginning with the autumn session. The *Lynchburg Daily Advance* reported on May 18, 1977, that “Armstrong currently houses grades four through six and Garland-Rodes, grades kindergarten through three. Armstrong’s sixth grade will be moved to Linkhorne Middle School next fall as part of an overall city middle school plan.” After the closure, the LAARC School, a private day school for children with learning disabilities, occupied the building until relocating to another facility in 2002. Armstrong School has been empty ever since, except for the occasional use of the gymnasium to accommodate the city’s youth programs.²⁵

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Architecture Context

The surviving Lynchburg public elementary schools can be divided into three groups: early twentieth century up to World War II, mid-twentieth century or the “separate but equal” period, and the post-1954 *Brown* Supreme Court decision. The architecture of the schools during these periods follows national trends of scholastic architecture with a Lynchburg spin on stylistic preferences, especially during the first half of the twentieth century.

Standards for school buildings in this country were advocated as early as 1832 when William A. Alcott wrote that fresh air, light, and space were essential in school design to promote a learning environment. Large windows, classrooms with separate desks for pupils, and enough open land for recreation became the standard for schools across the country.²⁶ The schools built in Lynchburg were no exception to these standards. The design for nineteenth-century schools used a domestic architectural vocabulary but as the century progressed and public education became more important and widespread, school buildings became more standardized with large banks of windows in each classroom, tall ceilings, formal entrances, and interior corridors. In urban areas with larger populations of students, schools were frequently built of monumental proportions that epitomized the importance of education.

Nine elementary schools built in Lynchburg prior to World War II survive. One of the nine, Robert S. Payne Elementary School, was built in 1925 as the Robert E. Lee Junior High School and later was converted to an elementary school for African American students. The three schools built in the teens were all built for white students. Of the four schools built during the 1920s, one was built for white students, two for African American students, and one was converted from a white school to an African American school. The two schools built in the 1930s were both for white students.

While the commercial architecture of Lynchburg incorporated modern styles such as Art Deco in the 1920s and 1930s, the preferred styles for domestic, religious, and scholastic architecture was firmly rooted in traditional patterns of the revival styles so popular in Lynchburg.²⁷ It was only after World War II that design influences of the Modern Movement, Art Deco, Art Moderne, and International, began to surface in the new schools built in the 1950s in Lynchburg. The majority of the schools constructed during the pre-World War II period were of monumental proportions of two, two-and-a-half, and three stories with a massing that conveyed a sense of permanence and importance. The earlier schools were a mixture of neoclassical or Craftsman styles while the

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later schools built in the 1920s and 1930s tended to have Colonial Revival-style details. R. S. Payne Elementary School (built as a junior high school in 1925) and Thomas C. Miller Elementary School (1932), both in the Colonial Revival idiom, are two-and-a-half or three stories tall and have recessed arched entrances on the façade. In contrast, the original 1927 Dearington Elementary School, which was built for African American students, is a one-story brick building with a center entrance flanked by banks of windows typical of many small consolidated schools of this period. The South Lynchburg School, also for African Americans, is an even smaller one-story brick building with a hipped roof that has more in common with the earlier Craftsman-style schools such as the first Armstrong School, which was demolished in 1959. Dearington was significantly enlarged in 1960 with a massive addition built onto one end of the school that also reoriented the school to face the parking lot.

Few schools were built during World War II as construction materials were diverted to the war effort. The end of the war meant that construction materials were once again available and coincided with the increased demand for schools as returning soldiers married and started families. Educators, architects, and designers published guidance for the new schools that was considerably different from pre-World War II school design. It was felt that the earlier schools were inflexible and not conducive to learning. One architect wrote,

We want buildings which are friendly to children. We believe that the low-lying, sprawled-out type of building, close to the ground, one story high, straight in its lines, honestly functional, is less awe-inspiring and more friendly in the eyes of the child, thought it may not look as grand to adults as some of our multi-storied Roman efforts.²⁸

The long low form of the school reflected the streamlined Moderne architecture popular after World War II. The need for lighting and ventilation led to walls of windows in the classroom. Metal windows, usually aluminum, were used for the windows and reflected technological advancements in building materials.²⁹

Three elementary schools were built in Lynchburg during the 1950s as well an addition to the 1919 Fort Hill School. All were built or were planned and under construction prior to the *Brown* Supreme Court decision during the equalization period. They include the William Bass School (1951), Armstrong (1954), and Perrymont (1954-55). Armstrong was built for African American students; Bass and Perrymont for white students. The Fort Hill School was also for white students. The mid-twentieth-century Lynchburg schools for the most part followed the new tenets of school design outlined above. Bass, built in 1951, in scale and massing is more akin to the earlier pre-World War II schools. The school, two stories on a raised basement, has its decorative features

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concentrated at the entrance with the same triple entrance as its earlier predecessors, Miller and Payne, albeit in the Art Deco style instead of the Colonial Revival style.

Both Perrymont and Armstrong were clearly built during the “separate but equal” scramble to upgrade school facilities state wide. Both are two-story, flat-roof brick buildings with the streamlined Art Moderne appearance popular at the time. The spare architectural detailing is concentrated at the entrance. Both schools had aluminum windows arranged in columns of six lights. At Perrymont, the windows varied from paired columns to seven-column-wide windows while at Armstrong the windows are mostly paired columns of six lights. At Armstrong the entrance is recessed and sheltered by a two-bay, flat-roof porch. The adjacent cafetorium (combination cafeteria and auditorium) steps forward slightly from the classroom block, forming one wall of the recessed area where the entrance is located. Perrymont’s entrance was also recessed with a vertical chimney-like element forming one side of the recess and vertical elements partially screening the entrance on the other side. The adjacent cafeteria/auditorium block of the school steps back from the entrance block. From the exterior, the two schools appeared to be very similar, seemingly fulfilling the “separate but equal” doctrine although the facilities on the interior may not have been equal.

Perrymont has been significantly altered and lacks architectural integrity. Several additions have been made to the original school building including a two-story, gable-and-shed-roof addition to the end of the rear wing. The most striking change, however, is the alteration to the windows. The current windows form a continuous band of individual windows. Each window has a large upper light and a smaller lower light with infill across the top of the wall.

Armstrong was only used as a city public school for twenty-three years, from 1954 to 1977. It was then used by a private school until 2002 and since its departure the building has been used for storage. Because it was used for such a short period of time as a city school, it remains virtually unaltered and retains a high degree of integrity. All the original interior finishes are intact and, with the exception of modern partitions in the cafetorium, the plan is unchanged.

Lynchburg built two public schools soon after the *Brown* decision, both in 1960: the Carl B. Hutcherson School and the Sheffield School. Although different from the styles previously used in Lynchburg for elementary schools, they each continued to follow the tenets expressed by the architect who described the new trend in school architecture of low, one-story buildings. Both consist of a series of blocks with flat roofs and have small single or double windows instead of the large banks of windows historically seen on schools. The Hutcherson School is a combination of brick and frame while the Sheffield School is brick.

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Armstrong Elementary School is the best surviving example of an equalization school built in Lynchburg during the 1950s. The school exhibits a high degree of architectural integrity with few changes to the exterior and interior. Its design also incorporated the latest styles and published guidance popular at the time it was built.

Endnotes

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³ *Ibid.*, 100; “Public Schools of Lynchburg, Virginia,” Lynchburg Public Schools [Property] Data, ca. 1960, typescript, 3 binders, Lynchburg Museum System, Old Court House, 901 Court Street, Lynchburg, Va.; ProQuest Sanborn Maps Geo Edition, Lynchburg, 1907–1951, p. 80, LVA, on Web site <http://www.lva.virginia.gov/public/sanborn.htm>, accessed Jan. 12, 2012.

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⁶ *Ibid.*, 40–41.

⁷ Lynchburg School Board, Minutes, April 15, 1947–September 11, 1951, pp. 159–161, 168, 177, 179, 188, Administration Building, Lynchburg, Va.; *Lynchburg Daily Advance*, Apr. 28, 1950, “Action Postponed on Enlarging School,” on LynchburgHistory.com Web site, <http://www.lyncburghistory.com/details.php?gid=184&pid=7334>, accessed Dec. 7, 2011.

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¹¹ Lynchburg School Board, Minutes, April 15, 1947–September 11, 1951, pp. 225, 234, 240.

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Wickline III to Ashley Neville, Jan. 3, 2012; personal communication, Jessie Combs, Office of the Registrar, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, to John S. Salmon, Jan. 3, 2012.

¹³ Lynchburg School Board, Minutes, April 15, 1947–September 11, 1951, pp. 225, 234, 240; *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Virginia, School Year 1951–1952* (Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1952), 115, 120.

¹⁴ Virginia Department of Education (Record Group 27), Superintendent of Public Instruction, Annual School Reports of Division Superintendents, Lynchburg, June 30, 1952, and June 30, 1953, LVA; Lynchburg School Board, Minutes, October 4, 1951–July 12, 1955, pp. 16, 35–36, 97, 101, 196, 202; *Lynchburg News*, Sept. 9, 1953.

¹⁵ *Lynchburg Daily Advance*, March 15, 1954.

¹⁶ Tomlin, *First Decade*, 100; “Public Schools”; Lynchburg Museum System, Historic Photograph Collection, photographs of Armstrong site, on Web site

http://www.lyncburgmuseum.org/photostore/search.php?gid_search=57&search=Armstrong&match_type=any, accessed Dec. 7, 2011; ProQuest Sanborn Maps Geo Edition, Lynchburg, 1907–1955, Vol. 2, p. 220, LVA, on Web site

<http://www.lva.virginia.gov/public/sanborn.htm>, accessed Jan. 12, 2012.

¹⁷ Tomlin, *First Decade*, 100.

¹⁸ Virginia Department of Education (Record Group 27), Superintendent of Public Instruction, Annual School Reports of Division Superintendents, Lynchburg, June 30, 1953, June 30, 1956, and June 30, 1957, LVA. In 1953, there were 4,624 white elementary school students and 159 teachers, and 1,605 black students and 48 teachers. In 1956, there were 4,899 white students and 174 teachers, and 1,808 black students and 63 teachers. In 1957, there were 4,859 white students and 175 teachers, and 1,871 black students and 67 teachers. In other words, probably because of the availability of funds not otherwise needed for school construction, between 1953 and 1957 the number of white students increased by 5 percent and the number of white teachers by 9 percent, while the number of black students increased by 14 percent and the number of black teachers by 28 percent.

¹⁹ Tomlin, 100–102. Tomlin (p.102) gives 1954 as construction date for Perrymont, but the *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Virginia, School Year 1955–1956* (Richmond: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1956), 123, states that the plans for both the new school and the addition were approved between July 1, 1955, and June 30, 1956; ProQuest Sanborn Maps Geo Edition, Lynchburg, 1907–1955, Vol. 1, p. 81, LVA, on Web site <http://www.lva.virginia.gov/public/sanborn.htm>, accessed Jan. 12, 2012, published on Sept. 1, 1955, shows the 1955 date next to the school’s footprint (Reel 4, LVA).

²⁰ Personal communication, Lynda Woodruff to John S. Salmon, Jan. 7, 2012; Lynchburg School Board, Public Schools of Lynchburg, 3 binders, Armstrong Elementary School, Administration Building, Lynchburg, Va.

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²⁹ *Ibid*, Sec. F, p 8.

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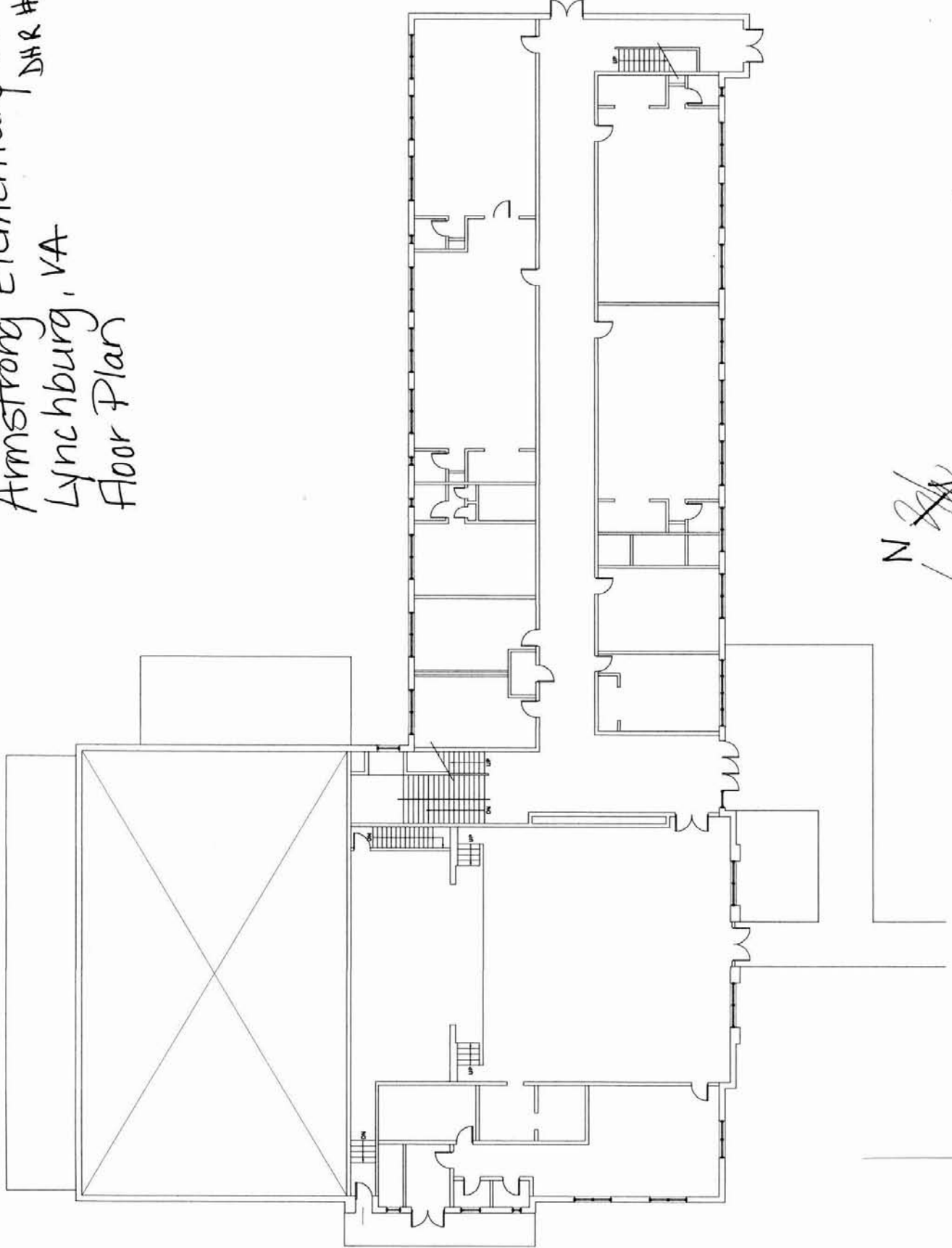
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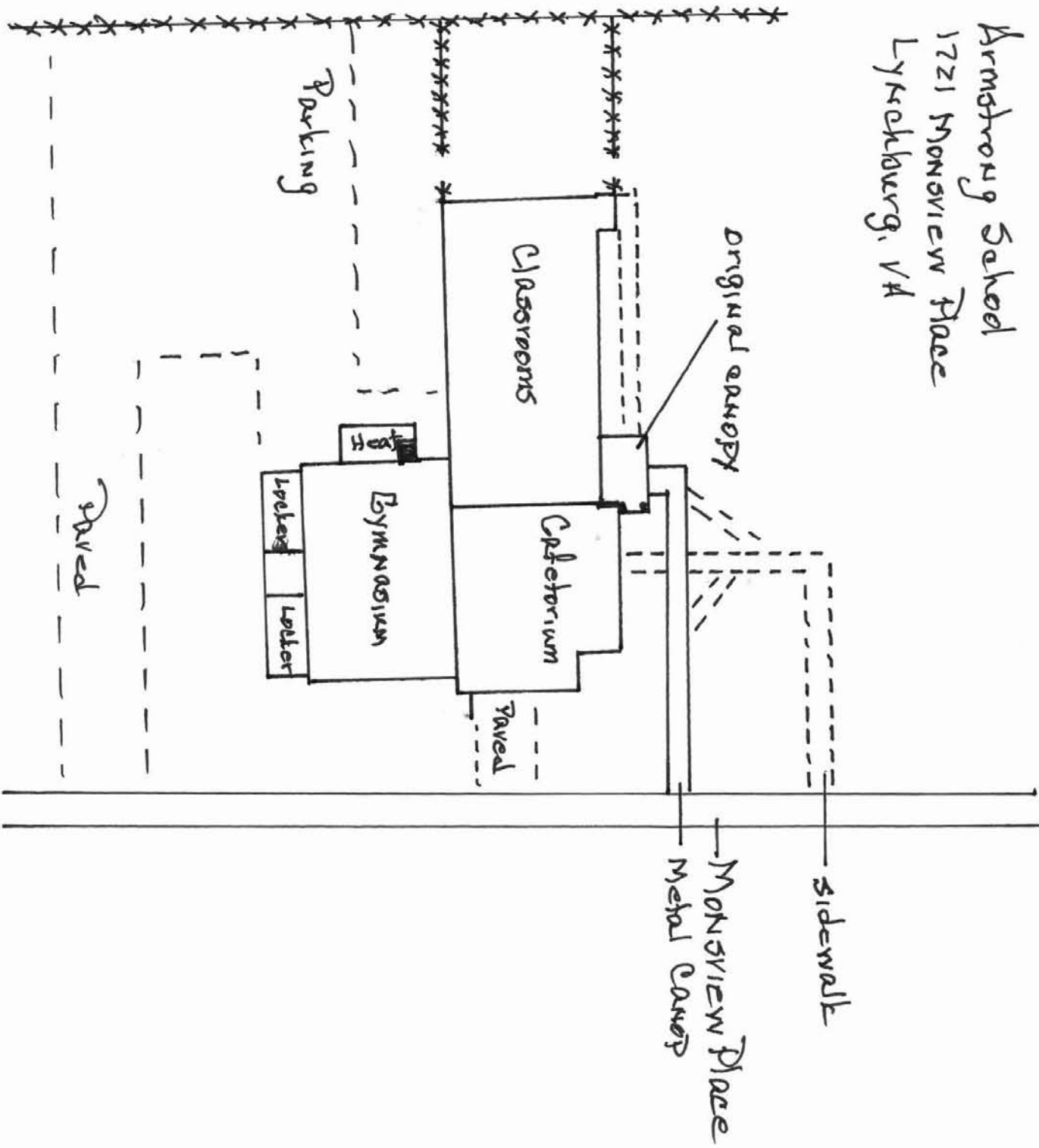
Armstrong Elementary School
Lynchburg, VA
Floor Plan
DHR # 118-5320



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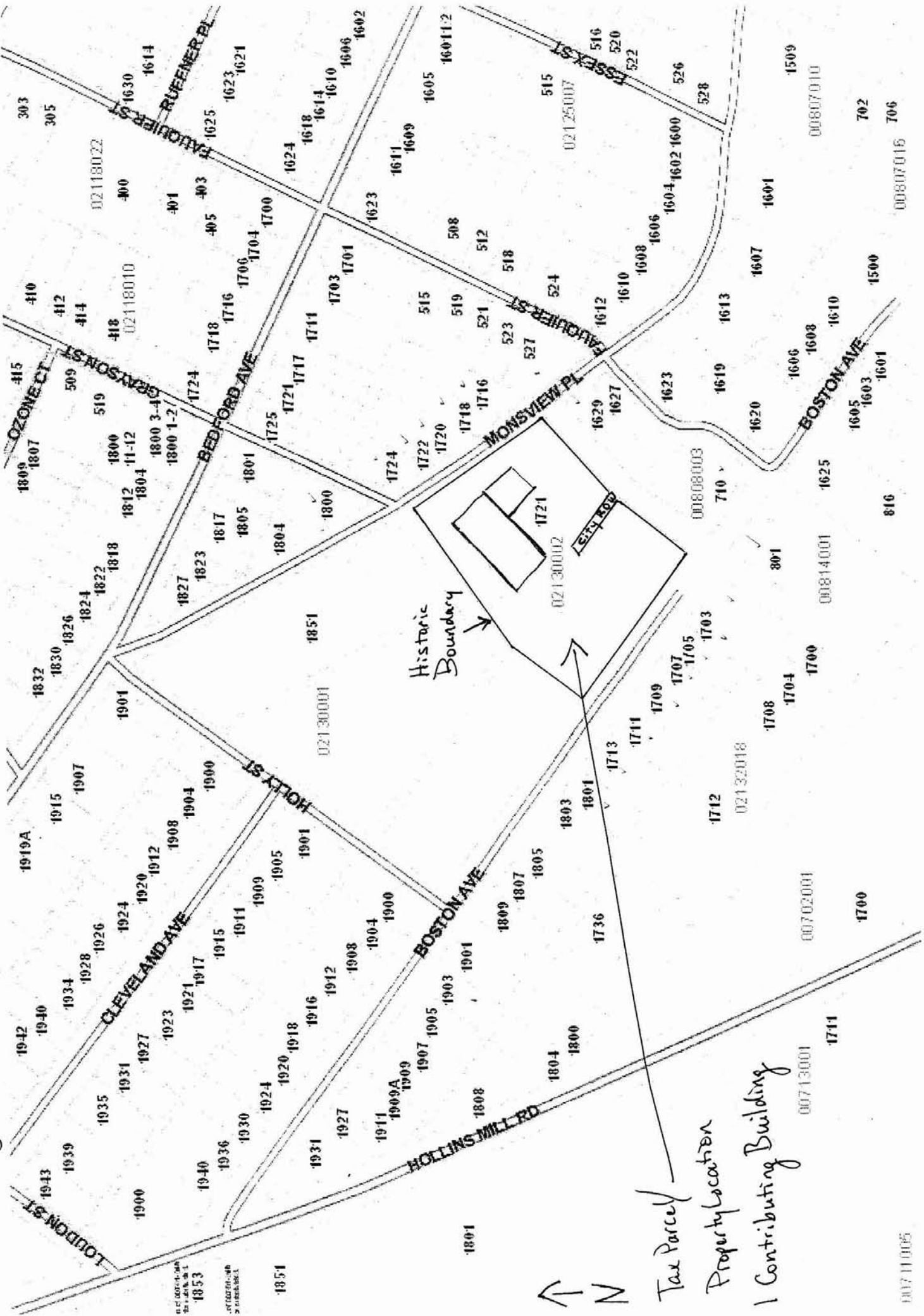
Additional Documentation

Armstrong School
1721 MONSIEUR PLACE
LYNCHBURG, VA



Not to scale

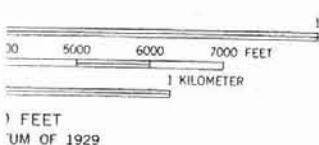
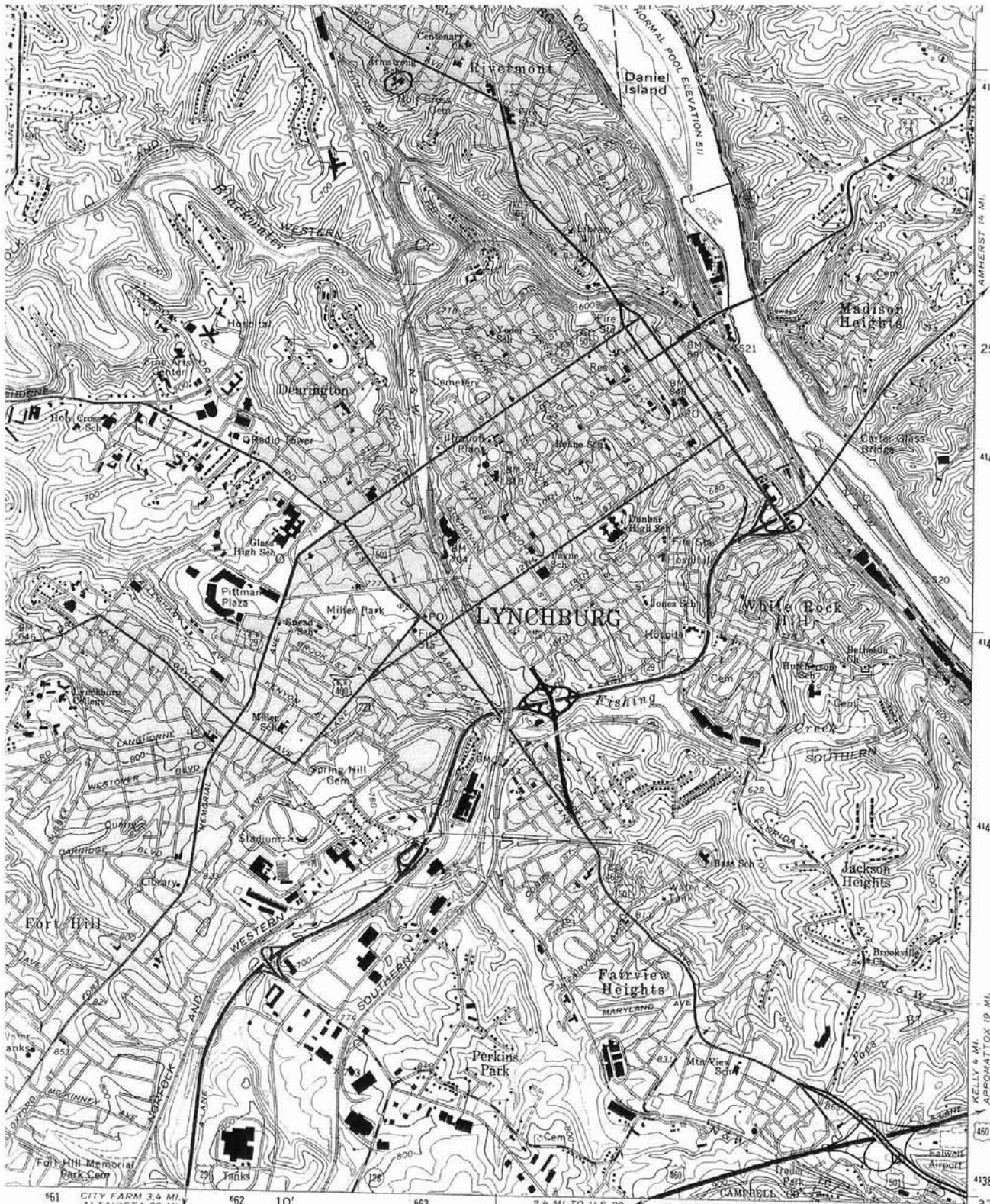
Armstrong Elementary School 1 DHR # 118-5320 Lynchburg, VA Tax Parcel map



↑ N
 Tax Parcel
 Property Location
 1 Contributing Building

Sketch Map

118-5320
 Armstrong Elementary School
 Lynchburg, VA
 17/662748/4143893
 Lynchburg Quad
 1:24 000



ACCURACY STANDARDS
 ADO 80225, OR RESTON, VIRGINIA 22092
 CHARLOTTESVILLE, VIRGINIA 22903
 BOLS IS AVAILABLE ON REQUEST

Revisions shown in purple and woodland compiled in cooperation with Commonwealth of Virginia agencies from aerial photographs taken 1982 and other sources. This information not field checked Map edited 1984
 Purple tint indicates extension of urban areas



ROAD CLASSIFICATION

Heavy-duty	Light-duty
Medium-duty	Unimproved dirt
U.S. Route	State Route

LYNCHBURG, VA.
 NW/4 LYNCHBURG 15' QUADRANGLE
 37079-D2-TF-024
 1963
 PHOTOREVISED 1984
 DMA 5158 I NW-SERIES V834

TRUSTBURY
 17 5 58 SE