

THEY CAME...THEY SAW...THEY BOUGHT! THE TWENTIETH CENTURY HOUSING BOOM IN LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY 1920-1970

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Chapter 1. Introduction

This study grew out of the work dictated by the Louisville Southern Indiana Ohio River Bridges Project (LSIORB), which was documented in the 2010 report, *A Survey Update of Butchertown, Phoenix Hill, Downtown Louisville and River Road.* The geographical constraints of that survey, dictated by the Area of Potential Effect for that undertaking, meant that large portions of Louisville Metro would not be considered or receive any documentation. Of particular concern were the large areas of post-war housing scattered across the county, and the issues involved with documenting, evaluating and appreciating these resources of our recent past.

Many of Louisville's historic residential neighborhoods are generally agreed to be special, historic places, not only denoted so by the National Register of Historic Places, but acknowledged by the community as contributing to the quality of life of the city. The word "suburbs" however, holds a connotation as a relatively recent development, one that dates to after World War II. The typical American city, however, has been extending outward by "building suburban neighborhoods since the mid-nineteenth century."¹

A historic residential suburb, is according to the National Register of Historic Places' seminal bulletin *Historic Residential Suburbs: Guidelines for Evaluation and Documentation for the National Register of Historic Places*,

"a geographic area, usually located outside the central city, that was historically connected to the city by one or more modes of transportation; subdivided and developed primarily for residential use according to a plan; and possessing a significant concentration, linkage, and continuity of dwellings on small parcels of land, roads and streets, utilities, and community facilities. The various types of postwar suburban neighborhoods developed between 1945 and 1965 that meet this definition include:

- Planned residential communities;
- Single residential subdivisions of various sizes;
- Groups of continuous residential subdivisions that are historically interrelated by design, planning, or historic association;
- Concentration of multiple family units, such as duplexes, double and triple-deckers, and apartment houses."²

In order to begin to understand the rich history of Louisville's post-war suburbs, the period of significance for this study spans the years 1920 to 1970. The 1920s were a period of high rates of

¹ David L. Ames and Linda Flint McClelland. *Historic Residential Suburbs Guidelines for Evaluation and Documentation*. (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 2002), 2.

² Ames and McClelland, 4.

new home construction, but particularly in Louisville. The boom years, followed by the Great Depression and the housing crisis that began right before America's entry into World War II informed the path that the new suburbs would take. Between 1921 and 1969, some 2,351 subdivisions were platted in Louisville/Jefferson County.³ Of this number, nearly 66 percent were platted between 1950 and 1970 (Figure 1.1).

Louisville's explosive growth during the decades following World War II and the rapid conversion of farmland to residential housing developments translates into a staggering number of houses considered historic by the National Park Service. Although these subdivisions, many of them seemingly identical with their rows of ranch houses or Cape Cods, may seem to be the polar opposite of "historic," their very existence demonstrates a changing landscape in America, and embodies the dream of home ownership. Prior to the mid-twentieth century, "home ownership was costly and beyond the means of most Americans."⁴ For example, Lynnview, at the intersection of Preston Highway and Gilmore Lane, was typical of the new developments catering to the swelling ranks of new homeowners. In 1953, a sample study of homebuyers in the new development (not yet an incorporated city) revealed that only 13 of 103 families had ever owned a home before buying in Lynnview.⁵

Federal policies such as the Federal Housing Administration and the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (GI Bill) enabled many Louisville residents to buy their first home (for more discussion of these programs, see page 96 in Chapter 4). The improving infrastructure of Louisville, both the road network and extension of water lines, enabled the development of farmland to the east and south of Louisville.

In 1920, at the beginning of the period of significance for this study, only "18 percent of Jefferson County's population lived outside the city limits."⁶ Fifteen years after the end of World War II, 36 percent of the population lived outside the city limits. Though that is only a doubling of the 1920 figure, Louisville's vigorous annexation policy meant that the city boundaries kept swelling to take in new areas and new taxpayers. The population of Jefferson County grew by 25 percent during the 1940s and 1950s, while Louisville's population increased by just 16 percent in the 1940s and during the 1950s, only five percent.⁷

Meanwhile, as the city and county dueled over residents and boundaries, new houses were being constructed far away from the traditional city core, at a rate of 5,400 homes constructed each

³ The majority of these were residential subdivisions, but there were industrial subdivisions included as well.

⁴ Ames and McClelland, 29.

⁵ Grady Clay. "Subdivision Study Comes Up with 'Typical Home Buyer.'" *Courier-Journal*. November 22, 1953. Section 4, page 23

⁶ John Kleber. "Suburbs," in in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 861.

⁷ Ibid.

year during the 1950s.⁸ In 1954, for the first time ever, the "acreage of developed land outside the city limits of Louisville exceeded the total acreage within the city limits."⁹

Bardstown Road and Dixie Highway were chosen as the study corridors for a number of reasons. First and foremost, the location of these two arteries on the east and southwest sides of Jefferson County offered the opportunity to examine development patterns geographically. Additionally, both roads being arms of the US 31 Highway system, as well as early turnpike routes provided some common ground for comparison despite differences in topography and terrain. Finally, the sheer number of subdivisions in Louisville meant that not operating within determined corridors would overwhelm even the most modest of project proposals (Figure 1.1).

This study should serve as an introduction to twentieth century residential housing development in Jefferson County, with a focus on the post-war built landscape. Despite the seeming ubiquitousness of post-war subdivisions, they are an important part of Louisville's history and deserve to be appreciated, and in some cases, preserved and protected. The proposed methodology will enable a more efficient way to survey and catalogue subdivisions, and evaluate their significance.

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ Grady Clay. "Building Level Expected to Stay High Here in 1955." *The Courier-Journal*. January 2, 1955.

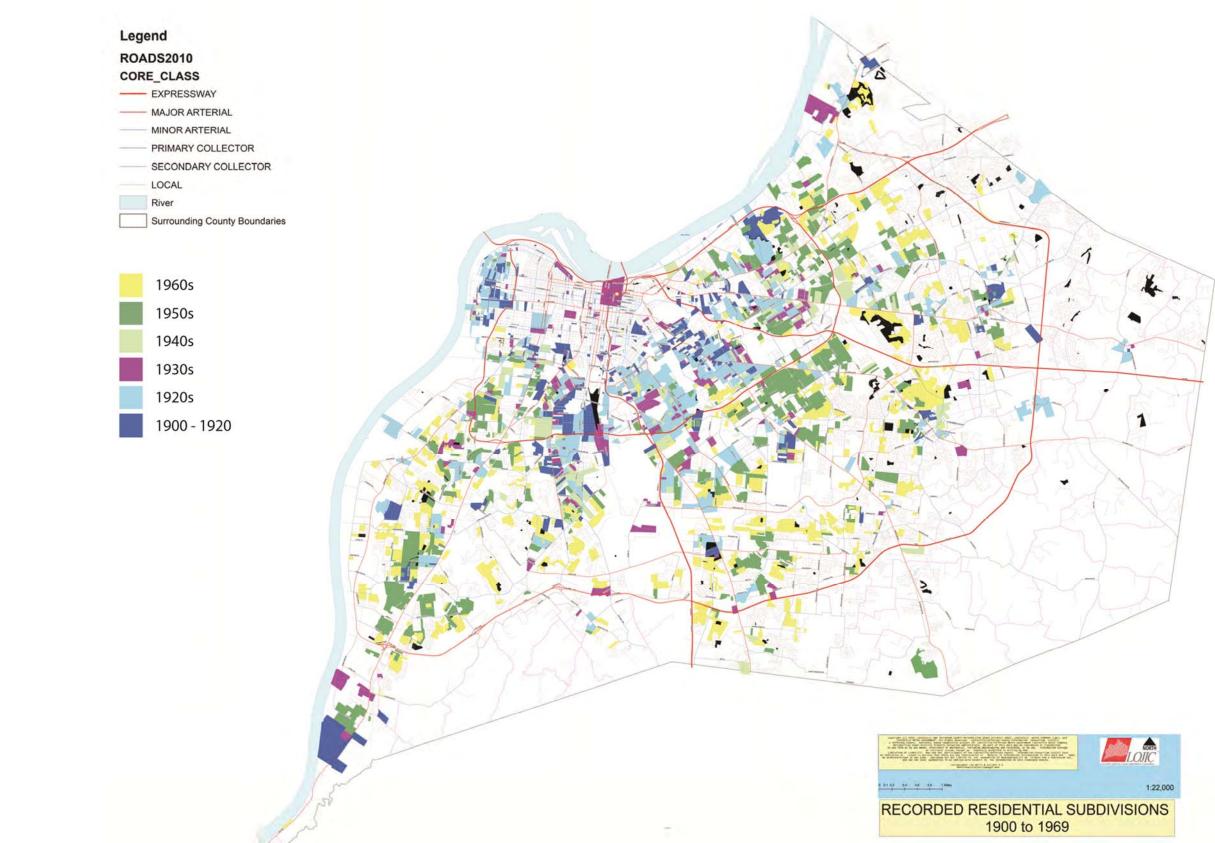


Figure 1. 1 Map of Louisville subdivisions

Chapter 2. Previous Work and Methodology for the Study

This study was conducted in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (National Park Service 1983). In addition, the following documents were consulted: Guidelines for Local Surveys: A Basis for Preservation Planning: National Register Bulletin #24 (National Park Service 1985); How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation (National Park Service 1990); Kentucky Historic Resources Survey Manual (Kentucky Heritage Council); and Specifications for Conducting Fieldwork and Preparing Cultural Resource Assessment Reports (Specifications) (Kentucky Heritage Council 2001).

Before commencing fieldwork, all available surveys, reports, studies, maps and other data pertinent to the project area were identified and reviewed. This background research began with an investigation of the records of the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC), the Louisville Metro Planning and Design Services office and the Office of State Archaeology at the University of Kentucky.

Cultural Resource Surveys

Following the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) in 1966, governmental preservation efforts in Louisville and Jefferson County developed on two separate tracks, reflecting the separate city and county governments. In 1971, a *Metropolitan Preservation Plan* survey, authored by Walter Langsam, was funded by the then-named Falls of the Ohio Metropolitan Council of Governments. The organization would later join forces with Indiana counties across the river, and was renamed the Kentuckiana Regional Planning and Development Agency.

Langsam's work resulted in the identification and subsequent nomination of several historic resources to the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP), including Butchertown Historic District and the Cherokee Triangle Historic District. The Cherokee Triangle Historic District was listed in the NRHP in 1976, under Criterion C as "still vital example of the post-Civil War/pre-World War I streetcar suburb and is a compendium of the eclectic styles of residential and ecclestical architecture which pervaded the late nineteenth and early twentieth century."¹⁰

Non-profit preservation initiatives developed concurrently with those of the government. The Louisville Historical League, a non-profit, volunteer-led corporation, was founded in 1972. The Reverend Clyde Crews and Allan Steinberg established the League, which is headquartered in the NRHP-listed Peterson-Dumesnil House in the Crescent Hill neighborhood. The group has

¹⁰ Elizabeth F. Jones, Walter Langsam and Mary Cronan, "Cherokee Triangle Area Residential District." *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.* Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Listed 1976.

focused on educational and advocacy efforts focusing on Louisville's history and cultural landscape since its inception.¹¹

The Preservation Alliance of Louisville and Jefferson County was also founded in 1972. The group's mission was to "coordinate private-sector resources and to teach, advocate, and demonstrate the value of historic preservation."¹² In the late 1970s, Preservation Alliance would partner with the city's preservation office on survey efforts within the Louisville city limits. The Preservation Alliance operated until the early 1990s.

In 1973, the Louisville Board of Alderman adopted a public preservation policy and created the Historic Landmarks and Preservation Districts Commission. This new policy resulted in not only a commission, with members appointed by the Mayor, but also a city agency known as the Historic Landmarks and Preservation Districts Commission (Louisville Landmarks Commission). Staff members provided support to the Commission, and carried out public preservation work within the city limits. The Commission's responsibilities includes: designating local landmarks and preservation districts; establishing design guidelines for exterior alterations, demolition and new construction for designated structures; and developing preservation plans and educational outreach materials. All of these responsibilities were confined to the Louisville city limits. ¹³

The State Historic Preservation Office in Frankfort initiated a historic sites survey of Jefferson County in the late 1970s. The Kentucky Heritage Council (then known as the Kentucky Heritage Commission) began this field survey, focusing on sites outside of the city limits, in 1977. Members of the survey team included William Broberg, Kenneth Gibbs, Anthony James, Mary Cronan Oppel, Carolyn Torma and Lee Walker. As a result of the survey, many resources in the survey area were documented for the first time. Over 200 historic resources were ultimately documented on Kentucky Historic Resources Inventory Forms (KHRI), the official form for recording historic resources (buildings, structures, sites and objects) in the Commonwealth.

Jefferson County government established the county landmark ordinance in 1979. The Jefferson County Historic Landmarks and Preservation Districts Commission was responsible for designating landmarks in Jefferson County outside the Louisville city limits. Providing staff to the commission was the Jefferson County Office of Historic Preservation and Archives. The Commission consisted of 11 members appointed by the County Judge Executive and three members appointed by each one of the Commissioners of the three county districts.

¹¹ Laurie A. Birnsteel. "Louisville Historical League," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 552.

¹² Ann S. Hassett and Donna M. Neary. "Historic Preservation," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 390.

¹³ Historic Louisville Preservation Districts and Local Landmarks Brochure. Available at http://www.louisvilleky.gov/NR/rdonlyres/D2362967-9297-4409-B047-088DD28F0A6B/0/ introductionfeb06.pdf, accessed 2010.

In the late 1970s, federal funding enabled additional survey of historic resources across the country. The Housing and Community Development Act of 1974 created the Community Development Block Grant program (CDBG) and for the first time, allowed cities, rather than the federal government, to make decisions about their community development programs. The CDBG program, part of the United States Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), funded three survey reports in Louisville.¹⁴

The *Louisville Survey West*, completed in April 1977, focused on the history and architecture of the city west of Ninth Street. Carried out by a battalion of volunteers led by the Preservation Alliance of Louisville and Jefferson County, under the direction of the Louisville Landmarks Commission, the survey focused on the survey of entire blocks at once ("blockfaces") rather than individual buildings.

The *Louisville Survey Central and South* (May 1978) was carried out by Louisville Landmarks Commission staff, and focused on a much larger area than the *Louisville Survey West*. The survey boundaries were the Ohio River to the north, Ninth and Seventh Streets to the west, the city limits to the south (roughly, I-264) and Beargrass Creek and Newburg Road on the east. In addition to surveying blockfaces within this area and making recommendations, this report included a history of the area, spanning 200 years, authored by Carl Kramer.

The *Louisville Survey East*, completed in October 1979 by Louisville Landmarks Commission staff, began at the edges of the boundaries of the *Louisville Survey Central and South* survey. The survey area was bounded by the Ohio River on the north, Beargrass Creek and Newburg Road on the west and the city limits to the south and the east. Carl Kramer researched and wrote a history of the east section of Louisville for this survey.

Kramer's work for both of these efforts provides the framework for any research or survey pertaining to the development of Louisville and Jefferson County. Louisville is fortunate to have such meticulously researched and focused work; this study would not have been possible without the effort expended by Kramer in these two unpublished reports.

The Jefferson County Office of Historic Preservation and Archives, together with the Kentucky Heritage Council (KHC), published *Jefferson County* in 1981, which compiled some of the survey work carried out in the county in 1977. The publication of the survey book was made possible by the same HUD funding that sponsored the three previously discussed surveys.¹⁵

The Louisville Landmarks Commission continued surveying historic resources in Louisville throughout the early 1980s. As a result of the various HUD-funded surveys in the late 1970s, more NRHP nominations were prepared and listed by Landmarks staff, including the Phoenix

¹⁴ United States Department of Housing and Urban Development Website. Available at

http://www.hud.gov/offices/cpd/communitydevelopment/rulesandregs/index.cfm, Internet, accessed 2009. ¹⁵ Elizabeth F. Jones and Mary Jean Kinsman, eds., *Jefferson County* (Louisville, Kentucky: Jefferson County Office of Historic Preservation and Archives, 1981).

Hill Historic District, which was listed in the NRHP in 1983. At the time of listing, the boundaries encompassed approximately 150 acres and contained 700 buildings and structures.

Other resources in Louisville and Jefferson County were listed in the NRHP in the early 1980s. In the downtown area, these included the West Louisville Multiple Resource Area (MRA), the South Louisville MRA and the North Old Louisville MRA. The Highlands Historic District in eastern Louisville was listed in the NRHP in 1984. This extensive district covers the Original Highlands Neighborhood, Tyler Park Neighborhood, Deer Park Neighborhood, Bonnycastle Neighborhood and Highlands-Douglass Neighborhood. The Highlands Historic District includes some 3,000 contributing structures.

The Crescent Hill Historic District, a "middle class railroad suburb" lies along Brownsboro Road, Lexington Road and Frankfort Avenue in eastern Louisville.¹⁶ Listed in 1982, this district's period of significance ranges from 1840 to 1945. The Clifton Historic District, also located in eastern Louisville, was listed in 1983, with a boundary increase in 1994. The expanded district, nominated under Criterion A, with a period of significance of 1830 to 1942, is locally significant as a suburban residential and commercial development.

The Jefferson County Office of Historic Preservation and Archives updated their 1981 survey publication with the release of *Historic Jefferson County* in 1992. Over 250 historic resources in Jefferson County outside of the city limits of Louisville were described and photographed in this publication. In addition to the individual historic resources, the publication includes a historical overview of Jefferson County that was consulted during this study.

The Ohio River Corridor Master Plan, part of the Cornerstone 20/20 project, came out in 1996. Part of the plan was a report authored by Carolyn Brooks entitled *Historic, Archaeological, and Cultural Resources Identified for the Ohio River Corridor Master Plan.* The river conservancy and land trust group River Fields, Inc., used Certified Local Government (CLG) funds received through the Jefferson County government to fund the survey. The survey effort, carried out between May and July 1994, identified 82 previously undocumented historic resources within the Corridor area. These resources were recorded on KHRI forms.

This was not a comprehensive survey, as early twentieth century resources in the survey area were not documented unless they had known historical significance or appeared to be eligible under NRHP Criterion C. The survey did, however, identify a number of historic resources later evaluated during the LSIORB Project Section 106 process, including the James Taylor subdivision. The context developed in this report was consulted during this study.

A second round of identification utilizing HUD funds took place within the City of Louisville in the 1990s. Gray & Pape completed a *Historic and Architectural Survey of Certain Portions of*

¹⁶ Marty Poynter Hedgepath, "Crescent Hill Historic District." *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.* Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Listed 1982.

West Louisville, Jefferson County, Kentucky in 1996. This study focused on identifying NRHPeligible resources within two designated zones. The larger of the two areas, Zone A, includes the Shawnee, Chickasaw, Parkland, Parkhill and California neighborhoods, and much of the West Broadway Corridor. Zone B encompasses the Portland neighborhood, a portion of which was included in the Broad APE first developed in 1999 for the LSIORB Project. This survey did not result in the preparation of KHRI forms.

Building on the 1996 Gray & Pape study, in 1999, John Milner Associates completed a *Historic and Architectural Survey, West Louisville Zone C, Jefferson County, Kentucky* for the Louisville Development Authority. A portion of Zone C is located within Area 1 of the downtown APE. One of the recommendations from this survey was the proposed 15th Street Industrial District, which runs along the east and west sides of 15th Street from West Main Street to Portland Avenue and the east and west sides of 16th Street from West Main Street to Rowan Street. The proposed district includes 16 contributing resources, with a period of significance from 1890-1945. This district was combined with the Peaslee-Gaulbert/Manufacturing District, a district determined eligible during the Section 106 consultation process of the LSIORB Project. This survey did not result in the preparation of KHRI forms.

John Milner Associates prepared a *Historic and Architectural Survey of West Louisville Zone D Louisville, Jefferson County, Kentucky* for the Louisville Metro Department of Housing and Community Development in May 2005. This survey was not formally submitted to the KHC, but is on file at the Louisville Metro Planning and Design Services Office. The project area for this study sits between Zone A and B (Gray & Pape 1996) and Zone C (John Milner 1999). This survey did not result in the preparation of KHRI forms.

Audubon Park Historic District, located three miles south of downtown Louisville, was listed in the NRHP in 1996, under Criterion A as residential suburban development with a period of significance of 1912 to 1945. This 230-acre district encompasses most of the fifth-class incorporated city of Audubon Park. Architectural styles in the district include Colonial Revival, Dutch Colonial Revival, Bungalow/Craftsman, Spanish Colonial Revival, Prairie Style, Cape Cod, Neo-classical revival and Tudor Revival. The housing types include single-family and multi-family; all designs for houses and outbuildings had to be approved by the Audubon Park Realty.

In 1999, the Country Estates of River Road Historic District was listed in the NRHP. The nomination, prepared by consultant Carolyn Brooks and sponsored by River Fields, Inc., recognized the unique juxtaposition of contiguous historic and cultural landscapes along River Road. The district runs along River Road and Wolf Pen Branch Road from Longview Lane to just west of US Highway 42. The new district encompassed a number of previously listed individual sites and districts, including Nitta Yuma Historic District, Glenview, Harrods Creek Historic District and Drummanard.

A third version of the historic sites survey within Jefferson County was published in 2000 by the Jefferson County Office Historic Preservation and Archives. The second edition of *Historic Jefferson County* (following up on the previously mentioned 1992 edition) included some 200 historic sites within the county. This was the last survey publication produced by the county before the city/county merger.

The multiple property submission (MPS) "Louisville Metropolitan Area Lustron Homes," written by Del Marie Vaccaro and listed on the NRHP in 2003, establishes the historic context "Post World War II Response to Housing Shortage in Louisville, Kentucky Metropolitan Area 1946-1950" as well as provides registration requirements for the Lustron House property type. In the context it notes that, "In the Louisville area alone, 47,000 members of the armed forces were due to be discharged between November 1, 1945 and the end of 1946. Louisville residents were encouraged to remodel their houses to welcome boarders and renters."¹⁷ The report also notes that former Louisville Mayor Wilson Wyatt had an important influence on the early development of the Lustron Corporation in the late 1940s. This MPS was initiated by research director Joanne Weeter at the Louisville Landmarks Commission and based heavily on a 1994 thesis and survey entitled "Louisville's Lustrons - Houses with Magnetic Appeal," by Hays Birkhead Hendricks. Thirteen Lustron Homes remaining in the Louisville Metropolitan Area were re-surveyed during the MPS project.

A 2003 merger combined Louisville and Jefferson County's separate governments and separate preservation programs. A joint committee convened to evaluate the two programs and provide recommendations for the most effective combination of the county and city ordinances. The City of Louisville's Landmark Ordinance, revised in 1997, became the foundation for the new merged government, with revisions to include provisions found in the county program. As a result, the commission was expanded to include 13 members, including one registered professional archaeologist. *A Survey Update of Butchertown, Phoenix Hill, Downtown Louisville and River Road* was the first comprehensive survey undertaken in Jefferson County under the direction of the merged government since the merger in 2003. The survey documented 1,148 resources within the Louisville-Southern Indiana Ohio River Bridges project Area of Potential Effect.

In 2006, a new preservation non-profit, Preservation Louisville, was founded. The citywide non-profit is based at the Brennan House Historic Home. The group focuses on advocacy and education efforts in preservation in partnership with other local, state and national groups.

Other relevant work includes the Mockingbird Valley Historic District, which was listed in 2007. The district, nominated under Criterion A, is "locally significant within the Area of Community Planning, and within the context 'Suburban Development in Eastern Jefferson County,

¹⁷ Del Marie Vaccaro, "Louisville Metropolitan Area Lustron Homes." *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.* Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Listed 2003. Section E, p.1.

Kentucky, 1905-1955."¹⁸ Although it is a public housing complex, the NRHP nomination Arcadia Apartments, address the 68 two-story apartments as a "form of residential development during Louisville's post-World War II period." The complex is located in the Taylor-Berry Neighborhood in southwest Louisville, an area developed in the late-nineteenth century as a streetcar suburb.

In 2012-2013, Corn Island Archaeology completed a survey of Olmsted Parkways in Louisville, including Southern, Algonquin, and Southwest Parkways. This survey resulted in the recommendation of several eligible districts within the Dixie Highway Study Corridor.

¹⁸ Donna Neary, "Mockingbird Valley Historic District." *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.* Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Listed 2007.

Methodology

Builders, developers and architects, faced with Louisville's changing housing needs after World War II, reacted with a built suburban landscape quite different from that created during e housing boom of the 1920s. The survey and documentation approach to post-World War II housing developments should then, reflect the tenor of the studied resource, and create new methods for understanding the seemingly uniform spread of tract houses in Jefferson County. Rather than focusing on each individual building, this study's design built on the concept that the whole is more important than the parts, and evaluating a development in its entirety results in a more efficient survey methodology and a more complete appreciation of the components that form each subdivision.

This study built on the 2010 report completed for the LSIORB Project, which examined resources within downtown districts of Louisville and the east end of Jefferson County. Following the completion of that report, conversations began with Louisville Metro Preservation Officer Richard Jett about the direction of a twentieth century survey in Jefferson County. Through meetings with Louisville Metro Planning and Design Services staff, and staff at the Kentucky Heritage Council, it was determined that one of the most pressing needs was for the development of survey techniques applicable to documenting mid-twentieth century historic resources and cultural landscapes.

Field surveyors were to develop these techniques as part of the documentation of a representative sampling of post-World War II era subdivisions in Louisville. In addition to the post-World War II survey, a less extensive sampling of subdivisions from the 1900-1930 time periods have been included for context development as well as for the survey record. When discovered, original farmhouses on which these subdivisions were developed have been included even when they were slightly outside the subdivision boundaries. Because it would be impossible to document every subdivision in these categories while staying within project constraints, immediate goals included identifying survey areas and determining the best way to adequately document the resources within these areas. Subdivisions developed between 1900 and 1930 were prioritized if they were endangered due to development pressure, exhibited a high degree of neighborhood change, or were economically disadvantaged.

Bardstown Road and Dixie Highway were selected as focus corridors (Figures 2.1 and 2.2). The reasoning behind this was due, in part, to several factors including Bardstown Road and Dixie Highway's positions as major arteries into and out of the city of Louisville. These corridors are, therefore, major development corridors identified as segments of U.S. Route 31. Furthermore, their bisection by the Watterson Expressway enables comparisons of developments "inside" and "outside" the Expressway.

To further narrow the project areas, preliminary reconnaissance surveys of subdivisions were completed. Noted in these surveys were streets retaining a high degree of historic integrity while exhibiting broad patterns of development and a variety of housing types. Field surveyors noted information on architectural styles; existing outbuildings; street patterns; curbs, storm sewers, & gutters or lack thereof; mature trees; and grassy medians. This street-based data was then correlated with Louisville/Jefferson County Information Consortium (LOJIC) map data to determine if any of the streets recorded were also within established subdivision boundaries. Based on this list, eighteen subdivision names were noted for further research at the Louisville Metro Archives. Considerations for subdivision inclusion included the location, period of construction, housing types, and presumed socioeconomic status.

David Morgan at the Metro Archives provided valuable assistance in the intensive search through archived subdivision plats and associated information by year; first research session yielded a list of thirty-four subdivisions. These thirty-four included some of the subdivisions noted on our first reconnaissance surveys as well as plats of additional subdivisions which merited further investigation. Although their lists contained equal numbers of Bardstown Road and Dixie Highway corridor subdivisions, surveyors found that there was an overwhelming majority of Cape Cod style homes in those selected. These results indicated a need for adjustment and further research to determine more representative survey areas.

Based on evolving subdivision lists, potential survey areas were further narrowed through additional research at the University of Louisville Special Collection Archives. Surveyors met with Tom Owen, local historian and Metro Coucilman, and found additional subdivision information from his research as well as in the Archive's *Louisville Magazine* collection.

The preliminary list of subdivisions developed for study narrowed based on new findings and the relationship of these subdivisions to important suburban development triggers in Louisville such as the expansion of electric streetcar lines. In addition to information at the Archives, surveyors used the Ames and McClelland *Historic Residential Suburbs* National Register Bulletin as well Carl Kramer's Louisville area reports to inform their efforts. All these resources were used to establish final survey areas.

Eventually, five subdivisions along Bardstown Road and five along Dixie Highway were chosen based on whether they represented a desired period of construction or had available historic plat maps or archival information. Surveyors attempted to balance a subdivision of a particular type or period of construction with a contemporary subdivision on the other corridor. The first section of each subdivision was fully surveyed. Later sections, if they existed, were photographed and briefer notes taken in the interest of time. These subdivisions are coded as "intensive survey areas" on the study area maps (Figure 2.1). Subdivisions in the Dixie Highway Corridor:

- Algonquin Place (1928-1960s)
- Sunnydale (1925-1940s)
- Woodmere Heights (1960s)
- De Nada Gates (1955-1960s)
- Valley View (1952-1967)

Subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Corridor:

- Shadylawn (1922-1950s)
- Strathmoor (1920-1960)
- Hoock (1924-1950s)
- Wellingmoor (1936-1961)
- Buechel Terrace (1951-1953)

Subdivisions that helped surveyors gain a broader perspective on a particular developer, theme, or type of subdivision were evaluated as "prototype subdivisions;" these prototype subdivisions were not traditionally surveyed but helped provide valuable contextual information. In addition to prototype subdivisions in the two study corridors, four subdivisions were examined along other major roads, including Taylorsville Road, Shelbyville Road, Preston Highway and US 42. These subdivisions are coded as "prototype survey areas" on the study area maps (Figure 2.1).

Prototype Subdivisions in the Dixie Highway Corridor:

- Buchhold Acres (1951-1960s)
- Raleigh Subdivision (1952-1960s)
- Kellsbury Acres (1950s)
- Roberta Subdivision (1940s)
- Parkview Garden (1954-1960s)
- Dixie Gardens (1953-1960s)

Prototype subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Corridor:

- Highgate Springs (1953-1960s)
- Young Acres (1954-1960s)
- Frederick Acres (1954-1960)

Prototype Subdivision in St. Matthews:

• Eastmoor Acres (1950-1960)

Prototype Subdivision in the Taylorsville Road Corridor:

• Lincolnshire (1949-1960s)

Prototype Subdivision in the Preston Highway Corridor:

• Lynnview (1920; 1954-1960s)

Prototype Subdivision in the US 42 Highway Corridor:

• Woodhill Valley (1955-1970)

The intensive survey areas were documented with a traditional group survey form in combination with a modified group form. These modified forms enabled surveyors to document a more representative sampling of subdivisions within the time constraints associated with traditional resource-focused survey. Traditional group forms for each subdivision include more contextual, archival information about the developer(s) of the subdivision and the date(s) developed, boundaries, parcels, landscape features, general history, and representative types of houses offered based on field survey data. The traditional group form also contains a determination of National Register eligibility and assessment of integrity for that subdivision.

Modified group forms are completed for each section of the subdivision and include a more detailed look at the architectural characteristics as well as providing a resource count, description of types, representative photos of each type, and percentages of each type. Fieldwork documented the different architectural styles within each subdivision; these are represented on the modified group forms with a photograph, address, type, and architectural description. The traditional and modified group form used for the survey is located in Appendix A.

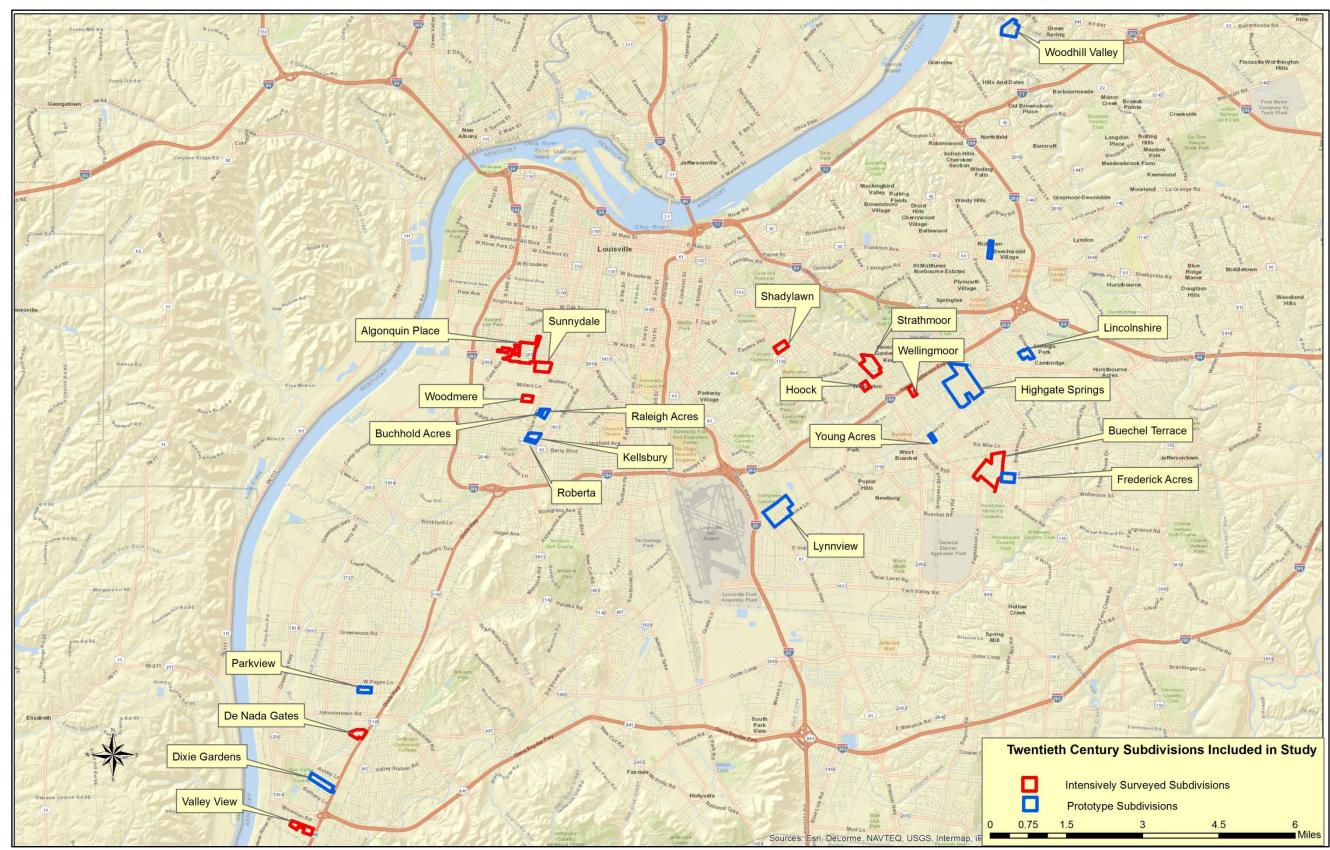


Figure 2. 1 Overview map of the study area, showing intensive and prototype subdivisions.

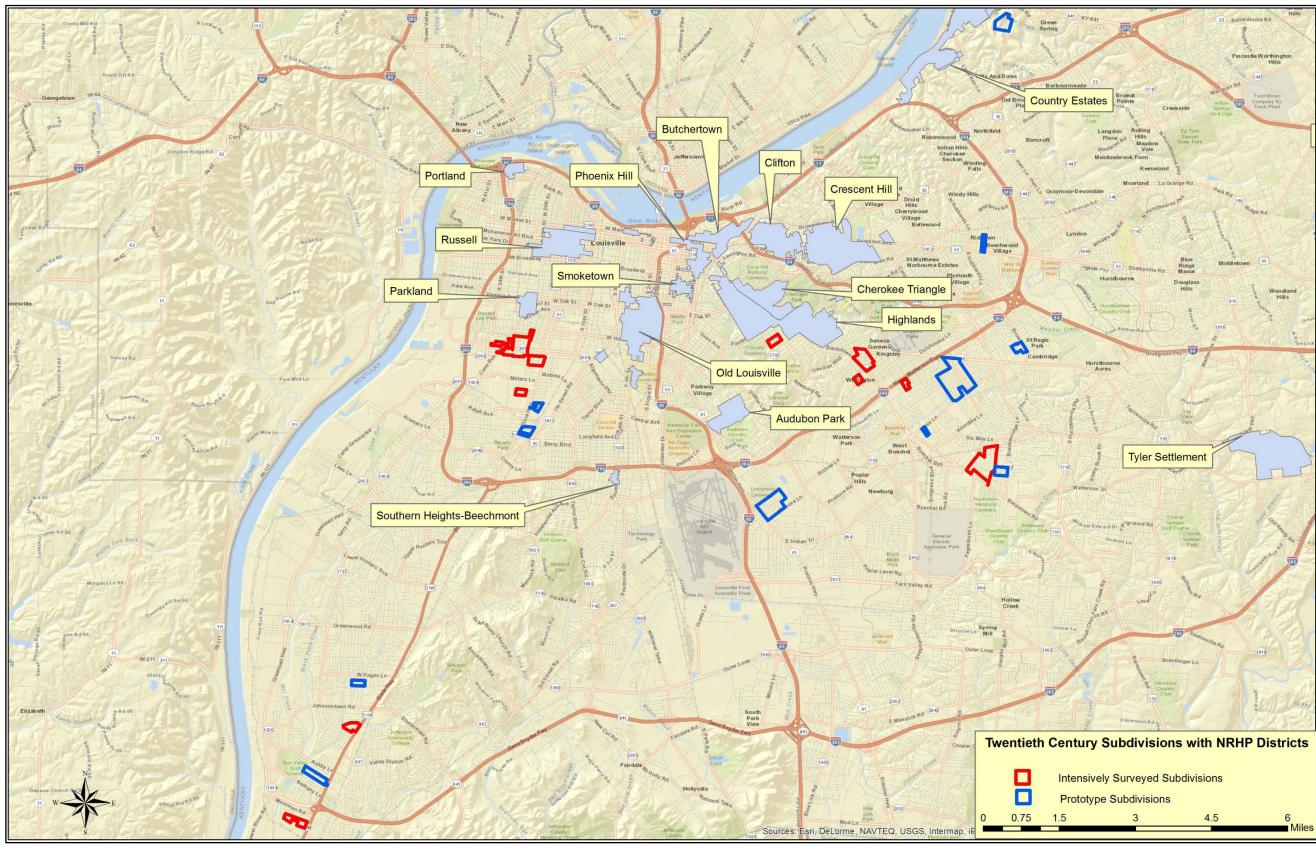


Figure 2. 2 Overview map the study area showing large NRHP districts.

Chapter 3. Overview of National Approaches to Mid-Twentieth Century Housing Developments

Introduction

The American suburb's significance lies in the following areas: community planning and development, architecture, and landscape architecture. Suburban neighborhoods were "generally platted, subdivided, and developed according to a plan and often laid out according to professional principles of design practiced by planners and landscape architects."¹⁹

The National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) significance question when applied to midtwentieth century suburban housing developments has both intrigued and frustrated professionals for well over a decade. As soon as the 50 year threshold for post-World War II housing arrived, preservationists and planners began to deal not only with their own professional evaluation of these historic resources, but also that of the public. Just as the streetcar suburbs, with their bungalows and Revival style dwellings, struggled for recognition in the years immediately after the NHPA, both the public and the professional grapple with how to consider the significance of a national building boom that for many is only a recent memory. The sheer numbers alone of these post-World War II housing developments confounds the issue.

This chapter reviews various efforts conducted across the nation to understand, appreciate and evaluate the post-World War II built environment. Readers should not expect this to be a comprehensive list; instead it presents a sampling of surveys and studies undertaken by SHPOs and municipalities. Approximately 13 states have conducted historic context studies/surveys of twentieth century residential housing developments; the majority of these focus on the post-World War II era.²⁰ The abstracts of the surveys focuses on the methodology or registration requirements developed for the project.

The State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) holds one of the most important, and possibly underappreciated, roles in this effort to understand and document the resources of the recent past. In this day of critical underfunding for these state agencies, initiatives launched by a SHPO are few and far between, as most of the country's offices, including the Kentucky Heritage Council, barely have enough of a budget to keep the doors open. The states that have managed to tackle this issue have successfully partnered with other agencies, both public and private, to develop a framework for the treatment of post-war housing.

¹⁹ Ames, David and Linda Flint McClelland. *Historic Residential Suburbs: Guidelines for Evaluation and Documentation for the National Register of Historic Places.* (Washington, DC: US Department of the Interior, National Park Service, National Register of Historic Places, September 2002), iii.

²⁰ The states include: Arizona, California, Connecticut, Colorado, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Montana, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Washington. Other states in addition to these have listed Multiple Property Submissions in the NRHO, including Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, New Jersey, New Mexico, South Dakota and Virginia.

Another crucial step that can be taken without a large financial commitment is to address the significance and meaning of the state's recent past within the State Plan, which every SHPO is required to produce every five years. Kentucky's most recent plan does not cover post-war resources, nor does it provide any themes or broader contexts that may help researchers.

In light of the budget constraints impacting federal and state agencies, cities can address their post-war resources in a number of ways. Obviously, the development of contexts and surveys to identify resources is the first step. Louisville is light years ahead of other communities in the Commonwealth, in no small part due to the prodigious research of Carl Kramer, and the histories he produced for both the *Louisville Survey East* and *Louisville Central and South* reports in the late 1970s. Over the years of studying the development patterns in Louisville, Kramer concludes that:

residential land development in Louisville has evolved from a haphazard, unregulated activity dominated by individual property owners who derived most of their wealth from other economic pursuits into a complex, highly regulate business conducted by organized real-estate and land-development firms....Louisville is hardly unique in this regard, and at virtually every point of its evolution, the subdivision process has its parallels in other communities. But we still have no evidence that the Louisville pattern as a whole mirrors that of any other given city during the course of its development. Resolving this issue requires much more research on many more cities, and the field remains fertile.²¹

²¹ Kramer, The Evolution of the Residential Land Subdivision Process in Louisville, 1772-2008, 79-81.

Georgia

The Historic Preservation Division of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources (GA SHPO) "Ranch House Initiative," an in-house overview of the Ranch house, identified five objectives:

- To document the history of the Ranch House in Georgia
- To identify the different types and styles of Ranch Houses in the state;
- To chart the geography of Georgia's Ranch houses;
- To describe their character-defining architectural features;
- And to take note of any distinctly "Georgia" or "Southern" Ranch House characteristics. ²²

The initiative include a literature search, windshield and desktop surveys, and studies of midtwentieth century housing developments, including Section 106 surveys and reports, and a partnership with the historic preservation program at the University of Georgia. This partnership resulted in the 2001 report "Atlanta Housing 1944 to 1965." In addition to the survey and archival work, the Georgia SHPO focused on outreach opportunities, including press coverage, presentations and interviews with the owners and occupants of Ranch Houses.²³

One of the most striking ventures, however, is the interagency task force formed between the GA SHPO, the Georgia Department of Transportation (GDOT) and the Georgia Transmission Corporation (GTC). The task force allowed for an expansion of the research and the establishment of protocols for the study and evaluation of Ranch Houses in the state. In 2008, the GTC, along with the GA SHPO, and GA DOT, hired New South Associates to "formally compile guidance for applying the National Register criteria to the Ranch House, particularly for Section 106 compliance, but also for National Register nominations."²⁴

The Georgia report lays out four general considerations for use when evaluating the integrity of a ranch house.

- Scale is an issue when evaluating Ranch House alterations. Those that appear on compact sub-type examples more seriously compromise the integrity of the property than that same alteration on larger examples. Essentially, each detail counts on smaller examples.
- Proportion is a second consideration. Does the alteration affect the fundamental design, i.e. adding vertical elements that detract from a Ranch Houses' long, low, one-story profile?

²² Dr. Richard R. Clouse. "Ordinary Iconic Ranch House Georgia's Ranch House Initiative." *Recent Past Preservation Network Bulletin* Volume 2, No. 1 (Winter 2011): 12.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Patrick Sullivan, Mary Beth Reed and Tracey Fedor. *The Ranch House in Georgia: Guidelines for Evaluation*. (Stone Mountain, Georgia: New South Associates, 2010), v.

- Additive changes typically pose fewer integrity issues than subtractive changes that have greater potential to affect integrity. Additive changes that do not damage or take away original fabric, or that can be removed, are not considered to be compromising.
- Changes in void and spaces that alter character-defining features of the Ranch House are considered to affect integrity. ²⁵

²⁵ Ibid, 93.

Ohio

In 2009, the Ohio Historic Preservation Office of the Ohio Historical Society (OH SHPO) launched a study to document historic resources and themes in the state from 1940 through 1970. The study was made possible by a Preserve America Grant, as well as funding from the Ohio Department of Transportation, the Ohio Department of Development, the Ohio Humanities Council, the City of Dayton, the OH SHPO and the University of Dayton.

The resulting report, "Ohio Modern: Preserving Our Recent Past," completed by Gray & Pape, Inc. in the fall of 2012, includes a statewide historic context and oral history interviews. The context identified the following historic themes as pivotal to Ohio's history and built environment during the studied time period:

- Industrialization/Deindustrialization
- Changing Demographics
- Social History
- Land Use Planning
- Conservation/Environmental Regulation
- Technological Innovations
- City vs. Suburb
- Transportation
- Design Trends
- Major Architects, Builders and Planners

The second component of the Ohio Modern project is a survey which documented 500 properties in Dayton and its suburbs. "Ohio Modern: Preserving Our Recent Past Dayton and Surrounding Area Survey Report" was produced by Heritage Architectural Associates.

Pennsylvania

In the fall of 2010, the Pennsylvania SHPO, known as the Bureau for Historic Preservation (BHP) launched a website dedicated to *Pennsylvania's Historic Suburbs*.²⁶ This effort grew out of the BHP's goal of "establishing a workable methodology to ensure consistent and defensible evaluations for NRHP eligibility" for post-World War II housing.²⁷ Rather than continue to deal with post-World War II housing on a case-by-case basis, the BHP initiated statewide consultation with consultants, the Federal Highway Administration and the Pennsylvania department of Transportation to develop policy and documentation procedures for these resources.

In addition to consultation with state and federal agencies and the cultural resource management community, the BHP has presented papers at conferences, outlined their approach, "held meetings with potential constituencies, have tested creative mitigation strategies for documenting postwar resources" and developed the Historic Suburbs website. The website seeks "to provide information and avenues of research that will help researchers in their efforts to document these resources by providing the following":

1. Establishment of significant themes and events in the suburban development of Pennsylvania

2. Identification of property types associated with Pennsylvania's suburban development

3. Description of architectural styles and character-defining features representative of suburban development in Pennsylvania

4. Establishment of registration requirements for Pennsylvania's historic suburbs."²⁸

The five periods of suburban development (very similar to the four chronological periods set forth by Ames and McClelland) established by the BHP for Pennsylvania include:

Early Nineteenth Railroad and Horsecar Suburbs,

Late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Century Streetcar Suburbs

Early and Mid-Twentieth Century Automobile Suburbs

Postwar Suburbs 1945-1965

Modern Suburbs 1965-1990

²⁸ Pennsylvania's Historic Suburbs website.

²⁶ The BHP is part of the Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission. <u>http://www.portal.state.pa.us/portal/server.pt/community/pennsylvania_suburbs/5864</u>

²⁷ Cheryl Nagle, Carol Lee, Keith Heinrich and Kira Heinrich. Pennsylvania's Historic Suburbs." *Recent Past Preservation Network Bulletin* Volume 2, No. 1 (Winter 2011), 3.

http://www.portal.state.pa.us/portal/server.pt/community/pennsylvania_suburbs/5864, accessed May 2012.

Tucson, Arizona

The City of Tucson, in partnership with a team of consultants and the Preservation Studies Program at the University of Arizona, undertook a study of post-World War II residential housing in Tucson. The resulting report, *Tucson Post World War II Residential Subdivision Development 1945-1973*, was released in October 2007.²⁹

The foundation for the study grew out of previous survey work in Arizona, most notably the analysis of over 88,000 single family-homes dating from the post-World War II-era. The study focused mainly on archival research, including historic newspapers, deeds and subdivision plats, and data from the Pima County Assessor Records. Newspaper archives of the *Arizona Daily Star* were accessed for two time periods: 1955-1957 (a high point for subdivision platting) and 1966-1968 (the lowest point of subdivision development during the time period). Research focused on identifying the following information from the newspaper archives:

- Types of advertising used to market the subdivisions
- Developers, contractors, architects and/or interior designers associated with the subdivisions
- Landscaping
- Use of model homes
- Terms used to describe the architectural styles or models in the subdivision developments
- Possible upgrades available for the homes
- Financing options.³⁰

The project created a database with the records from the Pima County Assessor for approximately 40,000 houses built during 1945 to 1973. The individual records were sorted and reviewed at three levels: the individual house, individual plats and associated plats. The data was then analyzed, mapped into GIS and then used to conduct reconnaissance field work.³¹

The report included a historic context, property type overview and design/style section. Of particular interest are the four types of residential developments identified in Tucson: Basic, Typical Economy, Typical Upscale and Luxury.

The Tucson report goes further than many other projects in its recommendations. Like the Ohio report, the authors note that the subdivision should be evaluated as a whole, and that developments compromised of "multiple contiguous plats, all plats and their component buildings should contribute to the historic district's significance, not just selected plats."³² Other recommendations pertaining to evaluation and integrity include the stipulation that eligible

²⁹ <u>http://cms3.tucsonaz.gov/sites/default/files/imported/resources/publications/wwii 102207.pdf</u>

³⁰ Multiple Authors. *Tucson Post World War II Residential Subdivision Development 1945-1973*. (Tucson, Arizona, 2007), 5.

³¹ Ibid, 6.

³² Ibid, 79.

postwar subdivisions meet at least two of the NRHP criteria for significance. Given the popularity of Criterion C listings, the report further recommends that subdivisions potentially eligible only under Criterion C should also "have integrity of at least two aspects of its physical characteristics, such as the overall subdivision design, housing architecture, and/or its landscaping."³³

³³ Ibid.

Colorado

The approach of History Colorado, the Colorado SHPO, to post-World War II housing has focused on survey and NRHP nomination within the SHPO, and contextual studies at the municipality level.

A rising level of interest in mid-twentieth century subdivisions and the issues associated with surveying large areas of post-World War II housing prompted History Colorado to develop a new survey form "to address the special aspects of these types of resources."³⁴ This form, designed to "facilitate the documentation of a preponderance of residential historic resources approaching and/or having achieved the 50 years of age benchmark" was made available for use in May 2012. A copy of the Colorado form is included as Appendix B (page 598).

In 2010, the City of Boulder completed a historic context and survey of residential architecture during the time period 1947 to 1967. *The Historic Context and Survey of Post-World War II Residential Architecture, Boulder, Colorado,* was prepared by TEC, Inc. with funding provided by the Colorado Historic Society's State Historical Fund.

The project includes a historic context, and a combination of reconnaissance and intensive survey. Ten subdivisions were selected following a windshield survey of postwar subdivisions within the city limits of Boulder. From these subdivisions, 105 properties were chosen for intensive survey.

The Colorado state preservation plan, *The Power of Heritage and Place: A 2020 Action Plan to Advance Preservation in Colorado*, addresses the need to survey the resources of the recent past, as well as develop more thematic contexts.³⁵

³⁴ Heather L. Bailey. The Recent Past on the Front Range: Post-World War II Projects at History Colorado. *Recent Past Preservation Network Bulletin* Volume 2, No. 1 (Winter 2011), 23.

³⁵ <u>http://www.historycolorado.org/sites/default/files/files/OAHP/Programs/StatePlanSummary.pdf</u>

Chapter 4. Historic Background

Introduction

This chapter presents the Prehistoric background (archaeology), followed by the Historic background (related to above-ground resources). One aim of this study was to integrate the assessment of above-ground resources with an assessment of the potential archaeological resources of a surveyed building or structure. Together, these two disciplines provide a fuller, richer picture of the study area.

Paleoindian Period (9,500-8,000 B.C.)

The Paleoindian period (ca. 9,500 to 8,000 B.C.) represents the initial documented colonization of all the major physiographic regions within Kentucky.³⁶ Until the late 1990s, the view of Late Pleistocene hunter-gatherers in the Americas was largely dominated by the "Clovis-first" paradigm.³⁷ However, new discoveries have resulted in a rather surprising amount of data that cannot be explained under the Clovis-first hypothesis. The discovery of the well-dated occupation of the Monte Verde site, located in southern Chile has made it clear that humans were in the Americas by at least 11,000.³⁸ In addition, as more sites are documented in North America that contain cultural assemblages in depositional contexts that are stratigraphically below Clovis layers it is becoming increasingly clear that there are sites in North America that predate Clovis.³⁹ Several of these pre-Clovis sites are located in regions close to Kentucky, such as Cactus Hill in Virginia, Topper in South Carolina, Big Eddy in Missouri, and Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania.⁴⁰ Although people may have lived in what is now Kentucky before

³⁶ Greg J. Maggard and Kary L. Stackelbeck. "Paleoindian Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 109-192.

³⁷ Ibid., 109

³⁸ Tom D. Dillehay. *Monte Verde: A Late Pleistocene Settlement in Chile, Volume II: The Archaeological Context* (Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1997)

³⁹ Maggard and Stackelbeck.

⁴⁰ James M. Adovasio and others. "No Vestige of a Beginning Nor Prospect for an End: Two Decades of Debate on Meadowcroft," in *Ice Age Peoples of North America: Environments, Origins, and Adaptations*, eds. Robson Bonnichsen and Karen L. Turnmire (Texas A&M University Press College Station, Center for Study of the First Americans, Department of Anthropology 1999), 416-431; Albert C. Goodyear, III. "The Early Holocene Occupation of the Southeastern United States: A Geoarchaeological Summary," in *Ice Age Peoples of North America: Environments, Origins, and Adaptations*, eds. Robson Bonnichsen and Karen L. Turnmire (Texas A&M University Press College Station, Center for Study of the First America: Environments, Origins, and Adaptations, eds. Robson Bonnichsen and Karen L. Turnmire (Texas A&M University Press College Station, Center for Study of the First Americans, Department of Anthropology 1999), 432-481; Neal H.Lopinot and others, eds. *The 1999 Excavations at the Big Eddy Site (23CE426)*, (Springfield, Missouri: Center for Archaeological Research, Southwest Missouri State University, Special Publication No. 3, 2000); Joseph M. McAvoy, and Lynn D. McAvoy, *Archaeological Investigations of Site 44SX202, Cactus Hill, Sussex County, Virginia*. (Sandston, Virginia: Virginia Department of Historic Resources, Nottoway River Survey Archaeological Research, 1997); David Pollack. "Mississippian Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 605-738; Maggard and Stackelbeck, 115; Kenneth B. Tankersley. "Ice Age Hunters and Gatherers," in

9,500 B.C., the archaeological evidence of such utilization and occupation of this region has yet to be found.⁴¹ With the exception of a radiocarbon date (9,010 +/- 240 B.C.) and a retouched blade recovered below Late Paleoindian deposits from the Enoch Fork Shelter in Perry County, archaeologists currently know very little about the timing of pre-Clovis occupations in Kentucky.⁴²

Based on projectile point styles, it is now relatively common across much of North America, including Kentucky, to refer to Paleoindian occupation in three distinct subperiods: Early, Middle, and Late Paleoindian. Kentucky's climate at 9,500 B.C. was much cooler and moister than today; however, a warming trend began around 8,500 B.C. This warming caused drastic changes in Kentucky's vegetation, and the composition of terrestrial resources.⁴³ The Early Paleoindian subperiod in Kentucky ranges from 9,500 to 9,000 B.C. and is associated with Clovis projectile points. These early inhabitants of Kentucky had a distinctive toolkit adapted to hunting and processing big game. The primary tools used by Paleoindian groups included fluted and finely worked lanceolate projectile points.⁴⁴ However, large bifaces, prismatic blades, chipped stone knives, side and end scrapers, gravers and bone, ivory or antler implements, such as awls and sewing needles also are well-known.⁴⁵

Research across North America is revealing that Clovis peoples living in small, highly mobile hunter-gatherer groups, relied on subsistence strategies more closely resembling the broad-spectrum Early and Middle Archaic subsistence practices than that of big game hunting specialization.⁴⁶ Although mastodon, mammoth, bison, horse, tapir, camel, and peccary are just a few of the big game mammals that Paleoindian groups hunted, they did not depend solely on mega-fauna resources but instead employed a mixed foraging strategy, exploiting small game, marine, and plant food resources.

The Middle Paleoindian subperiod (9,000-8,500 B.C.) is similar in most respects to the preceding Early Paleoindian Clovis subdivision; however, it is marked by technological changes,

Kentucky Archaeology, ed. R. Barry Lewis (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1996), 21; Gary Haynes, *The* Early Settlement of North America: The Clovis Era (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002); Tankersley, 24; Goodyear, 432-481; Lopinot and others; Joseph M. McAvoy and Lynn D. McAvoy, Archaeological Investigations of Site 44SX202, Cactus Hill, Sussex County, Virginia (Sandston, Virginia: Virginia Department of

Historic Resources, Nottoway River Survey Archaeological Research, 1997)

⁴¹ David Pollack, "Mississippian Period" in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort,

KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 605-738. ⁴² Maggard and Stackelbeck, 115.

⁴³ Kenneth B. Tankersley. "Ice Age Hunters and Gatherers," in *Kentucky Archaeology*, ed. R. Barry Lewis, (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1996), 21.

⁴⁴ Maggard and Stackelbeck, 2008.

⁴⁵ Haynes, 2002; Tankersley, 24.

⁴⁶ Maggard and Stackelbeck, 2008.

greater stylistic diversity of projectile points, and increased economic regionalization.⁴⁷ During the Middle Paleoindian subperiod Gainey and Cumberland replace Clovis points and a core and blade technology is replaced by a technique called bipolar lithic reduction. These technological changes most likely occurred in response to the use of a wider range of raw material resources, including some poorer quality materials. Changes in lithic technology also accompanied the increased use of locally available chert resources. The Middle Paleoindian subperiod witnessed noticeable climatic changes, including the retreat of the Pleistocene glaciers and the replacement of spruce and pine forest with hardwoods. These changes resulted in environmental instability and the apparent extinction of most species of Pleistocene mega-fauna.⁴⁸ Environmental changes also appear to have resulted in a subsistence shift toward an increased reliance on regionally available plants and smaller game resources within a mixed foraging economy.⁴⁹

The Late Paleoindian subperiod (8,500-8,000 B.C.) is once again marked by changes in Paleoindian toolkits. Like Early and Middle Paleoindian points, Late Paleoindian points are bifacially-flaked, lanceolate forms; however, they lack the characteristic flutes that are diagnostic of earlier projectile point types. ⁵⁰ The earlier point styles were replaced by unfluted point types, such as Lanceolate Plano points and Dalton Cluster points.⁵¹ The toolkit became more diverse and included unifacial and bifacial tools, such as beveled and backed bifaces, unifacial and flake scrapers, adzes, retouched flakes, and drill/perforators. ⁵² As in earlier periods, a changing environment was the driving force behind the addition of new tool types. Ray suggests that four major changes in lithic technology occurred between the Late Paleoindian subperiod and their earlier predecessors: 1) a more intensive use of a wider range of locally available chert resources, as later points are often manufactured from lower quality materials; 2) channel fluting is replaced with basal thinning; 3) a marked reduction in the size of projectile points and; 4) more extensive resharpening of projectile point blade margins. Clovis, Cumberland and Gainey points are usually resharpened only along the distal end of the point blade.⁵³ Late Paleoindian points; however, are frequently resharpened along the lateral edges of the blade indicating substantial reuse.

By Late Paleoindian time, large herbivores, such as mammoth, mastodon, horse, moose, and elk, had become or were going extinct and open areas were most likely limited to karst barrens and

⁴⁷ Ibid; Jack H. Ray, A Survey of Paleoindian Points from the Upper Rolling Fork and Beech Fork Drainage Basins in Central Kentucky. Research Report No. 1209 (Springfield: Center for Archaeological Research, Southwest Missouri State University, 2003)

⁴⁸ Maggard and Stackelbeck, 2008.

⁴⁹ Renee B. Walker. "Hunting in the Late Paleoindian Period: Faunal Remains from Dust Cave, Alabama," in Foragers of the Terminal Pleistocene in North America, eds. Renee B. Walker and Boyce N. Driskell (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 8007), ix-xv.

⁵⁰ Ray, 2003; Tankersley, 24.

⁵¹ Tankersley, 33.

⁵² Goodyear, 1999; Dan F. Morse, ed., Sloan: A Paleoindian Dalton Cemetery in Arkansas (Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1997); Tankersley, 24. ⁵³ Ray, 2003.

sandy terraces along major streams. ⁵⁴ Game such as white-tail deer, bear, and turkey became important sources of food, and an extremely wide range of plants, including various nut species were collected.

Archaic Period (8,000 - 1,000 B.C.)

Retreating Pleistocene glaciers and the onset of the Hypsithermal climatic interval marked a shift in the climate of Kentucky and also in the lifeways of its inhabitants. The climatic changes that forced the northern migration/extinction of mega-fauna also changed the nature of Kentucky's forests. The once circum-glacial coniferous forests were replaced by mixed deciduous forests, thus allowing modern species of flora and fauna to expand. The Archaic period began around 8,000 B.C. with a slow shift from the exploitation of mega-fauna to a more varied subsistence strategy. Archaic groups began to exploit forest game like the white-tail deer as well as plant foods, especially nuts. Marine resources, such as freshwater mussels, also became important sources of food.

The Early Archaic subperiod (8,000-6,000 B.C.) is marked by numerous technological, social, and economic changes as hunting and gathering societies adapted to the climate change that occurred toward the end of the last Pleistocene glaciations. ⁵⁵ The appearance of corner and basal notched projectile points, such as the Kirk and LeCroy types, the relatively high percentage of projectile points made from high quality nonlocal cherts, and the lack of evidence for long-term occupation, suggests that mobile hunting groups continued to exploit relatively large territories much like their Paleoindian predecessors.⁵⁶ Early Archaic assemblages contain few tools related to collecting or processing plant food, and the paucity of these tool types indicates that these subsistence activities were of relatively minor importance compared with hunting activities. The limited amount of Early Archaic material found at most sites, combined with a general absence of middens, features, and burials, suggests that most Early Archaic occupations were of short duration.⁵⁷

The Hypsithermal climatic interval, which began around 7,000 B.C., caused the midcontinent to gradually become warmer and dryer than today.⁵⁸ This shift in climate affected the plants, animals, and people of Kentucky. The Middle Archaic subperiod (6,000-3,000 B.C.) was a time of increasing regionalization of cultures reflected by a variety of technological, settlement, subsistence, and social traits (Jefferies 2008:203). One of the most distinctive characteristics was the development of regional projectile point styles, such as Morrow Mountain, Matanzas,

⁵⁴ Maggard and Stackelbeck.

⁵⁵ Richard W. Jefferies. "Archaic Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed. David Pollack

⁽Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 193-338.

⁵⁶ Ibid, 203.

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Richard W. Jefferies. "Hunters and Gatherers After the Ice Age," in *Kentucky Archaeology*, ed. R. Barry Lewis (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1996), 47.

and Big Sandy II in eastern and central Kentucky.⁵⁹ Point types, such as Eva, Cypress Creek, and Big Sandy are found in western Kentucky.⁶⁰

During the Middle Archaic subperiod a variety of specialized tools appeared in the archaeological record. Additions to the Archaic toolkit, include formal and informal groundstone tools, such as axes, pitted anvils, grinding stones, and pestles, which were used to process plant foods.⁶¹ Another important tool that appears during this period is the atlatl, which extended the range to which a spear could be thrown.⁶² In many parts of Kentucky, the ephemeral nature of most early Middle Archaic occupations suggests high group mobility, not unlike that found during the Early Archaic subperiod.⁶³ In contrast with the early Middle Archaic, the presence of large late Middle Archaic sites containing deep middens, a high diversity of tool types, and burials indicates that some locations were intensively occupied on a long-term or year-round basis.⁶⁴

The climate in the eastern United States became more moderate around 3,000 B.C. and Late Archaic (3,000-1,000 B.C.) groups remained largely mobile as represented by the numerous small sites dating to this subperiod. Differences in the size, number, and distribution of settlements are suggestive of changes in settlement systems and social organization from the Middle to Late Archaic.⁶⁵ In some parts of Kentucky, Late Archaic sites appear to be more dispersed and less intensively utilized than during the late Middle Archaic.⁶⁶

Late Archaic subsistence focused on hunting white-tail deer and collecting hickory nuts. A wide variety of small animals, birds, and fish supplied dietary protein and fat and in certain areas, mussels obtained from streams were an important source of food. The presence of native and tropical cultigens at some Late Archaic sites suggests that groups were beginning to experiment with horticulture/gardening.⁶⁷ A wide range of flaked stone, groundstone, bone, and wood tools reflects this shift in subsistence.⁶⁸ Late Archaic projectile point types include an assortment of large straight, expanding, and contracting stem points, and smaller stemmed and side-notched types.⁶⁹ The presence of artifacts manufactured from nonlocal raw materials, such as copper and marine shell, at several sites along the Green River shows that some form of long distance exchange network existed during the Late Archaic.⁷⁰

⁵⁹ Jefferies, "Archaic Period," 203.

⁶⁰ Jefferies, "Hunters and Gatherers After the Ice Age," 47.

⁶¹ Jefferies, "Archaic Period," 203.

⁶² Jefferies, "Hunters and Gatherers After the Ice Age," 48.

⁶³ Richard W.Jefferies, Victor D. Thompson, and George R. Milner, "Archaic Hunter-Gatherer Landscape Use in West-Central Kentucky." *Journal of Field Archaeology*, no. 30 (2005): 3-23.

⁶⁴ Jefferies, "Archaic Period," 206.

⁶⁵ Jefferies, 209.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ Jefferies, "Hunters and Gatherers After the Ice Age," 57.

⁶⁸ Ibid, 55.

⁶⁹ Jefferies, "Archaic Period," 210.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

Woodland Period (1,000 B.C. - A.D. 900 or 1,000)

Pottery technology is the defining characteristic of the Early Woodland subperiod; however, it was adopted at different times across Kentucky. While chronometric determinations place pottery in some parts of Kentucky at or before 1,000 B.C., there are few dates prior to 600 B.C. and many more after 400 B.C.⁷¹ The oldest pottery in central and eastern Kentucky is typically thick-walled cordmarked, plain, or fabric-impressed vessels tempered with coarse grit and rocks. This type of pottery is known as Fayette Thick.⁷² Fayette Thick vessels were barrel-shaped jars and large, deep, basin-shaped jars or cauldrons.⁷³ The most common pot was a limestone or sandstone tempered jar of the type called Adena Plain.⁷⁴

Early Woodland projectile point types mostly notched and stemmed forms, such as Wade, Gary, Turkeytail, and Camp Creek were used as knives, spears, or atlatl dart tips. Adena stemmed points became common after about 500 B.C.⁷⁵ Pestles and nutting stones were utilized in plant processing; hunting tools included atlatl weights. Hammerstones and abraders were used in tool manufacturing.⁷⁶

Another archaeological characteristic of the Early Woodland is the appearance of social or ritual sites that are spatially segregated from domestic habitations.⁷⁷ Among these are burial mounds, "sacred circles," ditched earthworks, and other enclosures. By about 500-400 B.C., groups in some parts of Kentucky began to construct burial mounds and irregularly shaped enclosures; these sites were typically associated with Adena.⁷⁸ An early Adena site in central Kentucky is Peter Village. Peter Village is a large oval structure that was originally surveyed and mapped by Constantine Rafinesque in 1820.⁷⁹ The first large oval enclosure built at Peter Village was a wooden stockade; it was later replaced by a 2 m deep exterior ditch.⁸⁰ Artifacts collected from

⁷¹ Darlene Applegate, "Hopewell in Kentucky?" (Paper presented at Hopewell: Origins, Artistry, and Culture Conference, The Archaeological Society of Ohio, Columbus, 2006)

⁷² James B. Griffin. "Adena Village Site Pottery from Fayette County, Kentucky" in *The Riley Mound*, Site Be15 and the Landing Mound, Site Be17, Boone County, Kentucky with Additional Notes on the Mt. Horeb Site, Fa1 and Sites Fa14 and Fa15, Fayette County, Kentucky, ed. William S. Webb (Lexington: University of Kentucky, Reports in Anthropology and Archaeology 5(7), 1943), 666-670.

⁷³ Jimmy A. Railey. "Woodland Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: Past Accomplishments and Future Directions*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 1990), 247-372.

 ⁷⁴ William G. Haag. "A Description of the Wright Site Pottery," in *The Wright Mounds*, ed. William S.
 Webb (Lexington: University of Kentucky, Reports in Anthropology and Archaeology 5(1), 1940) 75-82.
 ⁷⁵ Jimmy A. Railey. "Woodland Cultivators," in *Kentucky Archaeology*, ed. R. Barry Lewis (Lexington: University of Kentucky, 1996), 79-126.

 ⁷⁶ Darlene Applegate. "Woodland Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 343.

⁷⁷ Ibid, 345.

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ Eric Schlarb. "The Bullock Site: A Forgotten Mound in Woodford County, Kentucky," in *Woodland Period Systematics in the Middle Ohio Valley*, eds. Darlene Applegate and Robert C. Mainfort Jr. (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 2005) 63-76.

⁸⁰ Berle R. Clay. "An Incident of Victorian Archaeology in Kentucky and Its Historic and Regional

the surface of the site, include stemmed and other projectile points, drills, gravers, reamers, scrapers, knives, celts, hammerstones, sandstone tubular pipe fragments, worked pipestone, slate pendant fragments and gorgets, and hematite cones/hemispheres.⁸¹ Items produced from barite or galena, such as boatstones or atlatl weights, beads, and cones/hemispheres, as well as Fayette Thick and Adena Plain ceramics also were recovered from the surface.⁸² Despite its name, Peter Village did not function as a habitation site.⁸³ According to Clay, the stockade and ditchembankment features could have served defensive functions and/or defined "an area for secular or sacred purposes." Peter Village was a special activity site or "defensive resource exploitation center" where barite/galena was acquired from a nearby vein deposit and processed into rectangles and cones that commonly occur as grave goods at Adena mortuary sites.⁸⁴ Food preparation and mortuary feasting, pottery manufacture, and chipped stone tool manufacture also occurred at the site.⁸⁵

Early Woodland (1,000-200 B.C.) subsistence patterns in Kentucky witnessed a slight change from Late Archaic times. Hunting and gathering continued as the main subsistence activities, with garden crops supplementing more of the diet.⁸⁶ Animal protein was obtained from a variety of sources, including white-tail deer, box turtles, small mammals, birds, and in some areas, fish and mussels.⁸⁷ Much as they were in the Archaic period, nuts continued to be an important food source and they were gathered and stored for year-round consumption. However, an important development that occurred during Early Woodland times was the intensified utilization and cultivation of weedy plants and cucurbits.⁸⁸ Indigenous plant cultigens of the Eastern Agricultural Complex (EAC) found at Early Woodland sites include sunflower, sumpweed or marsh elder, chenopodium or goosefoot, erect knotweed, giant ragweed, and maygrass. Gourd and squash, some species of which were indigenous cultivars, also are found in Early Woodland plant assemblages.⁸⁹

Subsistence practices were seasonal. Planting, tending gardens, and fishing were spring and summer activities, while harvesting wild and domesticated plant species, as well as gathering and

Implications," in Woodland Period Research in Kentucky, eds. David Pollack, Thomas Sanders, and

Charles Hockensmith (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 1985)1-41; Berle R. Clay. "Peter Village 164 Years Later: 1983 Excavations," in *Woodland Period Research in Kentucky*, eds. David Pollack, Thomas Sanders, and Charles Hockensmith, (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 1985), 1041.

⁸¹ Applegate, "Woodland Period," 461.

 ⁸² Griffin, 1943; William S. Webb, *The Mt. Horeb Site Earthworks, Site 1, and the Drake Mound, Site 11, Fayette County, Kentucky* (Lexington: University of Kentucky, Reports in Anthropology and Archaeology 5(2), 1943)
 ⁸³ Applegate, "Woodland Period," 461

⁸⁴ Clay, "Peter Village 164 Years Later: 1983 Excavations."

⁸⁵ Applegate, "Woodland Period," 461.

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Ibid, 344.

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ Ibid, 344; Patty Jo Watson. "Impact of Early Horticulture in the Upland Drainages of the Midwest and Midsouth," in *Prehistoric Food Production in North America*, ed. Richard I. Ford (Ann Arbor: Museum of Anthropology, Anthropological Papers No. 75, University of Michigan, 1985), 99-147.

storing mast products, were autumn activities.⁹⁰ Hunting deer and other game was a late autumn and winter activity.

The aboriginal use of subterranean caves became popular for a relatively short time during the Early and Middle Woodland subperiods. Caves across Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, and Alabama have been identified, through radiocarbon dating, as having been explored by prehistoric humans during both subperiods. These people exploited caves to mine minerals, such as gypsum and mirabilite; to quarry chert for tools; to bury their dead; and to reach dark zones deep within caves for ritualistic purposes.⁹¹ Bundles of river cane and/or small sticks were used for lighting and often dabbed on the wall to keep the torch burning at an even rate for longer light usage; woven fiber slippers provided added foot protection; small rocks were used for battering gypsum off cave walls; and river cane and/or larger wooden digging sticks were used to prospect for and retrieve selenite crystals from the floor and wall sediments within caves. While it is not exactly clear why minerals like gypsum (hydrous calcium sulfate) and mirabilite (hydrous sodium sulfate) were mined so intensively during this period of prehistory, modern archaeological experiments with these minerals have determined that, with the addition of water or grease, gypsum powder makes a crude white plaster base similar to plaster of paris. Gypsum crystals (satin spar and selenite) could have been used in ritual or ceremonial purposes, and mirabilite and epsomite are both laxatives and have the additional medicinal properties of Glauber's salts and Epsom salts.⁹² Mirabilite also tastes somewhat salty, hinting at its possible use in cooking and meat preservation.⁹³

The use of exotic raw materials, first documented at the end of the Early Woodland, peaked during the early Middle Woodland and continued into the Middle Woodland (200 B.C.-500 A.D.) subperiod in Kentucky.⁹⁴ Items, such as copper bracelets, breastplates and gorgets, copper and mica head ornaments, marine shell beads, and Vanport (Flint Ridge of Ohio) chert bladelets are among the types of artifacts found almost exclusively in mortuary-ritual contexts.⁹⁵

There is less information regarding Middle Woodland subsistence compared to earlier and later subperiods; however, faunal and floral assemblages indicate a generalized economy based on food collection and food production.⁹⁶

The Adena and Hopewell concepts, which emerged in the early part of the twentieth century, were based on research that focused on the burial practices of Woodland peoples. These two concepts are the synthesis of the excavation of several small burial mounds in Kentucky and

⁹⁰ Railey, 1996.

⁹¹ George C. Crothers et al. "Woodland Cave Archaeology in Eastern North America," in *The Woodland Southeast*, ed. David G. Anderson and Robert C. Mainfort Jr (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 2002), 502-524.

⁹² Ibid.

⁹³ Ibid, 512.

⁹⁴ Applegate, 2008.

⁹⁵ Ibid, 346.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

southern Ohio.⁹⁷ Most Kentucky archaeologists concur that Adena spans the late Early Woodland to early Middle Woodland.⁹⁸ The vast majority of Adena earthwork sites in Kentucky are thought to date from 500 B.C. to A.D. 250.⁹⁹ Adena burial mounds seldom represent a single event but instead contain several individual tombs, each tomb being covered with earth at the conclusion of the mortuary event.¹⁰⁰ Adena mortuary items include projectile points, stone gorgets, pipes, celts, simple and engraved tablets, galena, bone and shell tools, and beads.¹⁰¹ Hopewell mounds differ from Adena mounds in that they tend to cover a single tomb.¹⁰² Additional interments are distributed horizontally in Hopewell contexts instead of vertically, as in Adena contexts. Whole ceramic vessels, mica cut-outs, obsidian artifacts, platform pipes, terra-cotta figurines, and copper celts are items that appear in Hopewell contexts and are absent or rare in Adena.¹⁰³

Hopewell sites date from A.D. 1 - 500 and tend to be concentrated in southern Ohio. However, a number of Woodland sites showing Hopewell influence have been documented in Kentucky.¹⁰⁴ Clay has interpreted "Hopewell as an extension of the complexity that developed in Adena."¹⁰⁵ Railey concluded that "Adena should be viewed as an early regional expression of Hopewell rather than its predecessor."¹⁰⁶ Applegate suggested a similar interpretation, stating that Adena developed during the late Early Woodland in Ohio and Kentucky.¹⁰⁷ By the early Middle Woodland times in Ohio, the Adena mortuary-ritual complex morphed into or was superseded by Hopewell.¹⁰⁸ In Kentucky; however, the predominate mortuary-ritual complex continued to be Adena with limited and irregular influences from Ohio Hopewell, Appalachian Summit Hopewell, Copena Hopewell, and to a lesser extent, Illinois Hopewell.¹⁰⁹ In essence, the

⁹⁷ Railey, 1996.

⁹⁸ See Clay, Henderson et al 1988; Pollack et al 2005; Railey 1996; Richmond and Kerr 2005; Schlarb 2005.

⁹⁹ David G. Anderson and Robert C. Mainfort Jr. "Introduction to Woodland Archaeology in the

Southeast," in *Introduction to Woodland Archaeology in the Southeast* (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 2002) 1-19; Berle R. Clay. "The Cultural Historical Placement of Fayette Thick Ceramics in Central Kentucky," *Tennessee Anthropologist*, no. 5:2(1980):166-178; Berle R. Clay. "Pottery and Graveside Ritual in Kentucky Adena," *Midcontinental Journal of Archaeology* 8:1 (1983):109-126; James P. Fenton and Richard W. Jefferies. "The Camargo Mound and Earthworks: Preliminary Findings," in *The Human landscape in Kentucky's Past: Site Structure and Settlement Patterns*, eds. Charles Stout and Christina K. Hensley (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 1991) 40-55.; Mark F. Seeman. "Adena "Houses" and Their Implications for Early Woodland Settlement Models in the Ohio Valley," in *Early Woodland Archaeology*, eds. Kenneth B. Farnsworth and Thomas E. Emerson (Kampsville, Illinois: Kampsville Seminars in Archaeology No. 2. Center for American Archaeology, 1986), 564-580.

¹⁰⁰ Railey, 1996.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

¹⁰² Ibid, 254.

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Applegate, 2008.

¹⁰⁵ Berle R. Clay. "Adena Ritual Development: An Organizational Type in a Temporal Perspective," in *The Human Landscape in Kentucky's Past: Site Structure and Settlement Patterns*, eds. Charles Stout, and Christina K. Hensley (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 1991), 30-39.

¹⁰⁶ Railey, "Woodland Cultivators," 100.

¹⁰⁷ Applegate, "Hopewell in Kentucky?"

¹⁰⁸ Applegate, "Woodland Period."

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

distinction between Adena and Hopewell in Kentucky is much less clear-cut than it is in Ohio. This is not surprising, because Kentucky is located in an area that was a "hinterland" or "periphery" to classic Hopewell.¹¹⁰

The transition from Middle to Late Woodland (A.D. 500-1000) times in Kentucky does not appear to have been abrupt. Instead it was a gradual process, linked to changes in plant subsistence practices and hunting technology, a decline in long-distance trade networks, and changes in ritual expression.¹¹¹ In some parts of Kentucky, the Late Woodland was "a time of appreciable cultural change," including population increase, development of the bow-and-arrow technology, changes in the amount of mound construction, shifts in social organization, and subsistence change.¹¹² During the early Late Woodland wild plants and animals continued to be the foundation of the subsistence economy. Cultivation of native plants continued and may have intensified.¹¹³ Though small amounts of maize are present in Middle and early late Woodland contexts, it was not until the terminal Late Woodland (ca. A.D. 800) that it became a significant component of regional diets.¹¹⁴ Early Late Woodland ceramic assemblages are marked by a decrease in vessel wall thickness and a general increase in jar size relative to the Middle Woodland subperiod.¹¹⁵ These larger vessels were used to cook nutrient rich starchy-oily seeded Also during this period in time, important technological changes appear with the crops. replacement of notched and stemmed projectile points with smaller, finely knapped corner notched points of the Jacks Reef type and triangular points, marking the introduction of the bowand-arrow into Kentucky.

Late Prehistoric Period (A.D. 900-1750)

The Late Prehistoric period in Kentucky is defined by two different cultural traditions: Mississippian and Fort Ancient. The Fort Ancient tradition flourished in central, northern, and eastern Kentucky, as well as southeastern Indiana, southwestern Ohio, and western West Virginia. Mississippian peoples occupied western Kentucky, as well as the extreme southern and southeastern portions of the state.

The Fort Ancient tradition is generally believed to be a response by local populations to increased reliance on agriculture, increased sedentism, and an accompanying rise in sociopolitical complexity.¹¹⁶ Fort Ancient subsistence practices and their environmental focus appear to have developed early and stabilized quickly, changing little over a time spanning 750

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ David Pollack and A. Gwynn Henderson. "Late Woodland Cultures in Kentucky," in *Late Woodland Societies: Tradition and Transformation Across the Midcontinent*, eds. Thomas E. Emerson, Dale L. McElrath, and Andrew C. Fortier (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2000), 613-641.

¹¹² Anderson and Mainfort, 2002.

¹¹³ Applegate, 2008.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ Pollack and Henderson, 2000.

¹¹⁶ William E. Sharp. "Fort Ancient Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: Past Accomplishments and Future Directions*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 1990), 467-557.

years.¹¹⁷ Maize, beans, squash, and sunflower were staples of the Fort Ancient diet, but gourds and tobacco, and to a lesser extent, sumac was grown.¹¹⁸ Relative to earlier Late Woodland peoples and contemporary Mississippian groups, there was much less emphasis on starchy-oily seeded crops, such as maygrass and marshelder.¹¹⁹ The agricultural practices of Fort Ancient groups were supplemented by a variety of small mammals, reptiles, fish, and freshwater mussels. Fort Ancient peoples also depended on deer, elk, and wild turkey for subsistence.¹²⁰There is evidence for domesticated dogs and possibly the keeping, but not domesticating, of wild turkey.¹²¹

Kentucky Fort Ancient settlements consisted of autonomous villages and small camps. Throughout much of the Fort Ancient culture area, settlements were located along floodplains or terraces of the Ohio River and its major tributaries; however, villages also were located on interior ridges within close proximity of a variety of drainage types and springs.¹²² These villages varied from circular/elliptical to a linear arrangement of structures located along a ridge or terrace. Fort Ancient community size increased over time and early villages may have been occupied by no more than 40 or 50 people.¹²³ During the Middle Fort Ancient (A.D. 1200-1400) subperiod, villages may have held 90 to 300 individuals and by the Late Fort Ancient (A.D. 1400-1750) subperiod villages are estimated at between 250 and 500 people.¹²⁴ The development of circular villages and the construction of burial mounds during the Middle Fort Ancient subperiod provide evidence for long-term group planning and socio-political cooperation, and the formalized expression of social inequality.¹²⁵ During the Late Fort Ancient, houses take on the shape of large rectangular structures and differ greatly from older Fort Ancient houses. Distinctive artifacts were small triangular projectile points, bifacial end scrapers, disk pipes, bone and shell beads, copper or brass tube beads or pendants, and shell gorgets. European trade goods also have been reported from Late Fort Ancient sites. Copper tinkling cones and catlinite artifacts have been found in association with extended burials covered with shingled rock slabs.126

Ceramics are the most common and diagnostic Fort Ancient artifact class. Fort Ancient ceramic vessels were made from locally available clays and are grit, limestone, sandstone, and/or shell tempered. Stylistic differences among Fort Ancient Jars have been used to define regional

¹¹⁷ A. Gwynn Henderson. "Fort Ancient Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed.

David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 739-902.

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

 ¹¹⁹ Jack Rossen. "Botanical Remains," in *Fort Ancient Cultural Dynamics in the Middle Ohio Valley*, ed A. Gwynn Henderson (Madison, Wisconsin: Monographs in World Archaeology No. 8. Prehistory Press, 1992), 189-208.
 ¹²⁰ Henderson, 2008.

¹²¹ Ibid, 744.

¹²² Ibid, 745.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

¹²⁵ Ibid, 745.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

divisions e.g., (Anderson, Jessamine, and Manion) within the tradition prior to A.D. 1400.¹²⁷ After A.D. 1400, ceramic vessel types such as bowls and saltpans become common. Vessel rims and necks can be decorated with incising, punctations, or notching.

Fort Ancient chipped stone tools were made from locally available high- to medium-quality cherts.¹²⁸ The lithic toolkit of Fort Ancient peoples included small, generally isosceles triangular arrow points as well as a variety of cutting, scraping, and drilling tools manufactured not only from stone but also animal bone.¹²⁹ Groundstone tools include sandstone abraders, manos, or nutting stones (Henderson 2008). Smoking pipes were manufactured from clay, sandstone, Ohio pipestone, limestone, and catlinite. Chipped limestone disks are diagnostic of the Middle Fort Ancient subperiod.¹³⁰ Fort Ancient tools also were manufactured from shell and bone. Fort Ancient peoples produced shell or bone spoons and hoes, bone awls, needles, drifts, and beamers. Ornaments in the form of beads, plain or engraved gorgets, earrings, and bracelets, were made of animal teeth and bone, shell (both freshwater and marine), and cannel coal.¹³¹

Mississippian society has been exemplified as that of a chiefdom in which leadership roles were ascribed, society was ranked, and the power of chiefs could be great but was usually not absolute.¹³² In addition, Mississippian groups shared a fundamental iconography.¹³³ Mississippian groups throughout the Southeast, including those in Kentucky, shared an economy based on hunting; the cultivation of maize, squash and native plants; and the collection of wild plants.¹³⁴ Gathered plants included hickory nuts, persimmons, and the seeds of goosefoot, erect knotweed, and maygrass. Animals commonly hunted for consumption included white-tail deer, wild turkeys, turtles, and fish.

The Mississippian settlement system was made up of a hierarchy of habitation sites, most notably, administrative centers, that featured plazas flanked by buildings positioned on platform mounds and sizable populations.¹³⁵ The platform mounds constructed at these sites were home to elite members of society. Administrative centers were the social, political, and religious centers of Mississippian society. Other Mississippian site types consisted of large villages, small

¹²⁷ Ibid.

¹²⁸ Ibid, 742.

¹²⁹ Railey, 1992.

¹³⁰ Henderson, 2008.

¹³¹ Ibid, 743.

¹³² R. Barry Lewis. "Mississippian Farmers," in *Kentucky Archaeology*, ed. R. Barry Lewis (Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1966), 127-159; David Pollack. "Mississippian Period," in *The Archaeology of Kentucky: An Update*, ed. David Pollack (Frankfort, KY: State Historic Preservation Comprehensive Plan Report No. 3. Kentucky Heritage Council, 2008), 605-738.

¹³³ Pollack, 2008.

¹³⁴ Ibid, 605.

¹³⁵ R. Barry Lewis, Charles Stout, and Cameron B. Wesson. "The Design of Mississippian Towns," in *Mississippian Towns and Sacred Spaces: Searching for an Architectural Grammar*, ed. R. Barry Lewis and Charles Stout (Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 1998,) 1-21; Pollack, 2008, 605.

villages, hamlets, farmsteads, and cemeteries.¹³⁶ Hamlets were larger than a farmstead, but smaller than villages.

Large hoes, adzes, abraders, gravers, and picks joined the bow-and-arrow as the main components of the Mississippian toolkit. Non-local materials, such as marine shell and copper, also have been recovered from Mississippian sites. Muller notes that the appearance of these artifacts probably represents hand-to-hand exchange rather than the long-distance movements of traders.¹³⁷ Ceramic assemblages consisted of jars, bowls, plates, and pans and the use of shell temper increased as the Mississippian period progressed. Most of the ceramics from lower Ohio Valley sites are plain wares, either finely or coarsely tempered.¹³⁸ Finely tempered ceramics were being used primarily for activities like eating, while coarsely tempered wares were being used for food storage and/or food preparation. Decorated ceramics, include incised or trailed designs often found on jars, and rarely negative painted and red slipped treatment found on bowls and bottles.

The centuries between A.D. 1300 and 1700 witnessed both the greatest development and the end of Mississippian culture in Kentucky. Most Mississippian sites had been abandoned by A.D. 1400.¹³⁹ Changes in environmental conditions and the reduction of agricultural yields may have contributed to the downfall of a single chiefdom; however, disruption to Mississippian interaction spheres and access to prestige goods and esoteric knowledge may have undermined local elites' positions within their respective societies.¹⁴⁰ Without the goods they needed to validate their positions in society, local elites may have been unable to withstand the challenges to their authority, which ultimately led to their demise.¹⁴¹ In the Caborn-Welborn region and in far southwestern Kentucky, Mississippian sites were occupied well into the 1600s.¹⁴² Closer to the study area, Fort Ancient farming villages were occupied into the 1600s.¹⁴³ The recovery of objects associated with European manufacture, have been found at several Caborn-Welborn sites, further indicating occupation into the seventeenth century.¹⁴⁴ Ultimately, the collapse of these societies and the subsequent abandonment of their respective settlements and regions are tied to Euro-American exploration and settlement of the Ohio and Mississippi river valleys, and the disruption of indigenous exchange networks.¹⁴⁵

¹³⁶ David Pollack. "Caborn-Welborn Ceramics: Intersite Comparisons and Extraregional Interaction," in *Current Research in Kentucky Archaeology, Volume Five*, eds. Charles D. Hockensmith, Kenneth Carstens, Charles Stout, and Sara J. Rivers (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 1998), 163-202; Pollack, 2008.

¹³⁷ John Muller, Archaeology of the Lower Ohio River Valley (New York: Academic Press, 1986), 251.

¹³⁸ Ibid, 238.

¹³⁹ Lewis, 1996.

¹⁴⁰ Pollack, 2008.

¹⁴¹ Ibid, 608.

¹⁴² Ibid.

¹⁴³ Henderson, "Fort Ancient," 741; 751; 783-787; 834.

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

Between 1680 and 1730, the historical and archaeological record does not shed much light on the Native population in Kentucky. It appears likely that smallpox claimed many lives during this period. "Kentucky's native peoples would have died in numbers similar to those recorded for groups to the east: between 50 and 90 percent of the inhabitants."¹⁴⁶ Kentucky's Native groups may have moved out of the region or been assimilated into other Native groups.

¹⁴⁶ A. Gwynn Henderson and David Pollack. "Kentucky," in *Native America: A State-By-State History*, ed. Daniel S. Murphree (Santa Barbara, CA: Greenwood Press, 2010). In preparation.

Historic Background: The Growth and Development of Jefferson County, 1900-Present

Early Twentieth Century, 1900-1930

At the turn of the twentieth century, Louisville looked ahead with optimism and enthusiasm. Most contemporary observers concluded that progress was not only necessary but inevitable. Automobile usage was becoming more commonplace and began to change the relationship between the city and outlying county, while other new technologies, such as the motion picture theater, altered old ways of spending free time amongst family and friends. Difficulties, such as disinvestment in center city or dilapidated housing, were thought solvable through scientific analysis and application of efficient findings.

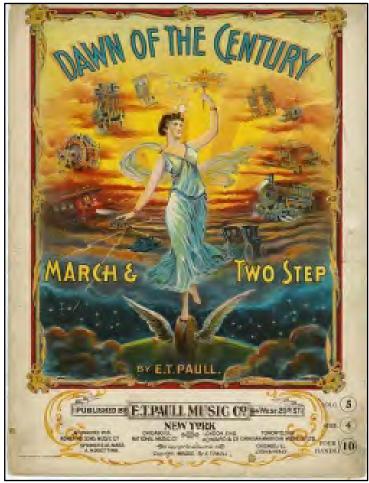


Figure 4. 1 Sheet music heralding the promise of the new century.

In spite of a tone of progress across Louisville, the 1910 census shocked city leaders when it revealed that the ten-year growth rate was an increase of only 9.4 percent, the lowest number in city history.¹⁴⁷ In fact, the mayor demanded a recount, suggesting that 25,000-30,000 residents were not documented. In response, a local census taker confirmed, "I found in my precinct...many vacant houses, empty lots and factories." ¹⁴⁸ Further, the number of factory workers had declined between 1900 and 1910 by 1,210 persons.

While population figures for the city seemed at best stagnant, the county had grown significantly. Growth was not, however, in rural farm-related enterprises, but rather in outlying suburban neighborhoods, connected to the city by streetcar lines and the interurban train system. Areas such Germantown, Schnitzelburg, and Shelby Park to the southeast, rapidly developed and even included new industries. In Germantown, for example, the Peter and Melcher Stone Works was located on Logan Street and the Bradford Woolen Mill employed workers at Oak and Reutlinger.¹⁴⁹ Further south, an L&N shop was established in 1902 near working class Highland Park and Oakdale.¹⁵⁰ Also, with the development of streetcar lines to New Albany and Jeffersonville, another 30,000 to 40,000 persons commuted to Louisville daily for work, who might otherwise have been obliged to live in the city.

Along with population, industrial growth slowed in early twentieth century Louisville. Before the First World War, there was an annual increase in manufacturing production with over \$100 million invested by 1910. Additionally, wages and salaries doubled, "rising to nearly \$28 million."¹⁵¹ On the other hand, there were fewer factories and industrial employment decreased. These statistics indicate that the forces of consolidation were at play. In other words, fewer unskilled workers were using machinery to do the job of numerous skilled workers. Competitively, this meant that larger, national corporations bought up smaller local enterprises and either shut them down or retooled them for higher efficiency and better profits. ¹⁵² An example of a Louisville-based consolidated enterprise was Ahrens and Ott Manufacturing Company. Under the leadership of Theodore Ahrens, the company consolidated nine smaller plumbing fixture manufacturers across the country to form the locally-based Standard Sanitary Manufacturing Company in 1900.¹⁵³ Other small local industries were consumed by large national corporations. Local papermaking and leather work, for example, were no longer performed in the city after the turn-of-the century, due to consolidations.¹⁵⁴ This trend continued throughout the twentieth century.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid, 145.

¹⁴⁸ Ibid, 145.

¹⁴⁹ Kramer, 91; Hugh Foshee, "Textile Mills of Louisville," *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places*, Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Approved October 1982.

¹⁵⁰ Yater, 145.

¹⁵¹ Kramer, 82.

¹⁵² Ibid.

¹⁵³ Yater, 156.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid.

In addition to nineteenth century commodities, new factories were established to produce diverse goods in the early 1900s. These items include: "brass and copper products, cider vinegar and pickles, chewing gum, plumber's supplies, monuments and tombstones, brick and paving materials, wooden and paper boxes, tool handles, and electrical and surgical instruments." ¹⁵⁵ However, Louisville capital remained invested largely in whisky distilling and tobacco products, which proved to be less than fruitful, given the impact of national prohibition in 1920 and the earlier limited wartime prohibition (Figure 4.2).¹⁵⁶ Also, tobacco markets were moving closer to the associated fields, possibly due to the flexibility furnished by the motor car/truck, leaving Louisville coffers somewhat bare.



Figure 4. 2 Men transporting hogsheads of tobacco on Main Street, between Sixth and Seventh Streets, circa 1907.¹⁵⁷

Noting the quiet industrial growth rate, the Louisville Board of Trade inaugurated the Million Dollar Factory Fund in 1913.¹⁵⁸ The overall goal was to raise \$1 million to aid in attracting new factories, to assist existing factories with expansion, and to market the area as a desirable locale for business. The funds were raised by 1916 with 3,118 citizen subscribers, and the Louisville

¹⁵⁷ ULPA 1987.70.08, A.W. Terhune Collection, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, Online at http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/kyimages,1¹⁵⁸ Yater, 164.

¹⁵⁵ Kramer, 82.

¹⁵⁶ Yater, 173; Kramer, 103.

Industrial Foundation (LIF) was created as a managing agent.¹⁵⁹ The LIF offered loans to "promising manufacturing and commercial enterprises that could not obtain adequate capital..."¹⁶⁰ The Foundation filled a needed role in obtaining industry for the city. Among the important industries recruited by the LIF was the Reynolds Company of Virginia, who intended to make cleaning powder, but ended up becoming an aluminum foil producer (Figure 4.3).¹⁶¹ By 1924, due to the efforts of LIF, the city was headquarters for 39 firms which led in their respective industries.¹⁶²



Figure 4. 3 The national sales offices of Reynolds Metal Company at 2500 South Third Street. ¹⁶³

Other organizations provided marketing expertise in concert with the LIF in the postwar period, including the Board of Trade and journals, such as the *Louisville Civic Opinion*. ¹⁶⁴ Among the many advantages of Louisville touted in the press and among business boosters were the "absence of labor tension," a native-born work force, and generous state and local tax breaks.¹⁶⁵

¹⁶¹ Yater, 164.

¹⁵⁹ Kramer, 105.

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

¹⁶² Kramer, 107.

¹⁶³ "Aluminum – Bright Giant of Industry." *Louisville Magazine*, May 20, 1956.

¹⁶⁴ Kramer, 105.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid.

Other quality of life assets were also noted such as inexpensive housing, abundant coal, and mature cultural and religious institutions. With the concentrated efforts of city organizations, new industry was attracted. "From 1923 through 1927 the city gained 153 new plants, while the number of industries increased from 715 to 790..."¹⁶⁶ As a result, production rose from \$240.5 million in 1923 to over \$364 million in 1927.¹⁶⁷ Earnings in this same period started at \$62.5 million and increased to \$66.1 million.¹⁶⁸

During this period, new industries were small scale. In general, they employed few workers, had limited capital, and produced low-cost items.¹⁶⁹ A minority of plants were, however, quite large and comprised the bulk of industrial growth in the city. "The most extreme example of this phenomenon came in 1927, when four industries assisted by LIF were responsible for \$2.45 million in capital investment, \$3.85 million in annual production, 461 new jobs, and \$441,500 in payroll. The remaining 17 new operations accounted for only \$451,500 in capital investment, \$1.37 million in yearly output, 160 jobs, and \$175,200 in wages."¹⁷⁰

By the 1920s, Louisville's industrial base had become more diversified. Though prohibition had made distilling and beer brewing illegal, Louisville entrepreneurs created other lucrative items for sale. Some, like Oertel's Brewery in Butchertown, began brewing "cereal beverages" with legal alcohol content.¹⁷¹ Other industries began to manufacture novel items such as umbrellas, golf clubs, car wheels, canned goods, enamel ware, reed and pipe organs, pianos, millwork, optical equipment, minnow buckets, metal screens, awnings, and fireplace equipment.¹⁷²

Important industries in the 1920s east of the central business district were the Ballard and Ballard Company on East Broadway, which produced wheat flour; Hillerich and Bradsby on East Finzer, manufacturers of golf clubs and baseball bats; and the Louisville Envelope Manufactory on East Market Street.¹⁷³ In addition, Ford Motor Company expanded in 1925, closing its 1915 plant at Third and Eastern Parkway and opening a new plant on Southwestern Parkway.¹⁷⁴

Also important was the Mengel Box Company, "a leading manufacturer of wooden boxes," on Fourth Street at "G" Street and Preston and Roland Streets, among other locations, and Belknap Hardware Company on First at Main Street.¹⁷⁵ Belknap Hardware, a large wholesale hardware business, was founded in 1880 and grew to cover 42 acres in an area bounded by the Ohio River, Main Street, Second Street and Jackson Streets (Figure 4.4). It supplied consumers and retailers

¹⁶⁶ Ibid, 106.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ Ibid.

¹⁶⁹ Ibid, 107.

¹⁷⁰ Ibid.

¹⁷¹ Yater, 174. These beverages were known as "near beer."

¹⁷² Kramer, 107.

¹⁷³ Ibid, 108.

¹⁷⁴ Yater, 180.

¹⁷⁵ Kramer, 108.

with a wide variety of goods including "revolvers, rifles, ammunition and hunter's clothing to church bells, 'fine English' table knives, and croquet sets."¹⁷⁶



Figure 4. 4 Belknap Hardware Warehouse at 129-133 North Second Street. The structure, completed around 1906, is no longer extant.¹⁷⁷

World War I

Perhaps the most significant event of the early twentieth century was the advent of World War I. Though fought overseas, Louisville felt the impact of war through the loss of 353 promising young men and women to warfare as well as a recurrence, albeit more moderate in tone, of anti-German sentiment.¹⁷⁸ Though German immigration to Louisville was minimal by this time,

¹⁷⁶ Thomas A. Stephens. "Belknap Inc." in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 82.

¹⁷⁷ ULPA 1984.01.094 in the Joseph & Joseph Collection, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/kyimages,156

¹⁷⁸ Yater, 165 and 168. During the mid-nineteenth century, the Know-Nothing party, with a platform grounded on the exclusion of foreign-born (naturalized or not) and Catholics from public office, encouraged vehemence and occasionally violence at Germans and Irish throughout Louisville. On 6 August 1855, an election for Kentucky Congress and governor was held. The Know Nothing party, which was in control of city government, attempted to prevent Germans and Irish from voting in the election, which would insure, due to their sheer numbers, a win for the

there were still citizens who identified themselves as German Americans. In some instances, they felt the sting of overzealous patriots eager to condemn all Germans as "Kaiserists." Socialist Henry Fischer, owner of Fischer Packing Company in Butchertown, was targeted as an anti-war German communist.¹⁷⁹

Other German Americans, such as Rev John Stille of St John's Evangelical Church at Clay and Market Streets in Phoenix Hill, was also chastised for his anti-war beliefs and his German heritage. St John's was considered the "cultural and social focus for a large portion of the ethnic Germans residing in Louisville's East End...Members of this active congregation came from the immediate neighborhood as well as the 'suburbs'...^{*180} Due to outside pressure, Stille was ousted from St John's and moved a loyal portion of the congregation to a new church, which he called the People's Church of Louisville. He defended his position in his first sermon saying, "We say this morning that at no time have we been pro-German or for the Kaiser, or disloyal...^{*181} In the end, German Americans across the city were obliged to prove themselves true patriots. "The German Security Bank became simply the Security Bank; the German Insurance Bank, the Liberty Insurance Bank; and the German Insurance Company.^{*182}

The First World War also played an important role in the city's economic development. "In 1916, bank clearings totaled approximately \$942.4 million, an increase of nearly \$300 million since 1914, the depth of the city's mid-decade recession. But during the war years, clearings surpassed the billion dollar mark, reaching \$1.03 billion in 1917 and nearly \$1.2 billion in 1918."¹⁸³ Though clearings were significantly less following the conclusion of the war, the stage had been set to move forward.

Camp Zachary Taylor

The War, along with the efforts of the LIF, brought renewed economic prosperity after a prolonged period of stagnation. Among the important revenue producers was Camp Zachary Taylor, a military training camp flanking Audubon Park in the Preston Highway area (Figure 4.5).

Democrats. Foreigners were beaten and prohibited from entering polling places. Twenty-two persons, mostly foreign born, were confirmed dead

¹⁷⁹ Yater, 167. Fischer was investigated but no charges were filed due to his good relationship with local labor leaders.

¹⁸⁰ Klapper, 185.

¹⁸¹ Ibid, 187.

¹⁸² Yater, 168.

¹⁸³ Kramer, 105.



Figure 4. 5 Postcard from the second decade of the twentieth century showing Camp Zachary Taylor.¹⁸⁴

Established in 1917, the camp prepared young men for battle overseas. Interestingly, as a requirement for the creation of the camp, the army required that the "red light" district on West Green Street be permanently closed, as it was considered a distraction.¹⁸⁵ Given the publicity surrounding Green Street, residents and businesses asked that the name be changed to shed the negative image.¹⁸⁶ The name Liberty was selected for most of the route; east of Preston the street was known as Fehr for the Frank Fehr Brewery at Preston and Green.¹⁸⁷ In any case, more than 10,000 persons were employed in the construction of the camp and approximately \$50,000 was added annually to the citywide payroll from soldier's salaries. Upon the close of the war in 1918, Camp Zachary Taylor was auctioned off to private buyers.

African Americans in Jefferson County

African American residents also suffered from prejudice, albeit far more systemized than the German Americans, in the early-to-mid twentieth century. The 1896 Plessy vs. Ferguson, separate but equal decision cemented social mores, wherein separate facilities were required by law for African Americans. In theory, this meant that every public facility must be produced for whites and blacks. The state Day Law furthered separation of "races" by insisting on segregating

¹⁸⁴ Boys resting after shooting practice, Y.M.C.A. in background : Camp Zachary Taylor, Louisville, KY. Item no. 008.010, Newton Owen Postcard Collection, University of Louisville Archives and Records Center, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/ulua001.101

¹⁸⁵ Yater, 166.

¹⁸⁶ Ibid, 170. It was only a small portion of West Green that contained the district, but the entire thoroughfare gained the unfortunate notoriety. ¹⁸⁷ Ibid.

whites and blacks in higher education.¹⁸⁸ In response to the 1914 attempt to legalize residential segregation by city ordinance, Louisville African Americans formed a chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and sued to overturn this legislation.¹⁸⁹ In 1917, the U.S. Supreme Court declared the ordinance unconstitutional. Informal residential segregation, however, continued. This reality meant that African Americans could not live in white middle-class suburbs, even if they could afford such a purchase. In general, they were sequestered in certain zones of the city.

In Louisville, the African American population had risen from 15,000 in 1870 to 40,000 in 1900.¹⁹⁰ Continuing pre-1900 trends, blacks "pushed north on Broadway on both the east and west sides of the central business district" from areas such as Smoketown and Limerick. In general, the black middle-to-upper classes lived west of downtown in larger houses on Walnut (Muhammad Ali) and Chestnut Streets, formerly owned by white families.¹⁹¹ Black families also settled in rural areas across Jefferson County.¹⁹² Berrytown and Griffytown near Anchorage, Petersburg (known as Newburg), and Harrods Creek had a growing early twentieth century black population.¹⁹³ Schools, churches, and residences were founded in each of these rural communities.

One of the earliest African-American subdivisions in Louisville, the James T. Taylor subdivision is located north of Harrods Creek (Figure 4.6). Developed by James T. Taylor, an African American farmer, construction worker, quarry operator and freemason who grew up in Harrods Creek, the land where the subdivision was laid out was part of the A.E. Shirley farm. After Taylor purchased the farm, he raised cattle and hogs before, in 1922, platting the eventual development. The subdivision's development reflected Taylor's background and its rural location – lots were large so that residents could keep livestock and raise enough crops for home consumption. Taylor, through the James T. Taylor Real Estate Company, which he founded in 1915, screened potential buyers and carefully managed the land sales. Many early residents were family members or members of the Green Castle Baptist Church (JF-838) on Rose Island Road.

¹⁸⁸ Ibid, 151.

¹⁸⁹ Hudson, 16.

¹⁹⁰ Yater, 150.

¹⁹¹ Ibid, 151.

¹⁹² Regrettably, not much research has been done regarding Black rural settlements in Jefferson County. This history relies heavily on secondary sources, in which rural history is inadequately developed.

¹⁹³ Hudson,16; Miller, 2.

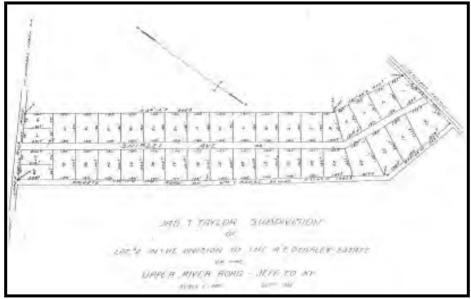


Figure 4. 6 1922 plat of the James Taylor Subdivision.

Keeping with the overall low growth rate of the 1910s, Louisville's black population experienced stagnation at best. From 1910 to 1920, African Americans comprised 40,522 and 40,087 of Louisville's population respectively.¹⁹⁴ By 1930, black population had grown, possibly reflecting 1920s economic opportunities, to 47,354 persons, or 15.3 percent of the population.¹⁹⁵

African American community institutions developed as well during this period. The African American Main Street was located near 10th and Chestnut Streets from 1900-1930.¹⁹⁶ In addition to founding the NAACP, the First Standard Bank (1920) furnished credit and banking to Louisville blacks and the Mammoth Life Insurance Company (1915) provided needed death benefits.¹⁹⁷ Samuel Plato, an African American architect and builder, was active in this time period, constructing numerous houses and post offices across the city/county. He was responsible for a small subdivision of co-op housing at the former Camp Taylor site circa 1941.¹⁹⁸ African Americans also were appointed to city positions in the police and fire departments with primary responsibilities in black areas only. Possibly the most significant victory was the prevention of a million dollar bond for construction of black facilities at the University of Louisville by black and sympathetic white voters in 1920.¹⁹⁹ The vote was

¹⁹⁶ Hudson, 16.

199 Ibid.

¹⁹⁴ Yater, 174.

¹⁹⁵ Hudson, 18.

¹⁹⁷ Hudson, 16.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid.

approved in 1925 when money for black facilities was added.²⁰⁰ The campus was finally established in 1930 on the old Simmons University site at Seventh Street and Kentucky.²⁰¹

Growth Across the County in the 1920s

Population growth was part and parcel of the developing economy in the 1920s. Though much of the growth was linked to a large-scale annexation in 1922 that consumed Oakdale, Churchill Downs, Highland Park, Beechmont, Southern Heights, Jacob's Addition, Hazelwood, and Iroquois Park, the city was able to attract newcomers with well-paying industrial positions.²⁰² From 1920 to 1930, a 31 percent population increase was recorded, from 234,891 in 1920 to 307,745 in 1930.²⁰³

New middle-class white suburban areas developed exponentially in the 1920s. Subdivisions, such as Audubon Park, Edgewood, Schnitzelburg, and Parkway Village to the east and south of downtown, became high growth areas in the 1920s. The former Camp Zachary Taylor property was also a fashionable residential locale. Interestingly, the camp property was sold in small pieces in order to dispose of it rapidly. As a result of this and the lack of a centralized administrative body, the area developed in a "scattered and disorderly" pattern.²⁰⁴ Fifteen small subdivisions, some of which only contained a few blocks, were platted during the 1920s. Other parcels were small enough to have been developed for the use of a single individual. Water and other utilities became a difficulty due to issues with pre-existing lines used by the Army as well as a lack of adequate planning.

Some long-time institutions left downtown in the 1920s for newly developing areas. St. Joseph's Infirmary was moved from Chestnut and Broadway by the Sisters of Charity of Nazareth in 1926 to a spacious new structure on Eastern Parkway and Preston Street.²⁰⁵ Also due to the commercial bustle downtown, the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary on Fifth Street and Broadway built a new campus on Lexington Road between 1921-26.²⁰⁶ These departures did not reflect well on the health of the city center. Institutions probably left downtown for the same reasons as suburban dwellers – the desire for more space, quieter surroundings, and room for future expansions.

Upper-class suburban development was also fueled by the burgeoning early twentieth century economy, as well as the presence of the interurban train. Much of this type of suburban development took place along the Ohio River and at the headwaters of the Middle Fork of

²⁰⁰ Yater, 184.

²⁰¹ Blaine Hudson. "African American Education," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 13.

²⁰² Kramer, 122-23.

²⁰³ Yater, 174.

²⁰⁴ Kramer, 120.

²⁰⁵ Yater, 176.

²⁰⁶ Ibid, 178.

Beargrass Creek.²⁰⁷ A high percentage of upper-class Louisvillians chose areas on the high bluffs of River Road, where large family enclaves were constructed. In general, these sites were displays of familial wealth, obtained through industrial efforts or generational good fortune.

Historians describe them as follows, "Country Estates were a reflection of the increased wealth and prosperity of the nation as a whole. Encouraged by the absence of a national tax structure...they searched for ways to exhibit their wealth, and construction of elaborately-detailed residences, particularly those set into exquisitely-contrived, manicured landscapes, served such a purpose."²⁰⁸ The Avish, founded by Owsley and Laura Lyons Brown in 1911, is an example of such a site. Owsley Brown, the son of Brown-Forman Distillery founder George Garvin Brown, developed the site near Harrods Creek with a formally designed landscape, greenhouses, servants' quarters, terraces, and main house over the course of the twentieth century.²⁰⁹

Impact on Downtown Louisville

The result of the enormous population shift to the suburbs was disinvestment in central city neighborhoods. The downtown remained healthy in terms of commerce and entertainment, as witnessed by a significant 1920s building boom along Broadway and Fourth Street, which included the 1923 Brown Hotel (JFCD-174, Figure 4.7), the 1928 Heyburn building, and the 1921 Rialto Theatre.²¹⁰ The neighborhoods surrounding the core, though, experienced significant population loss. Former middle-class white residents increasingly found it affordable to move to the new suburbs to the east and south of the city. Historian Kramer notes, "Data compiled by the City Planning and Zoning Commission in 1932 indicate that nearly every census tract between 10th Street, the Ohio River, Wenzel Avenue, and Broadway lost one-fourth to one-half of its population between 1910 and 1930."²¹¹ Neighborhoods, such as Butchertown, Phoenix Hill, Limerick, and portions of Old Louisville were affected. As noted previously, this movement left the core residential areas to indigent families and absentee landlords. Properties began to decline in appearance.

²⁰⁷ Leslee Keys, Mark Thames, and Joanne Weeter, "Suburban Development in Louisville and Jefferson County, 1868-1940," *Multiple Property Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places*. Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Approved December 1988, Section E, 10.

²⁰⁸ Ibid, Section F-III, 2

²⁰⁹ Brooks, Section 7, 25.

²¹⁰ Kramer, 110-111.

²¹¹ Kramer, 116.



Figure 4. 7*The Brown Hotel (JFCD-174), at Fourth Street and Broadway, circa 1931.*²¹²

Following the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century decline in central city neighborhoods, city progressives began to spotlight the situation and determine solutions. As early as 1903, a *Louisville Times* feature story appeared that detailed appalling conditions in downtown neighborhoods. Discussed was 840-842 Franklin Street in Butchertown, where there were "four old, dilapidated frame tenements occupied by 40 Negro families."²¹³ Another Butchertown property, at 303 Mill Street, was featured as the basement home to eight people, one of whom had typhoid fever.²¹⁴

Several measures were taken by city leaders to address the issue. At first educating the poor was emphasized, but it became clear that this was not the answer. In 1909, the city employed a

²¹² Item no. 1994.18.0759. Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville,

Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/heraldpost,859

²¹³ Kramer, 125.

²¹⁴ Kramer, 125.

professional investigator to report on the situation. Issues seriously examined in the report were a lack of adequate water, overflowing open privies, crowding, drugs, and prostitution.²¹⁵

The result was a local tenement house law passed in 1910 by the General Assembly that enabled officials to regulate occupancy conditions.²¹⁶ Non-tenement houses were not included in this law. Given this omission, in 1920 the General Assembly passed another housing law, known as the Roth-Hon Housing Act, which was patterned after the "Model Housing Law" of New York.²¹⁷ Among its provisions were regulation of the height of dwellings and setback from the side and rear yards to admit proper air and light.²¹⁸ Due to pressure from real estate and other business interests, the law was repealed in 1922. Again in 1922-23, the city drafted a new local ordinance based upon community input and put it in service to replace the 1920 Act. This legislation provided for inspection of all city structures, height restrictions (except for hotels), and a smaller percentage of the lot accorded to yard space.²¹⁹

Another effect of increased suburbanization was a loss of land for agricultural purposes. Whether due to suburbanization or occurring in tandem, farm production dropped during the 1900-1930 time period. "Improved acreage, hay, horses, dairy cattle, swine, vines and grapes, corn, orchard fruits, and wheat production all plummeted."²²⁰ Additionally, cultivated acreage was at a low, in part related to soil exhaustion. Carey and Thames note that "Jefferson County farms were on at least their fourth generation of ownership. With some notable exceptions, rural land and rural society had both lost their vitality and their attractiveness to many young people."²²¹ As a consequence, farming became a "marginalized" way of life in Jefferson County for much of the twentieth century as suburban development spread across the county.

Among the rationales for moving to the new suburban areas was the ability to commute easily to and from the city core. Transportation in the 1910s and 1920s across the dispersed metropolitan area was accomplished through the streetcar, the interurban train, and increasingly the personal automobile.

Transportation Innovations and Changes

Automobiles became more affordable in the early twentieth century, due to mass production methods introduced by Henry Ford. The other factor necessary to the widespread use of the car was the availability of good roads. By the 1920s, the popularity of the automobile and state/federal policies fostered the construction of new, evenly paved roads. In Louisville, in fact, there were 291 miles of paved streets within city limits and another 306 miles that remained

²¹⁸ Ibid.

²¹⁵ Yater, 154.

²¹⁶ Kramer, 126.

²¹⁷ Ibid.

²¹⁹ Ibid, 127.

²²⁰ Carey and Thames, Section E, 25.

²²¹ Ibid, Section E, 26.

unpaved in the mid-1920s.²²² Downtown streets were overtaken by the car as early as the 1910s. It became such a problem that parking was limited to one hour in the city center.²²³ Other measures taken were installation of the first semaphores (early traffic controls) in town to regulate traffic and safety islands at streetcar stops to protect pedestrians exiting trains.²²⁴

Registered vehicles in the county had doubled from 1920 to 1930 to 54,524 automobiles.²²⁵ As a consequence, streetcars carried far fewer passengers. For instance, in 1920, trolleys "carried eighty million passengers; by 1925 that total declined by nearly eleven million fares."²²⁶ Inner city streetcar routes were even more curtailed, as the population base moved elsewhere.²²⁷ Streetcar companies scrambled to extend their market share through establishing "feeder" bus lines to connect to trolleys, though little was accomplished through this move.²²⁸

Another harbinger of the primacy of the automobile was the development of a new Ohio River Bridge, the Louisville Municipal Bridge (JFCB-217, Figure 4.8), dedicated solely to auto traffic in October 1929.²²⁹ Until the construction of the Second Street Bridge, the K&I Bridge (JFWP-332) provided the only vehicular crossing across the Ohio River. Older bridges were updated at this time as well. The 14th Street Bridge (JFWP-327) was replaced in 1916-18 and the Big Four Bridge (JFCB-608) was redone in 1928-29.²³⁰

²²⁵ Yater, 174.

²²² Kleber, "Streets," 58.

²²³ Yater, 170.

²²⁴ Kleber, 858.

²²⁶ Ibid, 176.

²²⁷ Ibid, 177.

²²⁸ Kramer,114.

²²⁹ Yater, 185.

²³⁰ Yater, 185.

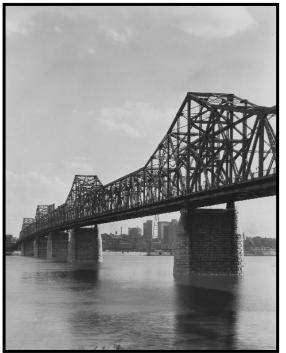


Figure 4. 8*Municipal Bridge (now known as the* Second Street or George Rogers Clark Bridge, JFCB-217) *circa 1931.*²³¹

The interurban train system was electrified in 1893 and by 1901 all lines operated on electricity, instead of steam.²³² Service to eastern Jefferson County was electrified by December 1904 and included stops at Glenview, Harrods Creek, Transylvania, and Prospect.²³³ Other lines extended south to Jeffersontown, Okolona, Fern Creek, and as far as Shelbyville.²³⁴ Trains generally operated on an hourly schedule with additional runs in the morning and evening for commuters. As with the streetcar, competition was fierce for passengers with the development of better roads and the greater affordability of the car.

In addition to these transportation options, the late 1910s saw the beginnings of air travel. A.H. Bowman leased fifty acres of land near Taylorsville Road and erected a hangar (Figure 4.9).²³⁵

²³¹ Item no. 1994.18.0099. Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville,

Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/heraldpost,2

²³² James Burnley Calvert, "Interurbans," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 418.

²³³ Ibid, 419.

²³⁴ Ibid.

²³⁵ Yater, 178.



Figure 4.9 *Groundbreaking for the Administration Building at Bowman Field*, 1936.²³⁶

By 1922, the army recognized the strategic possibilities of Bowman Airfield (JFE-0002, listed in the NRHP in 1981), and assumed responsibility for the lease. The potential for air travel remained nascent until much later in the twentieth century, but the U.S. Postal Service did use planes to fly mail on various routes across the country in the 1920s and 1930s, including a route from Cleveland/Cincinnati to Louisville.²³⁷

The federal government improved infrastructure on the Ohio River in the 1910s and 1920s. In addition to a river-length network of locks and dams, the Portland Canal was replaced by a new system known as Lock and Dam No. 41 (JF-1031, Figure 4.10).²³⁸ The canal was widened to 200 feet and hydroelectric power generation was achieved at the Falls by 1927 (Ohio Falls Hydroelectric Plant, JFWP-329, Figure 4.11).²³⁹ As a consequence of these improvements, river traffic increased from a low of 4.6 million tons in 1917 to eight million tons in 1924-25.²⁴⁰

²³⁶ Item no. 1994.18.0020. Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville,

Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: <u>http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/heraldpost</u>, 31.

²³⁷ Yater, 178.

²³⁸ Kleber, 667.

²³⁹ Kleber, 667.

²⁴⁰ Yater, 186.

Steel, coal, sand, gravel, and gasoline were among the items hauled by barge fleets, rather than steamer packets.²⁴¹



Figure 4. 10 *Lower part of locks, showing Dam 41 at Portland Canal and Lock, circa 1926.*²⁴²

 ²⁴¹ Yater, 186.
 ²⁴² Item no. 1994.18.0060. Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: <u>http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/heraldpost</u>, 82.



Figure 4. 11 Louisville Hydroelectric Power Plant, circa 1930.²⁴

Leisure Time in the Early Twentieth Century

Recreational activities in Louisville and Jefferson County shifted after the turn-of-the-century. Whereas earlier forms of entertainment might have centered on family outings to experience nature (i.e. the picnic or family song night), new types of pastimes were purchased and consumed. From a trip to the movie theater to a boat ride to one of the booming new amusement parks, monetary outlay became necessary to pursue a good time. With more free time, due to progressive labor laws limiting the work day and additional money to spend, new forms of entertainment were created across the city and county.

Given the sylvan setting provided by the Ohio River, the banks surrounding the river succeeded in luring residents for free time pursuits. Driving one's automobile on River Road adjacent to the Ohio; biking in one of the many new riverfront parks, such as the west-end's Shawnee Park; swimming at one of the riverfront clubs, such as the German Turners' Club pier; sailing from the Louisville Boat Club's River Road docks; and even traversing the river on one of the many excursion boats, such as the Idlewild, became popular. ²⁴⁴

Visiting amusement parks and resort areas was among the many new ways to spend money and leisure time on the Ohio River. Though on the Indiana shore, Rose Island was a fashionable retreat created in 1924 by Louisville businessman D.B.G. Rose (Figure 4.12).²⁴⁵ Combining

²⁴³ Item no. 1994.18.0135. Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/heraldpost,136

²⁴⁴ Carolyn Brooks, "Life Along the Ohio: Recreational Uses of the Ohio River in Jefferson County, Kentucky." Historic Context Statement on file at the Louisville-Metro Historic Preservation Office, 1997. ²⁴⁵ Brooks 1997, 13.

many desirable past times, the site featured a swimming pool, rental cabins, a small zoo, tennis courts, a miniature golf course, a roller coaster, rental rowboats, and a swimming pier by 1930.²⁴⁶ The island was accessed by a steamboat or ferry leaving from downtown Louisville or a parking area off Rose Island Road.²⁴⁷



Figure 4. 12 Pony rides were one of the attractions at Rose Island in 1929.²⁴⁸

Other Louisvillians built summer homes along the river to provide more sustained enjoyment. Unlike wealthier residents who built grand summer homes along River Road in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, these inhabitants were largely working and middle-class families seeking to experience relaxation on the river's edge on a weekend or summer time basis.

 ²⁴⁶ Brooks, 1997, 13.
 ²⁴⁷ Brooks 1997, 13.

²⁴⁸ <u>ULPA CS</u> <u>102911</u>, Caufield and Shook Collection , Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/cs,1049

Historian Brooks describes this process as follows: "Beginning in the 1910s and rapidly developing through the 1920s and 1930s in the Louisville area, many beach-front communities were built directly along the Ohio riverbanks on both sides of the river and on many of the islands within its banks. Some of these cabins or 'camps' were built in groups by land owners and rented to summer tenants. Others were individually built by families on leased land. Still others were constructed on land that had been subdivided for purchase so that each owner built a cabin on his own small lot." ²⁴⁹

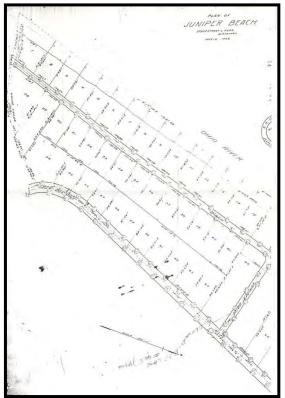


Figure 4. 13 Plat of Juniper Beach, one of the river camps along the Ohio River.

In any case, summer camps were a near ubiquitous presence along the bank of the Ohio in proximity to River Road. Some of the important communities in this area included: Waldoah Beach (1919-20), Turner Village (1917-20), Transylvania Beach (1923), Juniper Beach (1925, Figure 4.13), Eifler's Beach (late 1920s), and an African American retreat on the Merriwether property east of Upper River Road (circa 1890).²⁵⁰ As was the case with many twentieth century subdivisions, beachfront communities had a prolonged period of development. Although many were started by the 1920s and 1930s, construction of new houses continued over the course of

²⁴⁹ Brooks 1997, 13.

²⁵⁰ Ibid, 32-38.

the mid-to-late twentieth century. In some cases, the proximity to the river and thus flooding entailed periodic rebuilding campaigns.

Harbingers of Financial Distress

The unprecedented economic expansions of the 1920s brought with it difficulties that would eventually lead to the Great Depression of the 1930s. Careful observers noted the erratic state of investments as early as the 1920s. An example of such volatility can be found in the case of the Shriners and Elks Club. Both the Elks and the Shriners embarked on separate, ambitious plans to build multi-story downtown meeting and entertainment complexes. In just a few short years, both buildings were sold for a substantial loss after "financial troubles."²⁵¹ The Shriners building was constructed at a cost of \$1.25 million and sold two years later at foreclosure for \$481,000.²⁵²

In addition, the state of banking in the city was in flux. Louisville eccentric Jim B. Brown, known for his financial acumen and gambling, was symbolic of the plight of investments. Throughout the 1920s, National Bank of Kentucky President Brown made a series of imprudent investments. Kramer notes, "As early as 1925, the consequences of Brown's faulty judgment had begun to appear in the books of the Bank of Kentucky. Almost annually between 1925 and 1930, federal bank examiners pointed out the bank's excessive quantities of bad debts, slow assets, and doubtful paper..."²⁵³ In an effort to keep the bank afloat, Brown merged with the Louisville Trust Company and formed a holding entity called BancoKentucky. Three months later, the stock market crashed in New York, and credit became very tight. By January 1930, Brown merged again with Nashville-based Caldwell and Company, in order to shore up the troubled institution. Unfortunately, both BancoKentucky and Caldwell were near bankruptcy. A quiet run on the bank began in November 1930 by knowledgeable major investors, such as the L&N Railroad and Standard Oil. With few remaining options, BancoKentucky directors closed the bank and placed it in receivership later that month.

The ripple effects of this closure were felt across Jefferson County. Smaller banks closed because their assets were tied into BancoKentucky, such as the African American First Standard Bank and Bank of St Helens.²⁵⁴ Borrowers were pressed to immediately repay debts by the receivership. Mortgage foreclosures and bankruptcies proliferated.²⁵⁵ The Great Depression had come to Louisville.

²⁵¹ Yater, 190.

²⁵² Yater, 190.

²⁵³ Kramer, 129.

²⁵⁴ John Kleber. "The Great Depression," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 354. ²⁵⁵ Yater, 193.

Great Depression and War, 1930-1945

Louisville of the early 1930s was severely impacted by the Great Depression. Some observers, such as LIF president Frank Ayres, felt that the situation was akin to the numerous panics of the nineteenth century that would surely be righted in good time. Historian Yater notes that many Louisvillians thought the affair would be brief and was only, "a healthy corrective to an overheated market."²⁵⁶ Others were less hopeful.

Statistics indicate that, while Louisville did continue to attract new businesses, the phenomenal growth rate of the 1920s was preserved solely in memory. During the worst three years of the downturn (1930-1933), "bank debits to individual accounts stood at \$1.24 billion, a mere 49 percent of the peak level attained in 1929...Similarly, the recession which had hit the building industry during the mid-1920s became a depression in the early 1930s. The number of building permits issued annually dropped from an already low figure of 1,107 in 1930 to 675 in 1931, 516 in 1932, and 293 in 1933."²⁵⁷ The total value of buildings constructed also declined from \$6 million in 1930 to approximately \$1 million in 1933.

Though the LIF recruited small industries to the city each year, albeit in reduced numbers, manufacturing was also impacted by the Great Depression. In 1930, for instance, "11 manufacturing firms with net liabilities of over \$1.3 billion went bankrupt. Industrial losses by fire also increased substantially..."²⁵⁸ Given a diminished industrial sector, unemployment soared throughout the early 1930s. The official unemployment count for 1932, which probably does not reflect all Louisvillians looking for work, hovered at 23.5 percent for white workers and a whopping 37.2 percent for African Americans.²⁵⁹

African Americans experienced great deprivation due to the weakened economy. Due to the massive unemployment rate reported in the early 1930s, black businesses increasingly failed. They "lost their limited capacity to support businesses in their own neighborhoods, and these businesses failed in droves."²⁶⁰ In spite of such hindrances, new businesses were created, such as the *Louisville Defender* newspaper (1933). The first black Louisville legislator, Republican Charles Anderson, was chosen to represent a primarily African American district in 1935.²⁶¹ Other than public housing options discussed below, neighborhoods available to black Louisvillians were limited due to segregation practices.

Some Louisville industries did grow in the depressed economy. In general, manufacturers with affordable products did well. Smoking apparently became a popular pastime, as Louisville's

²⁵⁶ Yater, 192.

²⁵⁷ Kramer, 133.

²⁵⁸ Ibid, 132.

²⁵⁹ Kleber, "The Great Depression," 354.

²⁶⁰ Hudson, "African Americans," 16.

²⁶¹ Ibid.

major tobacco manufacturers reported a three-fold increase in production of inexpensive cigarettes.²⁶² Other Louisville-based industries also profited during the early 1930s, including the Kentucky Macaroni Company and the Enro Shirt Company.²⁶³ Contemporary observers noted that the Depression was far less destructive to Louisville's diversified economy than was the case in cities with single industries, such as Detroit's auto-based economy.²⁶⁴ Nonetheless, the crisis severely affected Louisville's economy and working people.

Roosevelt and Public Works Projects

As a political consequence of the effects of the depression, Louisvillians voted for the Democratic candidate for president in 1932, Franklin Delano Roosevelt. Before Roosevelt could take office in March 1933, the state ordered all banks closed so that the new administration could stave off a potential collapse of the banking industry. Among the first items of business, the Roosevelt administration pushed through the Volstead Act to allow for the manufacture and sale of beer with a 3.2 percent alcohol content.²⁶⁵ By November 1933, Kentuckians voted overwhelmingly to repeal prohibition, joining a two-thirds national majority needed for repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment.²⁶⁶ Distilleries and breweries opened nearly immediately. Stitzel Distillery on Story Avenue in Butchertown was among the first distillers to renew production of whiskey for public consumption. During the prohibition era, they had survived by selling medicinal whiskey.²⁶⁷

The Roosevelt administration greatly improved public infrastructure in the city. Through New Deal-era programs, such as the Works Progress (Projects) Administration (WPA) and the Public Works Administration (PWA), the city gained new schools, sidewalks and roads, city buildings, libraries, parks improvements, sewers, and campus buildings. Between 1933 and 1940, the city/county received federal assistance through workers or partial funding to build hundreds of miles of paved streets and sidewalks, new above-grade railroad crossings at eleven dangerous intersections, the Iroquois Branch Library, the Iroquois Park Amphitheatre, an addition to the Theodore Ahrens Trade School, the Jefferson County Children's Home, and the County Fiscal Court Building – to name a few projects.²⁶⁸ By 1938, approximately 6,000 Louisvillians were working for the WPA.²⁶⁹

Public Housing

The most unique federal undertakings of the 1930s were public housing projects. The federal government established a public housing program in 1933 in order to stimulate the economy

²⁶⁸ Kramer, 145-146.

²⁶² Kleber, 354.

²⁶³ Yater, 194.

²⁶⁴ Kleber, 354.

²⁶⁵ Ibid.

²⁶⁶ Ibid.

²⁶⁷ Michael Veach. "Stitzel-Weller Distillery," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 852.

²⁶⁹ Kleber, 354.

through construction jobs and to adequately house the poor. Though the administrating agency changed over the years from the PWA Housing Division to the United States Housing Authority (USHA), the goal remained the same: to demolish so-called slum housing and replace it with clean, affordable new housing built with taxpayer money.²⁷⁰

At least since the late nineteenth century, concerned Louisvillians and city officials had collaborated to address the issue of blighted housing in the city. The availability of federal funds to assist with this effort was a great boon, and contrasted significantly from the restrictive housing codes that attempted to regulate, rather than build low-cost housing.

By early 1934, the city had selected a site in the Phoenix Hill area for revitalization (Figure 4.14). The 30-acre tract was bounded by Preston, Shelby, Walnut, and Jefferson Streets and was intended to provide housing for 900 families.²⁷¹ The area was described as "blighted" and costly in terms of social services. "In the Phoenix Hill target area…a typical lot 20 x 200 feet in size, containing an eight-room house occupied by seven families, required \$1,538 in public expenditures for such services as public welfare, hospitalization, and care of juvenile delinquents. The same lot returned \$38 to the city in taxes."²⁷² Further, the housing was considered dilapidated as "80 percent of the area's families had no means other than stoves to heat their homes; approximately 40 percent still used oil lamps; about 45 percent still used open vaults…"²⁷³



Figure 4. 14 *Photograph labeled "Housing in Phoenix Hill 1934."* The location is between Jefferson and Chestnut Streets and Jackson and Clay Streets.²⁷⁴

²⁷⁰ Kramer, 137.

²⁷¹ Ibid, 139.

²⁷² Ibid.

²⁷³ Ibid.

²⁷⁴ Item no. <u>131223</u>. Caufield and Shook Collection, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: <u>http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/cs</u>, 893.

In order to demolish buildings in the area, the federal government, as the program was conceived in 1934, had to gain all property either through purchase or condemnation proceedings. Several Phoenix Hill property owners sued on the grounds that the federal government did not have the right to take property for this purpose.²⁷⁵ Higher courts agreed and the Phoenix Hill proposal was tabled for a while.

In the meantime, the city began taking steps to build public housing projects on vacant land, financed by the PWA Housing Division. Shortly after a negative Appeals Court decision, city officials pursued acquisition and demolition of so-called slum housing using municipal condemnation proceedings. Two housing projects were built using this model; one of which was College Court. The project, located at Seventh Street and Kentucky, was completed in 1937 on the grounds of the old Eclipse Baseball Park for African American families.²⁷⁶

In 1936, the Louisville Municipal Housing Corporation was created and charged with issuing revenue bonds to participate in PWA grant-match programs for housing.²⁷⁷ The federal government had, by this time, relinquished its former role as the direct developer and transferred the housing division of PWA to the newly created United States Housing Authority (USHA).²⁷⁸ Several public housing projects were built during this second era of federal involvement.

The largest project and the first completed by both the Louisville Municipal Housing Corporation and USHA was the 1940 Clarksdale project in the Phoenix Hill neighborhood. This revived project was built on a "29-acre, six-square block area bounded by Jefferson, Shelby, Walnut, and Jackson Streets in Phoenix Hill," where earlier historic houses had existed.²⁷⁹ It was comprised of 58 buildings with 786 separate residences designed as either apartments or rowhouses, depending on anticipated family needs.²⁸⁰ Interestingly, the Clarksdale project was specified to use materials from out-of-state. Local contractors appealed the opportunity to provide locally-produced wood window sash and brick.²⁸¹ Their concerns were heard, but the project was required to be held within certain cost parameters, which could not be met by issuing a change-order. Keeping with the edicts of segregation, Clarksdale was open to white families. A contemporary project west of Ninth Street, called Beecher Terrace, was built to accommodate 800 black families (Figure 4.15).²⁸² Generally speaking, public projects were built for white or black families in areas already established as white or black neighborhoods. In all, 1,930 units of public housing were built between 1936 and 1940.²⁸³

- ²⁷⁸ Ibid, 141.
- ²⁷⁹ Ibid.

²⁸¹ Ibid, 142.

²⁷⁵ Kramer, 139-140.

²⁷⁶ Ibid, 138 and 141.

²⁷⁷ Ibid, 141.

²⁸⁰ Ibid.

²⁸² Ibid, 141-142.

²⁸³ Ibid, 142.



Figure 4. 15 A medical clinic at Beecher Terrace, circa 1943.

Planning and the Death of the Streetcar

During the curtailed growth of the early 1930s, the city began to legally address planning and zoning issues that had been dormant since the 1920s. As noted previously, the proliferation of the automobile and lack of adequate subdivision planning had created a confusing, traffic-ridden cityscape. Gas stations rapidly encroached into residential areas, and traffic flow throughout the city and county was a serious complaint.²⁸⁵ In 1927 an ordinance was passed to create a City Planning Commission.²⁸⁶ The difficulty was that the state General Assembly had failed to approve enabling legislation for planning and zoning since the first attempt in 1924. As a consequence, the 1927 Commission had no zoning powers and limited ability to regulate use.²⁸⁷

By 1932, the first city comprehensive plan was completed by consultants from St. Louis, and was placed into service in October.²⁸⁸ The plan included a major street plan; rules concerning land subdivision in the city and five miles outside the urban boundary; and recreation, riverfront, and civic art components.²⁸⁹ Though having to endure several setbacks, the plan gave focus to many New Deal-era improvements, such as the elimination of at-grade railroad crossings as well

²⁸⁴ULPA R_07660_00_n, , Royal Photo Company Collection, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/royal,3940

²⁸⁵ Yater, 182.

²⁸⁶ Kramer, 135-136.

²⁸⁷ Yater, 182.

²⁸⁸ Ibid, 137.

²⁸⁹ Ibid, 136.

as street and sewer paving projects. The expansion of planning and zoning in Jefferson County is covered more thoroughly in Chapter 6.

Among the provisions of the new comprehensive plan was the elimination of several streetcar lines, because they "interfered with automobile traffic."²⁹⁰ The streetcar and interurban lines had experienced decreased ridership due to the Depression as well as the rising popularity of the automobile. Throughout the 1930s, the interurban lines gradually disappeared. The Indiana Railroad discontinued service between Louisville and Jeffersonville in 1932, and the Jeffersontown line was dissolved the same year.²⁹¹ The last interurban line in operation, from Louisville to Prospect, ceased service on 31 October, 1935.²⁹² Streetcar service remained solvent for a longer time, finally ending in the late 1940s. With the renewal of the Louisville Railway Company's franchise in 1940, city officials pressed for the use of more buses and an end to trolley service.²⁹³ The substitution would have to wait until the end of the World War II, due to rubber and gasoline rationing. The last streetcar ran to the Kentucky Derby in May 1948.²⁹⁴

As a result of the federal government's pump-priming and efforts of the LIF, the economy did improve, though not to the levels reached in the 1920s. "The 1935 Census of Manufactures showed that output for that year was over \$7 million or 2.6 percent greater than the peak of 1929 and nearly \$87 million or 45.5 percent greater than 1933."²⁹⁵ Growth in the cigarette, distilling, and brewing industries assisted greatly with recovery. In the distilling industry, for example, the city had 13 operating establishments by 1936 that produced over 54 million gallons of liquor in the previous year.²⁹⁶ Overall wages and employment did not experience great gains during the 1930s in any sector. This state of affairs was altered only with the industrial gains that followed engagement of the United States into World War II.

Continued Suburban Growth

In spite of the economic crisis or perhaps due to greater opportunity in Louisville, city and county population expanded during the 1930s. Jefferson County, in fact, gained 30,000 new residents for an overall growth rate of 8.4 percent.²⁹⁷ As in previous decades of the twentieth century, a much slower population expansion was recorded for the city. Whereas Jefferson County suburban areas increased by 18,710 new residents, the city counted only 11,332 new dwellers.²⁹⁸ The loss of residents in city neighborhoods can be attributed to the combination of

²⁹⁰ Yater, 204.

²⁹¹ Calvert, 420.

²⁹² Yater, 204.

²⁹³ George H. Yater. "Streetcars," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 857.

²⁹⁴ Yater, 857.

²⁹⁵ Kramer, 147.

²⁹⁶ Ibid, 148.

²⁹⁷ Yater, 204.

²⁹⁸ Ibid.

good suburban housing, improved roads, increased automobile use, and a perceived lack of decent housing opportunities in the city core. All these elements united to continue trends of disinvestment in central city neighborhoods as well as encroachment into former agricultural areas. Another important factor in suburban expansion was the availability of Federal Housing Administration (FHA) mortgages for new housing in suburban areas. Prior to the late 1930s, a home purchase typically required a substantial down payment, then several smaller payments over a brief period of time. The FHA allowed for small payments over an extended time frame and a minimal down payment. The first house purchased with FHA loan assistance in Louisville was 520 Emory Street near Iroquois Park.²⁹⁹

Suburban construction projects all but halted during the early-to-mid 1930s. It wasn't until June 1936 that the Parkway Vista subdivision was brought to the new City Planning and Zoning Commission for approval.³⁰⁰ That year, three more subdivisions were approved in south Louisville, but a minor economic downturn in 1937 slowed land subdivision again to reflect only two new suburban communities.³⁰¹ In general, suburban growth throughout the 1930s and early 1940s was confined to previously developed areas. No new areas were platted; most subdivisions were directly adjacent or within older areas. During the 1940s, suburban growth increased dramatically. "Of 43 subdivisions recorded in central and southern Louisville between 1930 and 1945, 33 were approved during this four-year period [1939-1942], 25 of them in 1941 and 1942 alone."³⁰² After 1943, building materials were rationed for the war effort and only three subdivisions were approved between 1943 and 1945.

With the exception of federally-sponsored PWA or WPA projects, very little private downtown construction occurred. From 1930 to 1937, only four major projects were completed; three of which were done prior to 1932.³⁰³ Downtown buildings constructed in the early 1940s reflected the concern with household economy engendered by the Depression. Both Woolworth and Kresge established dime-stores in the urban core in the 1940s.³⁰⁴ Demolition in the central business district, though, far out-paced new construction. Historian Kramer notes, "there was a noticeable decline in the intensity of utilization of buildings in the central business district, especially south of Jefferson and west of Fourth Streets."³⁰⁵

Wealthy country estates continued to be built during the 1930s, especially on River Road and in the Anchorage area.³⁰⁶ According to historian Brooks, "The resplendent properties of the truly wealthy were joined by a new group of more moderately sized and detailed domestic properties

- ³⁰¹ Ibid, 144.
- ³⁰² Ibid.

³⁰⁵₂₀₆ Ibid.

²⁹⁹ Kramer, 144.

³⁰⁰ Ibid, 143.

³⁰³ Ibid, 152.

³⁰⁴ Ibid.

³⁰⁶ Brooks, Section 8, 30.

for the upper middle class."³⁰⁷ Cobble Court (JF-548, circa 1938) is an example of this type of estate. It contains an Olmsted-designed landscape, a fairly sizable house, and an attached garage (Figure 4.16).³⁰⁸ Many of the country estates designed in the late 1920s and early 1930s contained the garage as an integral part of the design. Reflecting the nearly wholesale adoption of the automobile, the interurban ceased operations in the area and a new portion of Route 42 near Brownsboro Road and Rudy Lane was opened in the late 1930s to more effectively serve automobile traffic.³⁰⁹ Though the River Road area remained a tremendously important site for upper-middle class developments, the 1940s-1970s era witnessed subdivision of land into smaller plots and the construction of relatively modest houses. Subdivisions such as Boxhill, Longview, and Berry Hill, were developed during this later era.³¹⁰



Figure 4. 16 Cobble Court, facing northwest (JF-548).

³⁰⁷ Ibid.

³⁰⁸ Ibid.

³⁰⁹ Ibid.

³¹⁰ Ibid, 31.

Rising Waters and Unprecedented Damage

The flood of 1937 could not have occurred at a worse time in Louisville history. The city was beginning to recover from the effects of the Great Depression and scarcely needed a natural disaster to impede economic and social progress. Historian Yater describes the flood as follows: "On January 6, 1937, scarcely a week into the year when Louisville's economic recovery would become apparent, it began to rain. Nearly an inch fell that day. Three days later the rains began in earnest up and down the Ohio Valley; more showers one day, torrential downpour the next…Nearly half the rainfall for a full year fell during one month…The muddy water left a bedraggled community that counted ninety flood-related deaths, nearly \$50 million in property damage, and a giant clean-up job…Most shotgun houses in areas near the river had been lifted off their foundations, tossed about, and deposited every way, but right side up (Figure 4.17)." ³¹¹

The entire central portion of the city was inundated, along with the west end and portions of south Louisville, the south end west of Beechmont; and the low-lying areas along Beargrass Creek, "except for an island bounded roughly by Market, Sixth, Chestnut, and First Streets." Broadway became a raging torrent from Barrett Avenue on the east to the Ohio River on the west."³¹² Electrical power to the entire city/county failed due to flood waters and water from the tap was unsafe for consumption. High ground was sought in non-flooded areas, such as the Highlands, Germantown, Audubon Park, and Crescent Hill—all outside the central residential neighborhood districts.

By February 1937, flood waters receded, but the damage had not. Physical damage included a need for \$6-\$10 million for sewer repairs, removal of water from downtown basements, and restoration of electricity. To a certain extent, the psychological effects were more troubling for residents of the central city. There was a recession not only of floodwaters but of faith in living so near the beloved Ohio River. Father Diomede Pohlkamp of St Joe's in Butchertown noted in 1946, "the big floods of the years 1884-1907-1913-and the largest one of them all, the flood of 1937, were the cause of Butchertown's decline as a business and meat center. After the flood, old and new families sought homes in higher localities outside the flood zone." ³¹³ The floods, then, contributed to the desire to move to suburban areas on high grounds and further spelled a period of decline for Butchertown and other downtown neighborhoods, such as Phoenix Hill.

³¹¹ Yater, 200.

³¹² Kramer, 149.

³¹³ Pohlkamp, 14.



Figure 4. 17 Men rowing household items to safety during the 1937 flood.³¹⁴

For residents of the Point, there was no choice but to seek new homes, as it was completely destroyed by the 1937 flood.³¹⁵ Pohlkamp notes, "Several weeks ago the writer visited the Point to view the old landmarks which are fast disappearing...The old street pumps with its excellent drinking water have disappeared, the old Cherry Gardens and the Black Diamond Baseball field cannot be traced..."³¹⁶ City officials declared the area as unsafe for residential use and cleared the area of most buildings and structures. The city developed Thurston Park on the Point after the 1937 disaster.³¹⁷

A flood control system was among the recommendations to protect central and western portions of the city. The US Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) Louisville District office was asked to develop an effective flood control plan, which included "4.5 miles of concrete wall in the downtown area, 12.5 miles of earthen levee, 13 pumping stations, and 50 street closures (Figure

³¹⁴ KUKAV-64M1-4777, Goodman-Paxton Photographic Collection, University of Kentucky Special Collections, Lexington, Kentucky. Online at: <u>http://name.kdl.kyvl.org/KUKAV-64M1-4777</u>

³¹⁵ The Point was a two-mile long peninsula located along the Ohio River opposite Towhead Island.

³¹⁶ Pohlkamp, 12.

³¹⁷ John Kleber. "The Point," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 711.

This first phase was begun in 1948 and completed in 1957.³¹⁹ A further project, 4.18)."³¹⁸ intended to extend protection to southwestern Louisville, was finished in 1988.³²⁰



Figure 4. 18 A portion of the floodwall in Butchertown at Adams and Quincy Streets.

³¹⁸ Charles E. Parrish. "Floods and Flood Controls," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 297. ³¹⁹ Ibid. ³²⁰ Ibid.

World War II

World War II was a time of great economic and social expansion in Jefferson County. Though citywide unemployment hovered at 11.5 percent in 1940, a sizeable decrease from the early 1930s, the economy had not truly recovered.³²¹ With the beginning of war in Europe and America's eventual assistance to English forces, Louisville's manufacturing sector gained many new industries. Largely administered by the federal government under the auspices of the War Production Board (WPD), industrial output greatly increased in a coordinated fashion in order to supply the troops as well as for curtailed needs on the domestic front. Basically, the WPD constructed needed plants with federal monies and transferred them to private industry for operation. President Roosevelt placed the issue into perspective in a speech to Congress in January 1942 following the Pearl Harbor attack:

The superiority of the United States in munitions and ships must be overwhelming, so overwhelming that the Axis nations can never hope to catch up with it. In order to attain this overwhelming superiority, the United States must build planes and tanks and guns and ships to the utmost limit of our national capacity. We have the ability and capacity to produce arms not only for our own armed forces, but also for the armies, navies and air forces fighting on our side...We must raise our sights all along the production line. Let no man say it cannot be done. It must be done---and we have undertaken to do it.³²²

Louisville's manufacturing tradition, mature transportation network, and access to cheap hydroelectric power gave the city an obvious advantage. Before the U.S. entry into the war, the Louisville area gained an artillery powder plant in Clark County, Indiana that employed over 4,000 workers.³²³ The site near the city was selected based upon federal criteria for powder plants which required an isolated area near a large, skilled urban work force. A naval ordnance plant was also constructed in this time period, near the L&N's Strawberry Yards.³²⁴ It was operated by Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company and also employed 4,000 persons.

Upon the U.S. entry into World War II, the Louisville metropolitan area remained the center for several important industries in the "arsenal of democracy." Among important factories established were those within the Rubbertown complex in western Jefferson County. These plants were operated by National Carbide Company, Du Pont Industries, and B.F. Goodrich Company, producing synthetic rubber and acetylene (a necessary ingredient).³²⁵ Louisville's distilling tradition figured largely in the founding of a synthetic rubber industry, as alcohol was a

³²¹ Yater, 204.

³²² Donald Nelson, Arsenal of Democracy: The Story of American War Production (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1946) 186-187.

³²³ Yater, 206.

³²⁴ Ibid, 207.

³²⁵ Ibid, 208.

necessary ingredient for butadiene production.³²⁶ At peak operation in 1944, Rubbertown plants produced 195,000 tons of synthetic rubber for the war effort.³²⁷ Existing factories were also expanded and companies heeded the call to assist with the war effort. For instance, Ford Motor Company produced military jeeps, while Hillerich and Bradsby manufactured gun stocks, rather than baseball bats.³²⁸ In addition to these economic engines, Louisville was also home to two new army hospitals south and east of downtown.³²⁹ The Louisville Medical Depot and the Nichols General Hospital were large regional employers intended to assist wounded soldiers.

In all, Louisville's defense sector employed approximately 80,000 persons at its peak in 1944.³³⁰ The type of workers differed from previous years, due to a severe labor shortage. Where young white men had comprised the majority of the industrial workforce before the War, women and older African American men became gainfully employed during the conflict.³³¹ For both groups, the experience of making an adequate salary and being considered for well-paying jobs was novel. The Louisville Urban League "noted that previous educational and union apprenticeship opportunities meant that many blacks did not possess the skills for jobs that were now opening to them." ³³² To a certain extent, the experiences of women and black Louisvillians in the war led to a demand for more equality both in the workplace and in society as a whole.

This industrial expansion lured rural Kentuckians of all races and genders to the city. Consequently, housing and transportation systems were stretched to meet the unusual demand. Public transit was an especially popular option, given rationing of items necessary for auto production and maintenance. For example, the Louisville transit system recorded 92 million passengers in 1942 compared to 59 million in 1940.³³³ To address the housing situation, Louisville temporarily converted two public housing projects, Shepherd Square in Smoketown and Parkway Place, as dwellings for defense workers.³³⁴ Further, the federal government offered conversion loans to property owners to rehabilitate older dwellings into apartments for defense workers. Old Louisville's housing stock was particularly impacted by this program.³³⁵ In this neighborhood, large mansion houses of the mid-to-late nineteenth century were carved into smaller apartments to serve the needs of working families during the war.

³²⁶ Ibid, 209.

³²⁷ Ibid.

³²⁸ Ibid, 210.

³²⁹ Kramer, 155.

³³⁰ Yater, 210.

³³¹ Younger African American men served in the military.

³³² Yater, 211.

³³³ Ibid, 210.

³³⁴ Ibid.

³³⁵ Ibid, 211.

Suburban Growth and the Rediscovery of the City, 1945-1975

Louisville and Jefferson County of the late 1940s through the early 1970s saw a continuation of trends begun before the Second World War. The economy sustained wartime growth, and as a result population expanded and farms were divided into tracts for suburban housing to serve new residents. Central city residents continued moving to outlying areas, leaving severely depressed neighborhoods in their wake; new expressways provided easy access from the core to dispersed communities across the county and region. The federal government maintained a distinct presence in postwar planning and provided funds for slum clearance and construction of affordable housing.

These trends were, however, mitigated by a rediscovery of the city by some middle-class residents. A new movement formed in the 1960s, running counter-current to the preference for homogenous suburban areas, known as neighborhood conservation or historic preservation. These twentieth century pioneers began investing in neighborhoods, long neglected, thus countering the trend of suburban residential, industrial, and commercial development prevalent in mid-twentieth century Louisville.

Industrial and Manufacturing Boom

Postwar manufacturing in Louisville and Jefferson County remained strong throughout the midtwentieth century. From an average of 82,500 workers in 1951, the area boasted employment for an average of 97,500 persons in the late 1950s.³³⁶ Whereas previous employment was situated in or near the city, the mid-twentieth century factory was likely to be established far from city boundaries. "The industrial boom of the 1950s had a telling effect in manufacturing, however, as plants in Louisville lost over 5,000 workers between 1950 and 1960, while employment in suburban factories more than doubled, growing to 25,300." ³³⁷ This trend eventually resulted in employment in the county far exceeding that of the city by the 1970s.

While many federally-assisted wartime factories were not converted to peacetime production across Kentucky, Louisville's plants were generally sold to private industry and remodeled to serve new functions. International Harvester purchased the old Curtis-Wright Aircraft plant and Brehmer Biscuits relocated to the Consolidated Vultee Company facility.³³⁸ In the case of Rubbertown producers, factories were sold to the companies that used them during the war and they continued to fabricate synthetic rubber.³³⁹ Other manufacturers, such as Ford and Hillerich and Bradsby, returned to producing automobiles and baseball bats. In 1953, Ford moved to a new locale from its plant at Southwestern Parkway.³⁴⁰ In need of room for expansion and

³³⁶ Yater, 221.

³³⁷ Ibid, 181.

³³⁸ Ibid, 157.

³³⁹ Ibid.

³⁴⁰ Ibid, 180.

following trends to locate outside the city, Ford developed a new plant on Grade Lane and Ashbottom Road, eight miles from city center.³⁴¹

Louisville's traditional manufacturers, however, remained in or near downtown and some even expanded facilities in the 1950s and 60s. Small plants producing such items as whiskey, tobacco, aluminum, steel valves, and whiskey barrels flourished in central and western Louisville in an area bounded by Ormsby, Seventh Street, Bernheim Lane, and Dixie Highway.³⁴² According to historian Kramer, "These industries had become so dependent upon a complex set of external economies, such as proximity to key supplies, transportation links, and downtown business services, that moving to the suburbs was too disruptive to consider." ³⁴³ But these stalwart industries were not large employers, nor were they trend-setters in the twentieth century business world. Yet, sixty percent of all industrial enterprises (not employment) lay inside the Watterson expressway in the mid-1970s. ³⁴⁴

Perhaps the single most important manufacturer attracted to Louisville in mid-century was General Electric. In 1951, General Electric announced that the Louisville area would be the new locale for their entire home-appliance manufacturing operations.³⁴⁵ The company selected a 1,000-acre agricultural site far from the city center in Buechel, accessible solely by automobile (Figurer 4.19). Factors essential in the choice of Louisville were: proximity to the center of the nation for shipping purposes, a skilled industrial labor supply, and a multi-modal transportation network, which combined river, highway, and railroad access.³⁴⁶ By 1953, the GE plant employed approximately 10,000 residents within the region (including Indiana) and produced numerous dryers, dishwashers, and later on, televisions, clothes washers, and refrigerators.³⁴⁷ In 1961, the company produced a tenth anniversary retrospective with the following statistics outlining the company's direct and indirect impact: "an annual \$63 million company payroll, 50,000 new residents, 10,000 new homes, 3,500 retail stores, about 10 new schools, \$1.7 million in philanthropic contributions to local hospitals, direct employment for about 16,000 workers, and approximately \$250,000 paid annually in Union dues." ³⁴⁸

³⁴¹ Ibid, 180.

³⁴² Ibid.

³⁴³ Ibid, 179.

³⁴⁴ Ibid, 181.

³⁴⁵ Yater, 220.

³⁴⁶ Kramer, 179.

³⁴⁷ Mark Reilly. "General Electric Appliance Park," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 333. ³⁴⁸ Ibid.



Figure 4. 19 Advertisement from a September 1952 special edition of the Louisville Courier Journal about the construction of GE's Appliance Park.³⁴⁹

GE's Appliance Park was certainly symbolic of industrial change. Whereas earlier manufacturers were typically local or regional producers situated in or near the city center, GE was a multi-national corporation with headquarters elsewhere that choose to locate far outside city limits. Further, GE executives and managers moved to Louisville to work in the new plant, spurring suburban expansion outside the city. As historian Yater notes, "Well-paid and well-educated, however, they helped accelerate demand for new homes in pleasant suburban settings and provided a base of support of music, theatre, and other performing arts. They helped swell passenger loadings at Standiford Field (826,335 by 1960) as they traveled on company business. They helped generate demand to have the Eastern Time Zone moved westward to encompass

³⁴⁹ Special Edition of the *Louisville Courier Journal*, September 28, 1952, page 99.

Louisville, since that facilitated communications with East Coast corporate headquarters."³⁵⁰ In sum, their influence was substantial, yet they were not wedded to Louisville's well-being. Unlike earlier industrialists, they could be called away from Louisville to work at another plant at any time.

While suburban factory expansion was encouraged across Jefferson County, the east end was not generally amenable to such enterprises. In 1957, affluent east end residents blocked the establishment of a research and development facility sponsored by Reynolds Metal Company.³⁵¹ As a consequence, the company moved their entire operation from Louisville to corporate headquarters in Richmond, Virginia. Perhaps due to this loss, a few manufacturers have developed industry in the area. Ford Motor Company opened a truck assembly plant north of Anchorage in 1969.³⁵²

Manufacturing growth was not the sole economic engine in Jefferson County to experience significant suburbanization. The nonmanufacturing, nonagricultural sector, which would include retail and services, expanded from 58.2 percent of the county work force to 67.9 percent between 1956 and 1974.³⁵³ During the same time frame, industrial employment declined as a percentage of overall county employment from 41.8 percent to 32.1 percent of workers.³⁵⁴ Advances were made largely at the suburban fringe in order to participate in the growing web of metropolitan commerce.

Post-War Transportation Growth

Concurrent with the growth of industry and population in outlying areas was the development of a modern highway system that allowed for more efficient automobile and truck use. Although a network of modern expressways had been discussed since the late 1920s, it was not until the end of World War II and the depression that a funded highway system could proceed.³⁵⁵ In 1945, a transportation engineering firm, H.W. Lochner and Company, was hired to develop a traffic analysis and highway plan. Among their recommendations were "two major expressway projects, one following a north-south route from Municipal Bridge to Standiford Field and a second following an east-west path connecting United States Highway 42 and 60 in eastern Jefferson County." ³⁵⁶ The firm based their prescriptions on the notion that reducing traffic congestion in the core would assist with halting outlying growth and bring residents back to the downtown area. Further, their transportation plan relied on the primacy of the automobile. Public transit was hardly mentioned.

- ³⁵¹ Kramer, 180.
- ³⁵² Ibid.
- ³⁵³ Ibid, 181.
- ³⁵⁴ Ibid.
- ³⁵⁵ Ibid, 164. ³⁵⁶ Ibid.

³⁵⁰ Yater, 222.

⁷⁹

As part of the modernization plan, the city initiated a first phase of downtown traffic improvements in the late 1940s. Existing city streets were widened, major county arterials were improved, a one-way downtown street system was inaugurated, and city center parking shortages were given much examination. The latter issue resulted in the installation of parking meters and a plan to help property owners convert vacant lots into surface parking or garages. "From 1951 to 1960, the number of off-street parking spaces increased from 8,275 to more than 19,000."³⁵⁷ However, this increase did not solve the shortage of downtown automobile parking, which had begun to encroach onto spaces occupied by historic buildings. Many older buildings were destroyed in an effort to provide adequate parking, though the demand was never satiated. This trend is related to a great expansion in automobile ownership and use. Personal auto registrations more than doubled during the time period with 89,000 registrations in 1940 and 245,000 in 1960.³⁵⁸ At the same time, public transit bus usage declined from 92 million riders in 1942 to 65 million in 1950.³⁵⁹

The central focus of the city's highway efforts was the construction of two expressways through town and a beltline expressway to serve outlying areas (Figure 4.20). After much consideration, the city began work on the inner beltway project in 1947. The twelve-mile beltway, named the Watterson Expressway, was intended to connect Shelbyville Road east of St Matthews with Dixie Highway near Shively in western Louisville. The highway was completed in sections between 1947 and 1957. Originally envisioned as a two-lane thoroughfare with at-grade crossings, it became clear fairly early that traffic projections were seriously underestimated. In 1950, for instance, a highway consulting firm hired by the city "estimated 1970 usage of the Watterson between Bardstown Road and Breckenridge Lane at 2,200 vehicles per day. By August 1952, the same stretch was already carrying approximately 5,200 vehicles per day."³⁶⁰ Because the Watterson was built in phases, earlier sections were constructed as two-lane roads that crossed main thoroughfares at grade, while later portions more closely resembled a fourlane, limited access expressway. This situation was not addressed until the advent of the Interstate Highway Program in 1956, when funds became available for standardization and modernization of the route.³⁶¹

The city also proceeded with the development of a major north-south expressway. This highway, known now as I-65, was called the North-South Expressway and was meant to connect southern Kentucky at Elizabethtown to downtown Louisville with a series of limited-access interchanges. In January 1951, funding in the amount of \$23 million was set aside to begin the project upon completion of the Watterson Expressway.³⁶² While all agreed on the importance of such a thoroughfare to Louisville's future growth, there was little concurrence on a route through

³⁵⁷ Ibid, 165.

³⁵⁸ Yater, 216.

³⁵⁹ Ibid.

³⁶⁰ Kramer, 166.

³⁶¹ Ibid.

³⁶² Ibid, 167.

the downtown area. Many contemporary observers, including Mayor Andrew Broaddus, were wary of introducing the expressway into the downtown area, due to aesthetic concerns as well as a desire to prevent division of the core into isolated, nonviable sections.



Figure 4. 20 A bird's eye view of the developing expressway system in Louisville, circa 1958.³⁶³

Highway construction began in 1955 with the downtown route still undecided.³⁶⁴ By 1958, however, federal funds were available through the Interstate Highway program and a decision was made to follow the recommendations of the state highway department. The expressway was developed along a western path through downtown which angled east at the river to connect with the new John F. Kennedy Bridge (JFCB-722).³⁶⁵ Interstate-65 was completed from Upton, Kentucky, to Taylorsville, Indiana, in late 1963.³⁶⁶

The second freeway required more planning and funding in order to progress. This highway, known as the Riverside Expressway, was designed in 1961 and not completed until 1976. The road, "incorporated sections of two different interstate highways [I-64 and I-71], which together

³⁶⁴ Kramer, 168.

³⁶³ Douglas Nunn, "Our Expressway System." *The Courier Journal Magazine*, February 16, 1958, 7-13.

³⁶⁵ Ibid, 169.

³⁶⁶ Ibid.

follow the bank of the Ohio from Zorn Avenue in the east end to the new Sherman Minton Bridge (JFWP-589) between Louisville and New Albany in the west end."³⁶⁷ The east end of the freeway is part of I-71, which provides access to Cincinnati and the northeast. The west end was collapsed into I-64, with connections to Lexington and points east and to St Louis and points west. These routes merge with I-65 at a multi-tiered interchange known as "Spaghetti Junction," from which I-64 continues across the 1962 Sherman Minton Bridge. The Riverside Expressway was the most costly and complex expressway built during this time period with the usual debate over routes. The project required a very arduous design process to adequately plan for many complicated interchanges and to avoid railroad tracks, switching yards, and industrial enterprises on the river.

The construction of a modern expressway network greatly expanded city limits, allowing for unprecedented automobile access throughout the county. The Watterson, in particular, circled the downtown area, allowing for suburban motorists to avoid the city center all together. This move further fueled suburban industrial, commercial, and residential growth.

In downtown, interstate road developments had a lasting impact. Many older houses, businesses, and residents were required to move in the wake of freeway construction. Historian Kramer notes:

The most destructive right-of-way assemblage program involved the final leg of the North-South Expressway and the interchange that would eventually connect it with the Riverside Expressway and the Kennedy Memorial Bridge. This program alone entailed the purchase and demolition of 315 structures, including 76 residences, 108 combination commercial-residential buildings, 16 stores, three hotels, nine educational, religious, and charitable institutions, and 103 industrial and wholesale facilities.³⁶⁸

Kramer continues to detail specific losses, such as the historic Haymarket district in the Phoenix Hill area (Figure 4.21), the Milner Hotel and Anshei Sfard Synagogue on First Street, and the Bunton and Lose Brothers seed company buildings.³⁶⁹ Neighborhoods specifically impacted by I-64 and I-65 construction include Butchertown and Phoenix Hill. In all, the highway program resulted in the demolition of approximately 4,000 residential units in Louisville and Jefferson County between 1960 and 1969.³⁷⁰ More than half of these units were classified as "sound" in housing condition surveys.

³⁶⁷ Ibid.

³⁶⁸ Ibid, 172.

³⁶⁹ Ibid.

³⁷⁰ Ibid.



Figure 4. 21 Haymarket, between Market and Jefferson Streets, circa 1932.³⁷¹

In addition to the expressway system, the Portland Canal received important updates that also led to increased economic growth. In July 1956, Congress approved funding for major improvements to the earlier canal system. Completed in three phases from 1958 to 1965, the original canal was widened to 500-feet;³⁷² a new 1,200-ft lock was constructed to supplement the old main lock; and Dam 41 was reconstructed.³⁷³ The entire network was renamed McAlpine Lock and Dams for William H. McAlpine, who had worked for the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers for most of his career and was involved in improvement efforts.³⁷⁴ The upgrades had immediate positive effects. Operational and maintenance costs were reduced and lock speed was nearly doubled.³⁷⁵ Consequently, "the tonnage passing through the Port of Louisville increased from just under 8 million [in 1964] to approximately 11 million tons annually [in 1972]."³⁷⁶ In addition, freight rates declined as time needed for shipment lessened.

Demographic Shifts

The modernized transportation network along with the healthy suburban economy of midcentury was the conduit through which Jefferson County's suburban areas developed. Population growth reflects the trend for residing in dispersed areas across the county, rather than in neighborhoods adjacent to or within Louisville. By 1960, Jefferson County's population

³⁷¹ Item no. 1994.18.1085. Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville,

Louisville, Kentucky. Online at: http://digital.library.louisville.edu/u?/heraldpost,714

³⁷² This process ultimately resulted in the destruction of the old town at Shippingport.

³⁷³ Kramer, 177.

³⁷⁴ Ibid, 178.

³⁷⁵ Ibid.

³⁷⁶ Ibid.

reached 220,308, a 100 percent increase over the number recorded in the 1950 census, while the city documented a 5.8 percent expansion.³⁷⁷ A special census taken in 1964 demonstrates that these trends persisted. In that year, the city's population count decreased by 1,000 inhabitants, and the county gained 4,000 new residents.³⁷⁸

The African American population experienced large gains during the postwar years, increasing from a total of 47,158 inhabitants in 1940 (14.8 percent of the total population) to 70,075 residents (17.9 percent of the total). African Americans were attracted to jobs created by the city's great industrial expansion and were also emboldened by gains made during the war years in employment and the military.³⁷⁹ Black Louisvillians fought for and achieved some measure of equality and social justice during the time period. Local journalist and activist Anne Braden remarks, "Black veterans came home from World War II determined to have the democracy they fought for."³⁸⁰

Black Louisvillians pushed the city and the state to accept integration of parks, factories, hospitals, commercial establishments, universities, and primary and secondary schools throughout the 1950s and 60s. This was accomplished through sit-ins, lawsuits, and shopping boycotts, but always through community-based action. In 1961, for instance, mass sit-ins were held at downtown businesses that refused African American patronage.³⁸¹ By 1963, the city passed an ordinance banning segregation in public accommodations and 200 businesses opened their doors to black customers.³⁸² Further demonstrations on the state level led to statewide civil rights legislation enacted in 1966.³⁸³

With most public accommodations open to blacks by the late 1960s, residential segregation was left untouched. ³⁸⁴ Louisville's African American population was primarily confined to the west end of town with small pockets of black settlement on the east side of the business district and in rural areas. The Phoenix Hill area, in fact, was home to the African American Green Street Baptist Church (JFCH-421, Figure 4.22). The church was an essential part of the Civil Rights movement, hosting Dr. Martin Luther King in 1967.³⁸⁵ Approval of the open housing ordinance of 1967 was considered a major victory, yet enforcement and limited financial opportunity continued to provide obstacles to further integration.

³⁷⁷ Yater, 226.

³⁷⁸ Ibid.

³⁷⁹ Hudson, "African Americans," 18.

³⁸⁰ Anne Braden. "Civil Rights," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 191.

³⁸¹ Ibid, 190.

³⁸² Ibid.

³⁸³ Ibid, 191.

³⁸⁴ Hudson, "African Americans," 17.

³⁸⁵ John Kleber. "Green Street Baptist Church," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 358.



Figure 4. 22 Façade of Green Street Baptist Church (JFCH-421).

Economic achievement for black Louisvillians proceeded slowly. Historian Hudson notes, "Economic conditions improved for many African Americans as a result of the political struggle for racial justice. Local African American unemployment declined to 6.9 percent in 1970, and median African American income rose from 55 percent of the white family median in 1959 to 61 percent in 1969. By 1969, African Americans owned 490 businesses in Louisville and Jefferson County, or 4.6 percent of all businesses in the region."³⁸⁶

E even after fair housing legislation, African Americans remained confined to certain districts in the city and county and did not experience significant suburbanization. An exception to this, albeit a segregated exception, can be found in the James Taylor subdivision near Prospect and the Ohio River. The community experienced an extended period of development with houses being constructed into the 1960s. Taylor's son, James Stewart Taylor, subdivided additional land in 1958-59 and created the Beachland neighborhood.³⁸⁷ Houses were built in Beachland throughout the 1960s.³⁸⁸

³⁸⁶ Hudson, 17.

 ³⁸⁷ Jacqueline Horlbeck, and Jeremy Edgeworth. *Cultural Historic Assessment of the Bass-Shirley Sanitary Sewer* and Drainage Improvement Project, Louisville, Jefferson County, Kentucky (Lexington, Kentucky: Contract Publication Series 06-020. Cultural Resource Analysts, Inc., 2006), 35.
 ³⁸⁸ Ibid.

Commercial Growth

As with industrial growth, suburbanization pushed further past city boundaries and included not just residences, but also commercial establishments. Retail stores and services followed the largely white middle-class suburban customer base and established shopping centers, such as Iroquois Manor, which opened in 1954 and boasted 612 free parking spaces on eleven acres of land.³⁸⁹ A year later, Dixie Manor Shopping Center (Figure 3.43) was launched on 24-acres in Shively. In November 1955, the *Courier-Journal* waxed poetic about the new center, remarking that the attractive shopping complex would "serve as the new [Shively] downtown."³⁹⁰

By 1955, suburban Jefferson County had 24 modern shopping centers, each with acres of free parking.³⁹¹ In 1962, the area's first modern enclosed shopping mall was established on Shelbyville Road at the Watterson Expressway.³⁹² Touting 67-acres of parking and shopping, the mall lured downtown retailer Kaufman-Strauss as one of its first tenants.³⁹³ More shopping centers and malls were developed in the 1960s and 70s, such as Oxmoor Mall (1971) and Bashford Manor Mall (1973), further contributing to the downtown's decline as the retail heart of the Louisville metropolitan region. Office space also moved from the downtown core to outlying areas. Symbolic of this is the 15-story Lincoln Income Life Insurance Company building constructed in 1965 on the Watterson Expressway at Breckenridge Lane.³⁹⁴

A Wave of Incorporation

The 1964 census numbers reveal details regarding the type of suburbanization that had begun just after the World War II. Thirty-four small municipalities were enumerated within Jefferson County.³⁹⁵ The number of small sixth-class cities had multiplied significantly since 1945, when there were merely eleven incorporated cities within Jefferson County, three of which were incorporated before 1900.³⁹⁶ By 1978, Jefferson County contained 83 incorporated municipalities.³⁹⁷ Among these were St Matthews (1950), Shively (1938), and Lynnview (1954) (for more discussion of these resource, see Chapter 6).³⁹⁸

This phenomenon was related to the maturation of a strong suburban mentality that harbored a distinct fear of the large city at its doorstep. The incorporated cities did not object to the wealth, city services, such as parks, or culture provided by such a burgeoning metropolis, they simply did not wish to participate in what they perceived as the negative, seamier side of urbanity. According to historian Kramer, there were several distinct rationales evident when searching for

³⁸⁹ Kenneth L. Miller. "Shopping Centers and Malls," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 816.

³⁹⁰ Ibid.

³⁹¹ Ibid.

³⁹² Ibid, 817.

³⁹³ Ibid, 816.

³⁹⁴ Yater, 229.

³⁹⁵ Yater, 226.

³⁹⁶ Kramer, 191.

³⁹⁷ Ibid.

³⁹⁸ Ibid, 192.

motives for incorporation of small suburban communities. First was a fear of annexation by the larger city, and thus higher tax rates.

Added to this was the view that the city could not provide adequate services for a low cost due to the greater number of subsidized services needed to assist the city's poor residents and blighted areas. Increasingly, the problems of the city were not seen as the problems of the suburbs. This can be noted in the 1956 effort to merge suburban fringe areas with the city, in order to provide fire, water, sewers and other city services. The Mallon plan, named for Louisville Cement Company Executive John Mallon, was defeated at the voting booth by two-to-one in suburban areas.³⁹⁹ Louisville residents approved it by 14,000 votes.⁴⁰⁰ The *Louisville Times* said of the failed vote, "There is a general feeling that suburban life is 'different,' and that some residents just wanted no part of City citizenship." ⁴⁰¹ Ultimately, the sheer number of smaller municipalities each with their own goals and issues, created a fragmented metropolis, in which common goals were rarely seen as common and duplication of services created overall greater expense.

Given the unprecedented investment in suburban Jefferson County, it is hardly surprising that the downtown business district and residential areas were in decline. As discussed in previous sections, this type of disinvestment had been occurring for years, though little was done to understand the complex issues facing older areas' revitalization. By the 1950s, however, the problem was too substantial to ignore. Mayor Charles Farnsley framed the difficulties as follows, "[there] are areas which by reason of the predominance of defective or inadequate street layout, faulty lot arrangement, submergence of lots by water and other unsanitary or unsafe conditions that need study."⁴⁰² To this end, the mayor appointed a redevelopment director to examine the situation. Out of this research came a recommendation for two urban revitalization projects: one west of downtown near Old Central High School and one east of the core near General Hospital.

Urban Renewal

While the precise city department or program changed over the course of the urban renewal program's first phase (1959-1980), the stated objectives did not.⁴⁰³ Slum clearance and redevelopment was the primary focus with small scale housing rehabilitation in select areas.⁴⁰⁴ Smoketown is an example of the small-scale approach wherein the city demolished 25 substandard houses, widened alleyways, assembled land for a park area, and allowed owners to apply for FHA-insured rehabilitation loans. One-hundred and sixty (160) houses were renovated

³⁹⁹ Yater, 227.

⁴⁰⁰ Ibid.

⁴⁰¹ Ibid.

⁴⁰² Kramer, 219.

⁴⁰³ James Braun. "Urban Renewal," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 905.

⁴⁰⁴ Kramer, 220.

in Smoketown in order to comply with modern building codes.⁴⁰⁵ Other diminutive projects were completed in the mid-1950s which demonstrated, "the amount spent to upgrade local housing had risen to well over \$10 million, while the number of houses which failed to meet the city's minimum housing code had been reduced from an estimated 8,000 to approximately 4,000 since 1954."⁴⁰⁶

Under the Housing Act of 1954, the city became eligible for federal funds to accomplish project survey and planning as well as implementation. In 1957, voters approved a \$5 million bond issue to facilitate large-scale urban renewal projects.⁴⁰⁷ Among the first areas chosen for research and planning monies was the east end of downtown. In December 1959, federal funds were approved for the east downtown renewal area, which encompassed 125-acres in the Phoenix Hill neighborhood, from Broadway on the south, Market Street on the north, Jackson on the east, and Second Street on the west.⁴⁰⁸

According to historian Kramer, "The area which experienced the most extensive redevelopment in terms of cost of land acquisition and clearance and value of new construction was the East Downtown Renewal Area, where by the beginning of 1972, more than \$130 million in new construction had been completed, started, or committed."⁴⁰⁹ Conceived as a centralized area of clustered health services, the renewal district was focused on the territory surrounding the 1870-1913 General Hospital. The goal was to clear the land and partner with private and public health-related firms to create a hospital/health care precinct with shared use of support services, such as power plants, and linen and laundry maintenance.

To this end, in 1962, the city began land acquisition and demolished many two-story Italianate houses as well as more modest frame structures in the study area.⁴¹⁰ Replacing the older eastend residences and commercial establishments were the University of Louisville Health Services Center (1970), the University of Louisville Teaching Hospital (date unknown), the Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation (1965), the Kentucky Lions Eye Research Center (1969), and Norton Children's Hospital (1973)—to name a few.⁴¹¹

In addition to the concentration on health facilities, other related institutions and commercial enterprises were established as well. Dosker Manor, a complex of three-apartment towers, was built as senior citizen housing between 1966 and 1971 on the site of the former Fehr Brewery on Preston Street at Liberty.⁴¹² Also, three motels, the Holiday Inn, Howard Johnson's, and the

- ⁴⁰⁸ Ibid, 222.
- ⁴⁰⁹ Ibid, 223.

⁴⁰⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁰⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁰⁷ Ibid.

⁴¹⁰ Ibid, 225.

⁴¹¹Ibid.

⁴¹² Ibid, 226.

Rodeway Inn, were constructed near the I-65 interchange in the neighborhood, as a result of renewal clearance as well as demolition related to the development of I-65.⁴¹³

Other large-scale urban renewal projects were accomplished during the 1960s and 70s. The West Downtown Renewal Area, which was bounded by Broadway, Sixth, 15th and Market Streets, was targeted for slum clearance and replacement with city and county buildings as well as private enterprises.⁴¹⁴ As part of this project, African American landmarks and housing were destroyed, such as the old Walnut Street Business District.⁴¹⁵ Consequently, African American residents relocated further to the segregated west end.

Another significant renewal effort was the 42-acre Riverfront Project.⁴¹⁶ Largely devoted to stimulating the declining commercial core near the Ohio River, the project combined public and private investment to demolish older buildings and construct such landmark buildings as the Galt House, the Plaza-Belvedere, One Riverfront Plaza, the Kentucky Center for the Arts, and the Commonwealth Convention Center.⁴¹⁷

The Preservation Movement

The loss of many older buildings and neighborhoods created a general distaste for clearancebased urban renewal programs by the early 1960s. Whether these programs were related to addressing blight or constructing federal highways, the sheer volume of older buildings destroyed had never been experienced at any point in metropolitan history. At the same time, this era witnessed the beginnings of disaffection for automobile-focused suburban life, a desire for an enriching community life, and a reconsideration of government-administered demolition in the city core. Taken together, these factors greatly influenced the development of the neighborhood revitalization movement and efforts to preserve older buildings in the city core. Hassett and Neary note, "When urban renewal became a concentrated visible reality, citizen reaction was largely negative...Subsequent historic preservation achievements and vigorous architectural criticism owe much to the collective dismay experienced by local citizenry."⁴¹⁸ Further, historian Kramer describes the process as follows, "neighborhood revitalization began as a grassroots movement which was quickly transformed into an institutionalized process."⁴¹⁹

The institutional tools used in the grassroots efforts for conservation was the neighborhood association and after 1973, designation as a local historic district by either the city or county's Historic Landmarks and Preservation Districts Commission.⁴²⁰ This local legislation was made possible by a national ground swell of opposition to wholesale destruction of older

⁴¹³ Ibid.

⁴¹⁴ Braun, 905.

⁴¹⁵ Hudson, "African Americans,"17.

⁴¹⁶ Braun, 905.

⁴¹⁷ Ibid.

⁴¹⁸ Ann Hassett and Donna Neary. "Historic Preservation," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 389.

⁴¹⁹ Kramer, 227.

⁴²⁰ Hassett and Neary, 389.

neighborhoods and community ties which resulted in passage of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, authorizing the states and local governments to establish preservation programs. Kentucky officially established a State Historic Preservation Office in 1966, which worked in partnership with local offices, to identify and protect important historic places. On the local level, the dissatisfaction with former administrations' approach to neighborhood preservation led in 1973 to the election of Mayor Harvey Sloane on a platform of "urban revitalization, housing rehabilitation, and neighborhood empowerment."⁴²¹

Several neighborhoods groups pioneered these early efforts. The Butchertown neighborhood's revitalization efforts came through an attempt by local religious institutions and concerned citizens to alter community zoning from industrial to residential in 1966.⁴²² Butchertown had experienced many years of decline which transformed the neighborhood from the central meatpacking and German residential district of the late nineteenth century to a dilapidated area zoned industrial in the 1931 Comprehensive City Plan.⁴²³

Like all the downtown residential districts, Butchertown witnessed population declines, flooding, and disinvestment, as well as industrial encroachment resulting in demolition of older housing units. Another important factor was the construction of the I-65 and I-64 corridors adjacent or through the communities. Community rezoning was successful in 1966. Butchertown began to attract new residents to rehabilitate the area's diverse housing and commercial properties.

In order to facilitate rehabilitation, Butchertown Inc was formed with the express purpose of purchasing older houses threatened with demolition, rehabilitating them, and selling them at a reduced cost. The latter was intended to keep the community's socio-economic diversity intact. Part of the success of Butchertown's approach was a partnership with the Stockyards Bank and Trust Company, which worked closely with the group and private investors to preserve the community.⁴²⁴ Additionally, the neighborhood was listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1976 and received local designation in 2003. These designations provided financial incentives for rehabilitation as well as local design review to protect the character of the district.

The Uptown neighborhood, renamed Phoenix Hill in the 1970s, was also faced with serious disinvestment issues in the 1960s and 70s. Similar to Butchertown, but with an older building stock and more-pressing socio-economic problems, the area experienced decline beginning in the late 1890s. Historian Kramer noted the difficulties faced in the 1970s with regard to Phoenix Hill, "The population has steadily declined from 16,000 persons in 1950 to fewer than 6,000 in 1976...Income, employment, and educational levels rank well below those for the city at large..." 425 Kramer continues, "The number of [housing] units in the entire neighborhood has

⁴²¹ Ibid, 390.

⁴²² Kramer, 234.

⁴²³ Ibid. Industrial zoning made it impossible to secure bank loans for housing rehabilitation through conventional or government sources. ⁴²⁴ Ibid, 235.

⁴²⁵ Ibid, 237.

declined from nearly 5,000 in 1950 to under 2,800 in 1976, with much of the loss resulting from construction of the Medical Center."⁴²⁶ As a result of disinvestment and renewal construction projects of mid-century, such as the development of I-65 and the east end medical center complex, those remaining in the community were largely devoid of the resources necessary to conduct rehabilitation efforts on any scale.

The Phoenix Hill neighborhood began initial preservation efforts in the 1970s through the efforts of 23 area business interests, in concert with two residents. In 1974, the group met with Mayor Harvey Sloane and asked for assistance in expanding their businesses.⁴²⁷ Don Grisanti, owner of Casa Grisanti, observed the difficulties in obtaining bank loans to invest in his Phoenix Hill business and petitioned local government to help, "We felt if we were going to stay here, we'd better insure that the neighborhood comes back." ⁴²⁸ Mayor Sloane recommended establishing a neighborhood group and applying for a community development block grant to hire a director. In 1976, the Phoenix Hill Association was founded and began attempts to find reuses for older buildings.⁴²⁹ Businesses such as American Builders Supply and Photography, Inc. were attracted to the area through the association's influence and renovated older buildings. As with many revitalizing neighborhoods, Phoenix Hill was added to the National Register of Historic Places in 1983.

Other older Louisville neighborhoods, such as the Cherokee Triangle, the Highlands, and Old Louisville, participated in renewal efforts in the mid-to-late twentieth century. Although progress is slow, neighborhood groups have maintained a strong voice in issues concerning their respective communities. Older neighborhoods now have an established presence in the history of Louisville and Jefferson County, though not entirely able to stem the tide of exurban migration and investment. No longer are older neighborhoods or historic buildings simply deemed substandard and demolished. A formal process is in place to evaluate their significance. The success of these groundbreaking efforts of the 1960s and 1970s has been to institutionalize historic preservation and community development approach within the local, state, and national This campaign has effectively protected neighborhoods in Louisville and governments. Jefferson County throughout the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries.

⁴²⁶ Kramer, 237.

⁴²⁷ Diane Kimbel, "Phoenix Hill is rising from ashes of neglect: Renovations, new businesses, paint, and trees are part of progress," *The Louisville Times*, 13 July, 1977, B1. ⁴²⁸ Kimbel, B1.

⁴²⁹ Kramer, 238.

Chapter 5. Suburbanization: A National Overview

In September 2002, professor and architectural historian David Ames published the important national context *Historic Residential Suburbs: Guidelines for Evaluation and Documentation for the National Register of Historic Places*. Ames discussed suburbanization trends in various time periods and based each on "the predominant mode of transportation that spawned it – 'railroad suburb,' 'streetcar suburb,' 'automobile suburb,' and 'freeway suburb'."⁴³⁰ The suggested period for the early automobile suburb is 1908-1945 and, for the post-World War II and early freeway suburb, 1950-1960. Suburbanization had a definite transportation focus. In the early twentieth century, the people moving to the suburbs were not necessarily the affluent suburban borderland dwellers of the late nineteenth century, but were instead working middle class people of sufficient means to afford to live outside the city and commute for work.⁴³¹ Early-twentieth-century suburban development radiated out along streetcar lines, turnpike roads, and railway right-of-ways.⁴³²

In the 1920s and 1930s, with the widespread adoption of automobile travel, came suburbs built to accommodate them. Houses in these suburbs may have been built on lots purchased from increasing numbers of land speculators; lots often included garages and "Hollywood" driveways with two concrete tire strips.⁴³³ Land speculators purchased cheap land at the fringes of the city and subdivided it. Often, subdivisions never materialized or took many years to complete as they sold a lot at a time to owners who built their own houses.⁴³⁴ Miles Colean, in his 1940 study of the housing situation in the United States, noted many subdivided but idle, under improved, unused sites on the "outskirts" of the town or city.⁴³⁵

With the coming of the Depression was a realization that housing was in short supply – especially housing for the lower middle class and poor, the people who needed it the most. Housing construction was minimal and many construction workers and builders lost their jobs. Financial institutions closed their doors as 1.5 million houses were foreclosed.⁴³⁶ People at this time often lived in temporary shelters or "doubled up," moving in with family members. As the country was beginning to move out of the Depression in the early 1940s came the outbreak of

 ⁴³⁰ David Ames and Linda Flint McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs: Guidelines for Evaluation and Documentation for the National Register of Historic Places National Register Bulletin*, September 2002, U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, National Register of Historic Places, 2.

⁴³¹ Richard Harris and Peter J. Larkham, "Suburban Foundation, Form, and Function," in Richard Harris and Peter J. Larkham ed. *Changing Suburbs: Foundation, Form, and Function*, (London: E & FN Spon, 1999), 5.

⁴³² Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, 16-20.

⁴³³ Ibid.

⁴³⁴ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, 26-27.

⁴³⁵ Miles L. Colean, *American Housing Problems and Prospects*, (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1944), 14.

⁴³⁶ Joseph B. Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company Book Division, 1982), 7-8.

World War II, causing severe materials and labor shortages and, again, a lack of building. In the early 1940s materials shortages were so severe that 750,000 houses remained unfinished only for the lack of bathtubs and other equipment. The number of families without houses was estimated at 3,600,000.⁴³⁷

Post-World War II Suburbanization

After World War II the housing crisis continued. In a discussion of the post-war housing crisis, authors of *The Suburb Reader* noted that millions of people were forced to find temporary shelter in automobiles, grain bins, and converted chicken coops.⁴³⁸ The situation was further exacerbated by a baby boom. Along with the post-war period, however, came positive developments including renewed prosperity, government intervention in the housing industry, and the possibility for working class people to move out of their family's houses and into their own. Kenneth Jackson identified the subdivisions of the 1945-1973 time period by their peripheral location, relatively low density, architectural similarity, easy affordability and suggestion of wealth, and economic and racial homogeneity.⁴³⁹

New Deal government programs in the 1933-1934 Roosevelt era, including the Works Progress Administration (WPA), Public Works Administration (PWA), and Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) put builders back to work and turned a "nation of builders" into a "nation of owners."⁴⁴⁰ Foreclosed home mortgages were refinanced and all bank deposits became insured.⁴⁴¹ After World War II, FHA and VA financing for returning veterans meant an increased market for builders. Generous government financing made it profitable for developers to build houses and, although some provided variety, often resulted in hundreds of "nearly identical" tract houses.⁴⁴²

Post-World War II suburbanization was ushered in with the small builder who concentrated, again, on building at the fringes of the city. By the 1950s, although the small builders remained, the larger builders dominated the building scene. Toward the end of the 1950s came criticism of these early, large-scale suburbs as monotonous and unplanned. They were often located beyond the city limits and sometimes lacked municipal services. Community builders, focused on zoning and community building came to the forefront. Major building publications encouraged builders to consider not only houses, but also the geography of context (ie. distance to quality

⁴³⁷ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S.*, 45.

⁴³⁸ Becky M. Nicolaides and Andrew Weise, ed. *The Suburb Reader*, (New York, 2006), 257.

⁴³⁹ Kenneth T. Jackson, *Crabgrass Frontier: The Suburbanization of the United States*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985), 6-8.

⁴⁴⁰ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 8.

⁴⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴⁴² Gwendolyn Wright, *Building the Dream: A Social History of Housing in America*, (Pantheon Books: New York, 1981), 248.

schools, religious and community facilities, shopping, transportation, and municipal services). In the case of later planned communities these were constructed together.

The number of working class suburbs increased in the 1950s. Those moving to the suburbs at this time had an average age of thirty-one; they were younger and there were few single, widowed, or divorced. The fertility rate was high and the children were numerous. Women often felt isolated, lonely, and cut off from family in the city. Families moving to the suburbs had often done so because they could not afford "decent city apartments." The detached suburban house was advertised as the best way to provide a good family life.⁴⁴³

Government Housing Programs

Mortgages before the advent of the FHA and VA programs were limited to one half or two thirds of the appraised value of the house. The buyer was required to put a down payment on the rest. Before 1930, five to ten years was the typical mortgage length and the loan was not fully amortized, meaning mortgages might come due in periods of tight money or at the whim of the market.⁴⁴⁴

The National Housing Act, supervised by the FHA, guaranteed low-interest mortgages of up to 80 percent of the value of the house. In 1944, expanded by the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, the Veterans Administration created the Veterans' Mortgage Guarantee Programme, part of the G.I. Bill of Rights. The G.I. Bill stipulated that veterans could borrow the whole appraised value of an approved house without a down payment. Federally-insured FHA loans meant returning veterans could obtain twenty-five to thirty year, fully amortized mortgages with no down payment.⁴⁴⁵ FHA and VA housing efforts basically insured mortgages made with private lenders. They did not provide credit or build houses. In the case of a default, the FHA or VA indemnified the lender. FHA and VA programs reduced average monthly payments and, in turn, the national rate of home foreclosure (down from 250,000 nonfarm units in 1932 to 18,000 in 1951). Interest rates fell by 2 to 3 percent as these programs lowered the risk for lenders. FHA standards contributed to more sophisticated building and tract housing development. Harris noted that the FHA underwriting manual became "the developer's bible," specifying minimum building and subdivision standards.⁴⁴⁶ Subdivision layouts improved.⁴⁴⁷ On the other hand, by encouraging single family housing and providing only small loans for repair of existing structures the FHA and VA encouraged residential development at the urban fringe and

⁴⁴³ Wright, Building the Dream, 256, 258.

⁴⁴⁴ Kenneth T. Jackson, "Federal Subsidy and the Suburban Dream: The First Quarter-Century of Government Intervention in the Housing Market," from *Records of the Columbia Historical Society*, vol. 50 (1980), 427.

⁴⁴⁵ Avi Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics During the Post-Second World War Housing Boom: The U.S. Experience," in *Journal of Design History*, vol. 8, no. 2 (1995), 131-133.

⁴⁴⁶ Richard Harris, "The Birth of the Housing Consumer in the United States, 1918-1950," 527.

⁴⁴⁷ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 13.

contributed to the decline of the central city.⁴⁴⁸ Gwendolyn Wright notes that by 1957, the FHA had financed 4.5 million suburban houses.



Figure 5.1 *Government housing programs meant sweeping changes in the housing industry – and the advertising world.*

Harris and Lewis argued that changes in home financing were less radical than some authors would think and that amortization had been practiced since the 1920s. These authors noted that federal policies only affected consumer credit and not the financing builders required. Builders,

⁴⁴⁸ Jackson, "Federal Subsidy and the Suburban Dream," 426-428.

they said, continued to rely on short-term credit from suppliers.⁴⁴⁹ Because the FHA and VA did not provide credit, the programs faced difficulties caused by periodic shortages in the private credit market. The most "acute" shortages were from 1948-1949, 1951-1953, and 1956-1957.⁴⁵⁰

Standardization and Prefabricated Panel Sizes

In the early 20th century, the Bemis Foundation worked to coordinate standard dimensions of building components so that they applied to any building laid out on the four inch modular basis without cutting or altering on site. This meant greater ease of assembly with stock supplies.⁴⁵¹ The basis of the module was a method to determine coordinated sizes for building parts, details for their assembly, and building dimensions correlated with these sizes and assembly details. Out of the basic four inch module a three-dimensional grid is built. Building layouts are then referenced to this grid. American Standards Association Project A62, initiated by the American Institute of Architects (AIA) in 1939 to develop the modular method, was presented to the American building industry in 1946.⁴⁵² Later, an American Standard A62.1-1945 was established for the Coordination of Dimensions of Building Materials and Equipments. The American Standards Association A62 project guide was meant to help architects and engineers design building plans and details on a modular basis.⁴⁵³

F. Vaux Wilson, top executive of the Homasote Company of Trenton, New Jersey, studied the Bemis Foundation ideas and adapted them to a modular system of wall panels that could be built in lumberyards.⁴⁵⁴ Apparently there was some concern within the housing industry that the modular method would result in "cookie cutter houses," but small builder Arthur Bohnen of J.L. Simmons Co., Inc. stated at the 1952 Third National Standardization Conference that he believed the "designer's palette" was still the same and consisted of mass, fenestration, voids, color, textured exterior materials, and appendages to the house (porches, entrances, garages, landscaping and plantings).⁴⁵⁵

⁴⁴⁹ Richard Harris and Robert Lewis, "The Geography of North American Cities and Suburbs, 1900-1950: A New Synthesis," in *Journal of Urban History*, vol. 27, (2001), 280.

⁴⁵⁰ Albert H. Schaaf, "Federal Mortgage Interest Rate Policy and the Supply of FHA-VA Credit," in *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, vol. 40, no. 4, (November 1958), 384.

⁴⁵¹ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, 83.

⁴⁵² Col. William T. Chevalier, "A New Approach to Cost Reduction in the Building Industry," at the Seminar on the Modular Method for Lower Building Costs, Third National Standardization Conference of the American Standards Association in Conjunction with the Centennial of Engineering Museum of Science and Industry, (Chicago, 1952), introductory remarks.

⁴⁵³ Myron W. Adams and Prentice Bradley, *A62 Guide for Modular Coordination*, (Boston: Modular Service Association: 1946), 1-8.

⁴⁵⁴ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 26.

⁴⁵⁵ Arthur Bohnen, "A New Approach to Cost Reduction in the Building Industry," at the Seminar on the Modular Method for Lower Building Costs, Third National Standardization Conference of the American Standards

U.S. Forest Products Laboratory, concerned with the field of timber utilization, pioneered the use of plywood in the prefabrication movement. Forest Products Laboratory studied the woods and glues used in plywood manufacture and later studied its use in housing. The Housing Research Foundation of Purdue University was the first to develop a prefabricated panel house based on the work of U.S. Forest Products. A series of stressed-skin plywood houses were erected in 1935-1936 and had a significant impact on prefabrication in wood.⁴⁵⁶ The first was a prefabricated panel house built by General Houses, Inc.⁴⁵⁷

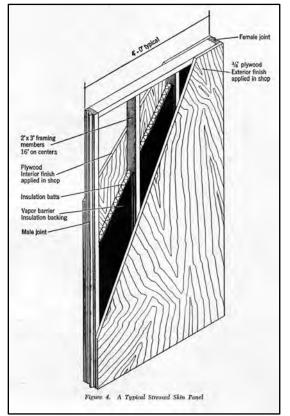


Figure 5. 2 Diagram of a Stressed-Skin Plywood Panel.⁴⁵⁸

Association in Conjunction with the Centennial of Engineering Museum of Science and Industry, (Chicago: 1952), introductory remarks.

⁴⁵⁶ Alfred Bruce and Harold Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," in *A History of Prefabrication*, (Arno Press: 1972), originally printed in Architectural Forum, December 1942, 14.

⁴⁵⁷ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 26.

Further impetus toward building component standardization came from industry and government during the World War II years. By Burnham Kelly's 1951 publication there were already 600 firms producing modular products.⁴⁵⁹ Foster Gunnison began working with Houses, Inc. and went on to develop Gunnison Magic Homes which focused on the stressed-skin plywood house. The development of the panelized, prefabricated house was encouraged by the production of new, lightweight materials in standard sizes – these included plywood, fiber boards, plaster, and gypsum board.

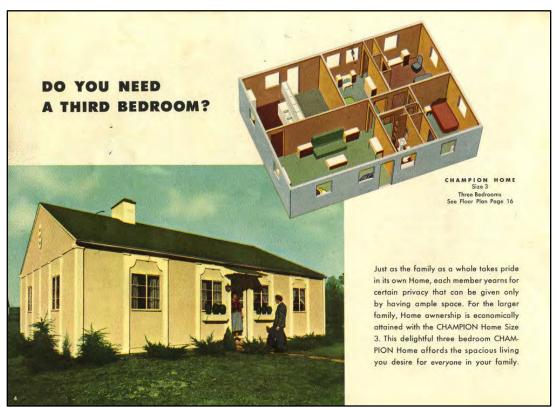


Figure 5. 3 *Prefabricated homes, like the Champion model by Gunnison, above, would help meet post-war housing needs.*

Most early prefabricated systems were based on the use of 4' X 8' panels based on the size of wall and fiberboards available at the time of their development.⁴⁶⁰ These 4' X 8' panels "reinforced standard building measurements and formed a basic module for plans and elevations." In *Dwelling House Construction*, Albert Dietz reaffirmed that the plywood

⁴⁵⁹ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, 83.

⁴⁶⁰ Bruce and Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," 58.

dimensions based on multiples of 16" had origins in traditional housing construction. Dietz notes that lath, for interior plaster application, was originally cut four feet long or a multiple of four feet. This was the major reason for the widespread building practice of placing studs on 16" centers. Although stud spacing continued to vary, this became the most common spacing. Both plywood and wallboard stock sizes were designed as multiples of 16" – 'commonly 48".'⁴⁶¹ Platform framing, which rose to popularity between World War I and World War II was a direct contributor to the standardization of the 4' X 8' dimensions. Since all studs on a floor had to be the same length it became possible to standardize not only the width and depth but also the length of lumber. Interior plasterboard and exterior fiberboard were standardized on an eight foot vertical module. Diagrams of framing from 1932 *Ramsey and Sleeper Architectural Graphic Standards* noted again that "standard spacing for studs is 16" center to center to receive lath."⁴⁶² Placing studs on 24" centers apparently became common after the large, stock sizes of plywood had already been established. This alternate stud spacing helped eliminate waste and cut labor costs by ensuring that wallboard sheets fell on framing members and, thus, did not need to be cut.⁴⁶³

Standardization may also have originated from in-line plywood veneer dryers located directly behind the rotary lathe. This allowed cut veneer to be "dried in a continuous sheet or ribbon and then clipped dry afterwards." Fourteen-foot-wide, multi-decked dryer ovens had paired, four inch diameter steel rollers spaced twelve inches apart along the length of the dryer. Three sheets or more of 4' X 8' green veneer were usually fed across the width of each deck. End-to-end and edge-to-edge position in dryers improved air flow and drying. Also, it was noted that, in the South, roller coaters for adhesive application were first used on 4' X 8' plywood wall panels. Eight foot roller coaters were used primarily in the hardwood industry. The softwood plywood roller coater was usually four feet wide for feeding different-sized veneer strips. These dimensions may have been influenced by the 4' X 8' panel sizes already in place or may have influenced the development of this standard size.⁴⁶⁴

Thomas Jester noted that the first plywood standards came in the 1920s. In 1931 a general conference of plywood representatives met and, in 1932, the Douglas Fir Plywood Association developed standards for quality of surface finish and structure. The new standards were published in 1933. The Plywood (Hardwood and Eastern Red Cedar) Commercial Standard CS35-31 was effective September 1, 1931, and included grading rules and standard sizes for

⁴⁶¹ Albert G. H. Dietz, *Dwelling House Construction*, (The M.I.T. Press: Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1974), 74.

 ⁴⁶² Dr. Paul E. Sprague, "Chicago Balloon Frame: The Evolution During the 19th Century of George W. Snow's System for Erecting Light Frame Buildings from Dimension Lumber and Machine-made Nails," in *The Technology of Historic American Buildings: Studies of the Materials, Craft Processes, and Mechanization of Building Construction*, ed. H. Ward Jandl, (Washington: The Foundation for Preservation Technology, 1983), 45-48.
 ⁴⁶³ Dietz, *Dwelling House Construction*, 133.

⁴⁶⁴ Terry Sellers, Jr. *Plywood and Adhesive Technology*, (Marcel and Dekker, Inc., New York: 1985), 98, 100, 152, 164, 170.

finished plywood. Standard lengths ranged from twenty-four to forty-eight inches, inclusive and widths ranged from twelve to thirty inches, inclusive. The definition of plywood in the commercial standard was

A product in which several plies or pieces of veneer (thin wood) are glued to each other or to a lumber core. The grain of any one ply is usually at right angles to the adjacent layers and the laminated structure is stronger than a solid piece of lumber of equal dimensions.⁴⁶⁵

Jester also noted that "the earliest stock plywood panels were three feet by six feet. By the early 1930s the now-ubiquitous 4-by-8 foot panel was being produced."⁴⁶⁶ The development of plywood meant speedy construction of the platform and sheathing of wall units; both had previously been constructed with eight-inch-wide boards. Plywood received F.H.A. approval in 1938 after new standards were developed by the Douglas Fir Plywood Association.⁴⁶⁷

The Post-War House

In his 1953 book *The House*, Robert Woods Kennedy describes the various zones of the house as public, social, operative, semiprivate, and private. Kennedy encouraged architects to consider these zones and the importance of circulation. The need for both active and formal social spaces was resolved by the family room.⁴⁶⁸ Veterans were restricted to houses in the \$6,000 to \$8,000 price range and with between 800 and 1,000 square feet through the G.I. Bill, administered by the F.H.A. This restriction caused architects and builders to experiment with reducing costs in building. Architects and builders focused on the functional, practical, and economical. Large-scale builders used such strategies as elimination of the basement and the hipped roof, construction on a concrete slab, and reduced exterior wall breaks. Variations were limited to a small number of models with different exterior features, but models were updated and changed from year to year to attract new buyers. Architects often eliminated the dining room, cellar, and "stylistic trimmings." The challenge was to create a functional and pleasant home that people could afford to buy.⁴⁶⁹

The "activity" area included the living room, dining room, and kitchen and had few walls. The "quiet zone" included the bedrooms and had walls and doors. In economy houses builders made

⁴⁶⁵ United States Department of Commerce and Bureau of Standards, *Plywood (Hardwood and Eastern Red Cedar) Commercial Standard CS35-31*, (Washington D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1931), p 1, 12, 14.

⁴⁶⁶ Thomas Jester, "Plywood," in *Twentieth Century Building Materials*, ed. Thomas Jester, National Park Service, 1995, 135.

⁴⁶⁷ David Monteyne, "Framing the American Dream," *Journal of Architectural Education*, 2004, 29.

⁴⁶⁸ Martin Mayer, *The Builders: Houses, People, Neighborhoods, Government, Money*, (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.: 1978), 40-41.

⁴⁶⁹ Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 131-133.

kitchens larger and cut costs by eliminating dining rooms; this alluded to the "farmhouse kitchen." Sometimes there was a breakfast bar or snack bar with stools between the kitchen and living room emphasizing informality. New electrical appliances were incorporated into the kitchen to maximize the amount of functional space at the minimal cost.

Two new rooms – the utility room and family room – appeared. The utility room was meant to provide space for the new automatic washer and, if the family could afford it, a dryer. Utility rooms were located next to kitchens to form a "utility core" to reduce plumbing costs. The family room was often an extension of the kitchen and was usually accessible to the outside via sliding glass doors. It was an informal room for family activities and often included a television set. ⁴⁷⁰

Designs were kept simple with small, square floor plans. The square floor plan provided the maximum floor space with minimum wall construction. The living room combined the functions of several rooms and, thus, reduced the number of rooms and the cost of the house.⁴⁷¹ Designs focused on interior flexibility and openness in floor plans.⁴⁷² Homeowners preferred large windows and glass patio doors due to the more spacious feel and increased importance of outdoor living.⁴⁷³

⁴⁷⁰ Wright, Building the Dream, 255.

⁴⁷¹ Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 139.

⁴⁷² Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 144.

⁴⁷³ Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 140.

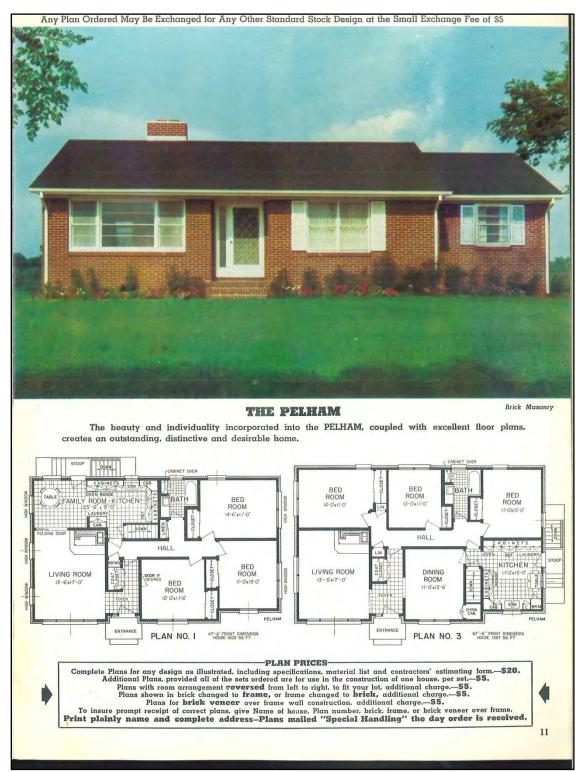


Figure 5. 4 The Pelham displays many of the design characteristics being advocated by housing experts after World War II.⁴⁷⁴

⁴⁷⁴ Homes of Today and Tomorrow Catalog. Produced by Standard Homes Company. (Washington, DC: 1947), 13.

The Post-War Housing Consumer

Harris notes that Americans became housing consumers between 1918 and 1960. Builders, in turn, learned to sell homes and to get families to buy "a comprehensive standard package of services." In the early 1940s the term "housing consumer" became popular. The speculative builder needed to determine what the anonymous customer wanted. This need spurred FHAfunded data-gathering services as well as the first housing census which made possible the 1940 Colean study of American Housing. 475

By the 1950s, buyers wanted new homes with modern floor plans, materials, and appliances. Features like picture windows and sliding glass doors were popular as suburban outdoor living increased.⁴⁷⁶ There was a shift in the 1950s from innovation in housing design to innovation in marketing focusing on what came along with the house. Technological advances were a critical part of these features. Air conditioning was one of these developments that came to the forefront in the early 1950s and was the "highlight" of the 1953 National Association of Home Builders convention in Chicago.⁴⁷⁷ A 1959 House & Homes article noted, in fact, that "more new building products have hit the market in the last ten years than in the previous fifty."⁴⁷⁸ Architects designed new houses based on the popular market. 479

Domestic appliances previous unknown became fashionable and spending on household furnishings increased after World War II. The idea of the "Dream House" was promoted. Homes offered refuge and social activity and entertainment became more private. Aggressive house-buying environments meant builders needed to distinguish their houses from those of their competitors.⁴⁸⁰ New sales methods promoted by the National Association of Home Builders in the 1950s included marketing based on a better product and a more livable and loveable home. Developers were encouraged to dramatize the neighborhoods they were creating and to focus on This approach was advanced through the environment, architecture, and landscaping. manufacturers, the trade press, and consumer publications.⁴⁸¹

Model home construction was encouraged as an advertising method. These homes had served promotional purposes for decades, but became critically important during the 1940s and 1950s. Model homes were publicized in magazines and advertisements. These homes provided a way to display the mass-produced product to its potential customer. Model homes reinforced women's domestic roles. Electricity, which became commonplace just before the war, was central and

⁴⁷⁵ Richard Harris, "The Birth of the Housing Consumer in the United States, 1918-1950," in *International Journal* of Consumer Studies Journal Compilation, vol. 33 (Blackwell Publishing Ltd., 2009), 525-527. ⁴⁷⁶ Wright, *Building the Dream*, 255.

⁴⁷⁷ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 82.

⁴⁷⁸ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 88.

⁴⁷⁹ Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 137.

⁴⁸⁰ Catherine Wallack, "Dream Home: Remodeling American Expectations with Model Houses," in *Journal of* American Culture, vol. 32, no. 4, (Wiley Periodicals, Inc., 2009), 332-335.

Mason. History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980, 95-96.

televisions were installed. Technological luxuries within a private realm were emphasized. Models were often professionally decorated and were complete with patios and groomed lawns, helping to sell a fantasy lifestyle along with the house.⁴⁸²



Figure 5. 5 *New materials promised to transform the post-war house – and the housewife's life!*

⁴⁸² Wallack, "Dream Home: Remodeling American Expectations with Model Houses," 332-335.

Typology of Suburbs

Ames believes that conducting research on historic suburbs involves the first step in their preservation. In his technical bulletin for evaluating historic residential suburbs for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) Ames uses the single-family house on its lot as his basic unit of a subdivision, a "unit of land bought and subdivided into residential building lots and provided with facilities including transportation and basic utilities;" the subdivision, then, is the building block of the larger suburban landscape."⁴⁸³ Ames also writes that ". . . a historic suburb is defined by the historical events that shaped it and by its location in relation to the existing city, regardless of current transportation modes or the city's legal boundaries."

Chauncy Harris studied suburbs within 140 metropolitan districts defined by the 1940 census and developed six types of suburbs. The first are "A" type industrial fringe suburbs with many factories and few people. In "A" suburbs, people commute here from the city. Small factories are located to avoid taxes or restrictions in the city, to avoid the city in general, or to find access to larger amounts of inexpensive land. "B" type suburbs contain not only factories but also a higher percentage of people who work in them. These lean heavily on the central city for a variety of services." "C" type suburbs are divided into two sub-types. In "C" suburbs there is a mix of industrial and residential suburbs. In the "C1" sub-type, industrial suburbs are more important and in the "C2" sub-type dormitory suburbs predominate. "D" type suburbs are dormitory or residential suburbs where industry is relatively unimportant. Finally, "E" suburbs contain a mixture of coal mining and manufacturing suburbs. Functional types of suburbs are described as M (manufacturing), D (dormitory), R (retail), and W (wholesale).⁴⁸⁴

Leo Schnore, in his article "The Functions of Metropolitan Suburbs," classified suburbs into two basic types – industrial and residential. Industrial suburbs, he stated, represent "decentralization of production," and residential suburbs represent "decentralization of consumption." Schnore studied data from the 1950 census for incorporated places of 10,000 or more inhabitants within 168 standard metropolitan areas but noted that the data was not available to study unincorporated areas. Schnore found that industrial suburbs tend to be concentrated in heavily industrialized areas of the northeast and north central regions and appeared more frequently in smaller central cities with older industrial centers. They were often beyond the urban core. In residential suburbs retail was the dominant activity. These suburbs were more common in larger cities and in many recently incorporated areas. Few were beyond the urban core or farther than thirty miles away from it.⁴⁸⁵

⁴⁸³ David L. Ames, "Understanding Suburbs as Historic Landscapes," in Richard Harris and Peter Larkham, ed. *Changing Suburbs: Foundation, Form, and Function*, (London: E & FN Spon, 1999), 235.

⁴⁸⁴ Chauncy Harris, "Suburbs," in *The American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 49, no. 1 (The University of Chicago Press, 1943), 8-11.

⁴⁸⁵ Leo F. Schnore, "The Functions of Metropolitan Suburbs," in *The American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 61, no. 5 (The University of Chicago Press, 1956), p 453-458.

Kenneth Jackson addressed the characteristics of post-World War II subdivisions including their peripheral location, relatively low densities as compared to that of the central city and relative uniformity of lot size from 40-80 by 100 feet; and architectural similarity.⁴⁸⁶ Richard Harris, in his study of the home-work linkage, also offered a valuable analysis of the suburban types. Harris explained that scholars have used the term residential suburb to describe one with a "surplus of people" and industrial suburb to describe one with a "surplus of manufacturing jobs." He mentioned that scholars have provided an intermediate category for mixed or balanced suburbs, but made a point of stating that the latter are methods of evolution of suburbs of different types. He wrote, "I argue that to understand the long-term spreading out of houses and industry, we need to worry less about types of suburbs and think more about the process by which they came into being."

Harris believed that suburbs should be classified by their process or processes of development. He stated that there are really four processes of suburbanization – industrial, residential, balanced, and alternating. These terms are applied based on whether development was led by industry, residential settlement, a mixture of industrial and residential, or alternated between these types.⁴⁸⁷ Harris also pointed out that in the early twentieth century a distinction was made between "satellites" and suburbs.⁴⁸⁸ Satellites were described as separate from the metropolitan core. Satellites, Harris wrote, had to contain a combination of houses and industry from the start. Harris noted that the distinction between satellites and suburbs was "fuzzy" but "meaningful."⁴⁸⁹

Mary Corbin Sies believes strongly that the forces shaping residential location decisions as well as neighborhoods and internal dynamics, formation, and development are important in determining suburban types. She advocates a combined geographic and case study approach with an understanding of social dynamics. Sies believes scholars need to develop a modified suburban classification system, but laments that "we have no systematic, empirically-derived, and comprehensive morphology of types of North American settlements to guide such a redefinition effort, and we need one."⁴⁹⁰

Growth at the Unincorporated Urban Fringe

Decentralization and growth at the urban fringe was happening before World War II. In fact, in his 1915 publication *Satellite Cities: A Study of Industrial Suburbs*, Graham Romeyn Taylor wrote about decentralization, stating that it involved "more than a few tenement dwellers" moving to farms. Towns, either brand new or "with some little village as a core," were springing

⁴⁸⁶ Kenneth T. Jackson, "The Baby Boom and the Age of the Subdivision," in *The Crabgrass Frontier: the Suburbanization of the United States* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985).

⁴⁸⁷ Richard Harris, "Suburbanization and the Employment Linkage," in *Manufacturing Suburbs: Building Work and Home on the Metropolitan Fringe*, ed. Robert Lewis, (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 2004), 222.

⁴⁸⁸ Harris, "Suburbanization and the Employment Linkage,"226.

⁴⁸⁹ Harris, "Suburbanization and the Employment Linkage," 227.

⁴⁹⁰ Mary Corbin Sies, "North American Suburbs, 1880-1950: Cultural and Social Reconsiderations," in *Journal of Urban History*, vol. 27, no. 3, (SAGE Publications, Inc., 2001), 320, 330.

up about ten miles from the city and "stores, saloons, lodges, churches, and schools" were following. Industry began the process of decentralization during this time period. Taylor advocated for civic institutions, representation in local government, and employment in these new communities to ensure that they were sustainable.⁴⁹¹ Harris and Lewis, too, mentioned that industry had been decentralizing decades before the 1920s. They explained that suburbs were diverse and also noted that the early zonal model of suburbanization, identifying a "fault" between cities and suburbs was inaccurate.⁴⁹²

Gwendolyn Wright notes that the FHA preferred controlled, segregated subdivisions in suburban areas. The housing boom altered "huge expanses on the periphery of every large American city" and unincorporated areas welcomed this development. Commuting to work became the norm as federally-funded highways increased. ⁴⁹³ Scholars have tended to overlook the important role of the unincorporated areas in shaping suburban development. In 1950 more than a third of the urban population living outside the central city resided in the unincorporated fringe.⁴⁹⁴ Many developers preferred fringe locations because of "... freedom to speculate in land sales without the need for heavy investments in improvements."⁴⁹⁵ Subdivision controls were unheard of until speculators of the 1920s showed the wastefulness of unrestricted subdivision. This waste occurs through taking land out of a productive use prematurely, often resulting in the need to re-plat later. Waste also occurs through poorly-planned lots and in tying up capital for long periods in unproductive enterprise. The community is adversely affected by high utility costs, high maintenance costs, and high government costs.⁴⁹⁶ The National Association of Home Builders notes in its 1956 article "Fate of Suburbs Demands Foresight," that many small towns throughout the country are directly in the path of development from urban decentralization. These towns, they said, "usually have a small business center surrounded by open space – farms, woodlands, meadows - dotted with country houses." Planning for the future through wise and realistic zoning and subdivision controls, they wrote, is crucial in protecting rural character while absorbing "urban overflow." They advocated for balanced development, encouragement of the

⁴⁹¹ Graham Romeyn Taylor, *Satellite Cities: A Study of Industrial Suburbs*, (New York, D. Appleton and Company, 1915), 1-25.

 ⁴⁹² Richard Harris and Robert Lewis, "Misrepresentation of American Cities and Suburbs, 1900-1950," in *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, vol. 88, no. 4 (Association of American Geographers, 1998), p 623-624.
 ⁴⁹³ Harris, "Suburbanization and the Employment Linkage," 227.

⁴⁹⁴ Richard Harris and Robert Lewis, "The Geography of North American Cities and Suburbs," 282.

⁴⁹⁵ Richard Yearwood, "Land Subdivision and Development: American Attitudes on Land Subdivision and Its Controls," in *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, vol. 29, no. 2 (American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 1970), 115.

⁴⁹⁶ Richard Yearwood, "Land Subdivision and Development: American Attitudes on Land Subdivision and Its Controls," in *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, vol. 29, no. 2 (American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 1970), 115, 121.

right kind of industry, establishment of local business establishments, and low density residential development.⁴⁹⁷

In a 1953 sociological report on a study of Oregon subdivisions in the fringe areas of Eugene and Springfield, Walter T. Martin described the rural-urban fringe as being an area "sprawling out beyond the political limits of the modern city," containing rural and urban land uses, exploitable for the real-estate promoter and threatening to the conservative investor. Many considered its rapid population growth, unrestricted subdivision, antagonistic land uses, spreading rural slums, and escape from tax and legal jurisdiction of the city as major negative factors. On the other hand, the findings of the study suggested that people were satisfied to live in the fringe areas and that accessibility to the city center was not of crucial significance to that satisfaction. The author suggested the possibility that fringe area residents may have been satisfied with less-than-ideal conditions because they may not have been able to find housing elsewhere.⁴⁹⁸ Avi Friedman supports this hypothesis, noting that homeowners in new suburban subdivisions "were duly satisfied with their houses; when most owners of post-war houses were first-time buyers and everyone on the block lived in nearly identical accommodations, the possibility for dissatisfaction or unfilled expectation was low."⁴⁹⁹

The 1950 *Community Builders' Handbook* suggested that the subdivision regulations in many cities of the time was "obsolete" and had, in turn, pushed development outside city limits where regulations were either absent or "more reasonable."⁵⁰⁰ Also in 1950, the Urban Land Institute noted that, "More than one city is feeling the effects of excessively high subdivision standards by seeing development by-pass it in favor of areas beyond the city limits."⁵⁰¹

Miles Colean noted that legal barriers such as zoning, deed restrictions, and rigid building codes forced developers to less desirable sites outside "code jurisdiction." This was encouraged by the availability of cheap land.⁵⁰² Avi Friedman noted that the average house payment in 1950 was \$56 per month and the average apartment rent in the city was \$93 per month. It was cheaper for people to purchase new houses in the suburbs.⁵⁰³

⁴⁹⁷ "Fate of Suburbs Demands Foresight," in *NAHB Correlator: The Journal of Homebuilding*, Urban Land Institute, vol. 10, no. 10, (Washington, D.C.: NAHB, 1956), 76, 79-80.

⁴⁹⁸ Walter T. Martin, *The Rural-Urban Fringe: A Study of Adjustment to Residence Location*, (Eugene: University of Oregon, 1953), 1, 73-79.

⁴⁹⁹ Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 144.

⁵⁰⁰ Community Builders' Council of the Urban Land Institute. *The Community Builders Handbook*, (Washington, D.C., Urban Land Institute, 1950), 27.

⁵⁰¹ Seward H. Mott, Urban Land Institute Technical Bulletin No. 13: Who Pays for Street and Utility Installations in New Residential Areas? A Survey of Municipal Policy, (Washington, D.C., Urban Land Institute: 1950), 5.

⁵⁰² Miles L. Colean, *American Housing Problems and Prospects*, (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1944), 22-23.

⁵⁰³ Avi Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics," 136.

Development Costs

In 1944, Miles Colean explained how subdividers determined costs. The subdivider decided on the price range of the dwellings and then roughly estimated the cost of the structure to find land at the right price. Improvement costs varied greatly; flat land, for instance, cost much less to develop because it required less preparation. Lower quality streets and landscaping were possible in subdivisions of "workingmen's houses". Land for detached dwellings might only "need narrow, light street paving and no curbs or [side]walks." Material costs were calculated based on traffic, the number of families per acre, the character of the land layout, and the location of structures. Careful design could eliminate unnecessary utilities and paving.⁵⁰⁴ The costs of streets and walks were the highest cost improvements followed by sanitary sewers, storm sewers, water mains, grading, drainage, and landscaping. In the early 1940s, the minimum cost of preparing a 50 foot lot fronting on a 50 foot right-of-way with a 25 foot paved street would probably be no less than \$240 (broken down into \$1.75/front foot of paving, \$0.85 for curbs and gutters, \$0.95 for sanitary sewers, \$0.25 for planting/seeding, and \$1.00 for water).⁵⁰⁵ Colean reported on the trend toward lower priced dwellings and more open space with lots 50 feet wide and, in the South, 60 feet wide becoming the standard for "detached houses."⁵⁰⁶

A 1950s Urban Land Institute survey of 98 cities in 34 states and the District of Columbia indicated that approximately 90 percent of cities replying had subdivision regulations in effect, but few detailed methods of payment for municipal services. Results showed that most cities required the developer to front the total cost of street and utility installations except for water mains and storm sewers.⁵⁰⁷ Louisville, Kentucky, was noted as one of the cities where developers had to pay the full cost of all street improvements without reimbursement.⁵⁰⁸ Water mains normally provide the city with direct revenue or profit and storm water normally originates outside of the development; therefore, it was difficult for the municipality to justify making the developer pay the full cost of the installation of these improvements. Thirty-eight cities, however, required water mains and fifty-eight required storm sewers to be installed at the developer's expense. Seventy-five percent of cities replying indicated that the developer was required to pay the entire cost of sanitary sewer installation. The Urban Land Institute considered it justified that the developer pay for street grading, paving, curbs and gutters, and sidewalks because these would serve the development directly.⁵⁰⁹

⁵⁰⁴ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 26.

⁵⁰⁵ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 27.

⁵⁰⁶ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 31.

⁵⁰⁷ Seward H. Mott, "Who Pays for Street and Utility Installations in New Residential Areas? A Survey of Municipal Policy," in *Urban Land Institute Technical Bulletin No. 13* (Urban Land Institute: Washington, D.C.: 1950), 3.

⁵⁰⁸ Mott, "Who Pays for Street and Utility Installations in New Residential Areas?", 6.

⁵⁰⁹ Mott, "Who Pays for Street and Utility Installations in New Residential Areas?" 4.

By 1950, the National Association of Home Builders used the average cost of \$2.50/foot for 8" sanitary sewer pipe as well as 15" storm sewer pipe, \$125.00 each for manholes, and \$125.00 each for catchbasins. Water mains (including valves) were \$2.00/foot. A four foot sidewalk (one side) was 0.25/square foot (or 1.00 per linear foot), roadway paving was 2.00/square yard, grading was 1.00/cubic yard, and street trees were 5.00 each.⁵¹⁰ As noted in the Community Builders Handbook, it was important for the developer to consider the size of tract that could be handled financially.⁵¹¹ The *Community Builders Handbook* also recommended that for 60' X 125' lots net density (dwellings/acre) should be 4.3. Net density was defined as the total number of dwellings/acre within the site after deducting 25 percent of site allocated to streets, parks, and recreation.⁵¹²

The 1952 article "What Lies Ahead for Home Building," noted that, in 1952, average cost of improvements was \$13.90 a front foot - \$834 for a sixty foot lot and \$973 for a 70 foot lot. They advocated the ten-foot-wider lots for better subdivision layout and more room for homeowners. The average 60' X 120' lot cost \$165.31 raw. The article noted that "most plots of ground beneath 'good' subdivision houses" were approximately 120 feet deep and sixty feet wide.⁵¹³

The 1950 *Community Builders Handbook* noted that, "According to Cyrus Willmore of St. Louis, an unimproved lot for houses to sell under \$10,000 can normally be figured at about 15 percent of the total house cost . . ." The cost of improvements, profit, and overhead carrying charges would be deducted to find the amount that could be paid for raw lots.⁵¹⁴ Assuming that the total cost of a lot including land and all improvements should not exceed 15 percent of the selling cost of the house, a house selling from \$7,000 - \$10,000 should have a total lot cost not exceeding \$1,050 - \$1,500.

Large-Scale Development

John Herzog, in his study of large-scale developers working in the 1950-1960 period noted that large-scale developers were better able to absorb the financial burden than smaller developers during periods of low demand for housing. They commanded better prices from materials suppliers, used materials more effectively, and had better access to credit due to their long-term commitments. It also meant these developers could put more money into things like marketing,

⁵¹⁰ National Association of Home Builders, *Home Builder's Manual for Land Development*, (Washington, D.C.: NAHB, 1950), 68.

⁵¹¹ Community Builders' Council of the Urban Land Institute, *The Community Builders Handbook*, J.C. Nicholas Memorial Edition (Washington, D.C.: Urban Land Institute: 1950), 13.

⁵¹² Community Builders' Council of the Urban Land Institute, *The Community Builders Handbook*, 39.

⁵¹³ National Association of Home Builders, "What Lies Ahead for Home Building," *House & Home*, January 1952, 139.

⁵¹⁴ Community Builders' Council of the Urban Land Institute, *The Community Builders Handbook*, 13.

design, financing, and research because their cost was spread over more housing units.⁵¹⁵ In the results of his study, Herzog wrote that "In the relatively few cases where developed lots were purchased they were, with but one exception, acquired from a developer who had failed."⁵¹⁶ David Ames noted that from the 1870s through 1920s the two processes of land development (initial subdivision and improvement and the actual construction of buildings) were separate, but post-World War II these two processes were combined by single large-scale developers.⁵¹⁷

Types of Developers

The Ames national context defines the types of developers: the subdivider, the home builder, the community builder, the operative builder, and the merchant builder. The subdivider operated on a small scale, acquiring and surveying land, developing a plan, laying out building lots and roads, and improving the site.⁵¹⁸ Miles Colean called the subdivider a "retail land merchant," often conducting only a land survey with "street markers to identify future gridiron amid stubble and little flags to designate building lot boundaries."⁵¹⁹ In the 1948 *Principles of Urban Real Estate*, Weimer and Hoyt listed the functions of the subdivider as: analyzing market conditions, selecting an appropriate location, surveying and analyzing the principal features of the tract, purchasing the location and establishing financing, dedicating areas to special uses (streets, parks, playgrounds, etc.), dividing the remaining portions of land into parcels or lots best adapted to their uses, installing utilities and streets, establishing restrictions and methods for regulating land use, and selling the lots or proceeding with construction.⁵²⁰

The home builder, still more of a subdivider, was a turn-of-the-twentieth-century builder, constructing houses on a small number of lots in order to increase marketability for the entire subdivision. The houses simply made the land more valuable and selling the land remained the first priority. It took years for a subdivision of this type to come to fruition, but the presence of homes increased buyer confidence.

The community builder was a real estate entrepreneur acquiring large tracts developed according to a plan; this type of builder often hired design professionals and valued proximity to schools, shopping, churches, and employment. Community builders were more concerned with long-range planning issues, often using deed restrictions and promoting zoning.⁵²¹

⁵¹⁵ John Herzog, *The Dynamics of Large-Scale House-Building*, Research Report #22, Real Estate Research Program Institute for Business and Economic Research, (Berkeley: University of California Printing Department, 1963), 22.

⁵¹⁶ Herzog, Dynamics of Large-Scale House-Building, 22.

⁵¹⁷ Ames, "Understanding Suburbs as Historic Landscapes," 235.

⁵¹⁸ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, 26-27.

⁵¹⁹ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 31.

⁵²⁰ Arthur Weimer and Homer Hoyt, *Principles of Urban Real Estate*, (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1948), 240-241.

⁵²¹ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, 26-27.

The operative, or speculative, builder took control of the entire operation, building more houses and phasing construction as money became available. The FHA gave the speculative builder the kinder name "operative builder" in 1934. In 1944 Miles Colean noted that operative builders were of growing importance, but "don't dominate the industry."⁵²² By 1949; however, a survey estimated that 41 percent of all new single family houses were erected by operative builders. Speculative, or operative builders, were replacing contractors by the early 1950s. During this time, the extension of building regulations, subdivision regulations, and planning controls meant that there was a sharp decrease in owner built houses without municipal services.⁵²³

Merchant builders used the processes of mass construction, standardization, and prefabrication for their large-scale developments. This type of builder also acquired large tracts of land, but laid out subdivisions according to FHA standards and was able to quickly construct vast numbers of houses. Merchant builders sold "both a home and a lifestyle."⁵²⁴ Merchant builders blurred the lines between general contractor and operative builder by erecting model homes and then pre-selling them to clients with a range of options.⁵²⁵

The Dealer and Dealer-Erector

As Burnham Kelly points out in *The Prefabrication of Houses*, prefabricated housing dealers were typically drawn from contractors/operative builders, real estate brokers, or subdividers. Most had building backgrounds.⁵²⁶ Kelly also discusses that Gunnison Homes, Inc. used a rating blank for choosing dealers with such information as bank reference, credit score, business history, experience and ability, personality, and outside connections and interests. Gunnison estimated that the dealer in the average market area should be able to supply \$15,000 in working capital.⁵²⁷ Dealers were responsible for sending a steady flow of orders to the prefabricated manufacturer as well as having the knowledge of speedy and efficient erection procedures for their houses. Gunnison encouraged the diversification of sales risk by making many small sales to individual customers.⁵²⁸ Dealers for Gunnison Homes were responsible for marketing and selling homes, expanding their sales area, arranging financing for themselves and their buyers, purchasing housing packages, paying for those packages at the time of delivery from the plant, erecting houses, and providing continuing maintenance after the sale.

Kelly describes these dealers as dealer-erectors, who could concentrate efforts within a relatively local market, benefit from factory mass production and erection economies, and keep site

⁵²² Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 64.

⁵²³ Harris, "The Birth of the Housing Consumer in the United States, 1918-1950," 526.

⁵²⁴ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, 28.

⁵²⁵ Richard Harris and Michael Buzzelli, "House Building in the Machine Age, 1920s-1970s: Realities and Perceptions of Modernisation in North America and Australia," in *Business History*, vol. 47, no. 1, (2005), 66. ⁵²⁶ Burnham Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, (Cambridge: The M.I.T. Press, 1951), 379.

⁵²⁷ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, 385-7.

⁵²⁸ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, 43.

expenses down. ⁵²⁹ They were also on site when the manufacturer could not be, were familiar with local building codes and zoning, used local labor, and decreased community resistance to the development.⁵³⁰

The Subdivision Process

Miles Colean discussed important site selection criteria for subdividers. These include a location which is within the path of urban growth; offers protection from "inharmonious land uses;" is practical to develop without undue expenses; retains harmony with existing buildings; has convenient access to transportation; and has acceptable availability of services (schools, shopping, religious and recreational facilities, and employers), suitable streets and utilities, and an attractive landscape.⁵³¹ The Community Builders Handbook cites Harold W. Lautner's study "Subdivision Regulations," where he writes,

The subdivider of a parcel of land does very much more than sell real estate by a bargain concerning the buyer and seller alone. The results of his activities are in truth indelibly impressed upon the physical pattern of the community at large.⁵³²

The Process of House Building and Development

Of note, in the early part of the twentieth century, the owner-builder was predominant; this method of building remained popular through the 1940s. Though not a type of developer, the owner-builder worked with a subdivider to buy a lot and build cheaply - often at the urban fringe or in the "exurbs." These owner-builders often purchased and assembled kit houses. The ownerbuilder remained active throughout the first half of the twentieth century and played a substantial part in the post-war housing boom.⁵³³

By the mid-1950s, however, the number of owner-builders dropped significantly due to the increase in building regulations, subdivision regulations, and planning controls.⁵³⁴ Building in this time may have meant individual purchase of materials or kit houses through lumber dealers which dealt with manufacturers on a local or regional basis. Lumber dealers were large operations which provided a single point to get a vast number of housing materials. In addition, they managed deliveries to buildings sites and provided advice and credit. Larger builders at the time may have bypassed lumber companies or been vertically integrated. In 1949, 96 percent of professional builders were described as small (starting twenty-five houses or less) and 42 percent were tiny (one unit each). The small builder remained important.⁵³⁵

 ⁵²⁹ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, 87.
 ⁵³⁰ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, 379.

⁵³¹ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 19.

⁵³² Community Builders' Council of the Urban Land Institute, *The Community Builders Handbook*, 26.

⁵³³ Harris and Lewis, "The Geography of North American Cities and Suburbs," 280.

⁵³⁴ Harris, "The Birth of the Housing Consumer in the United States, 1918-1950," 527.

⁵³⁵ Harris and Buzzelli, "House Building in the Machine Age," 63, 65.

Miles Colean indicated in 1944, that the process of house building could be separated into activities involving:

- acquisition of land
- planning the land to accommodate a housing operation
- improvements of the land
- design of the dwellings and selection of materials and equipment
- financing the building operation
- purchase of materials and equipment
- employment of labor
- assembly and installation of materials and equipment for the finished house⁵³⁶

The Ames context also includes "Understanding Residential Suburbs as Cultural Landscapes" and breaks the development process down into several layers including selection of land, subdivision design, and arrangement of individual houses and associated landscape features. ⁵³⁷

National builders' trade organizations such as the Home Builders' Institute (Home Builders Emergency Committee) and National Home Builders Association as well as smaller local home builders' associations were established in 1940. Later, the Home Builders Institute and Home Builders Emergency committee merged to form the National Association of Home Builders (NAHB). Its first president was Fritz Burns; the new organization provided necessary leadership in the housing industry. ⁵³⁸ The very successful NAHB "Operation Trade Secrets" commenced in 1951 and pooled the smartest builders, researchers, and technicians. Trade secret information was shared among attendees and then published. ⁵³⁹ Another contribution during this time period came from the Urban Land Institute in Washington, D.C., which promoted good land development through research-based education. ⁵⁴⁰

Eddo Coiacetto's 2007 study was developed to create a conceptual model for analyzing the effect of the development industry on urban space, but it makes useful points about how developers can impact the quality of their spaces by choices such as of location and undertaking building themselves. He notes that, in addition to their impact on quality developers shape urban space by deciding to target a specific market and provide home buyers with specific options.⁵⁴¹ The 1950 Community Builders' Handbook suggested that developers create neighborhoods and focus on quality-of-life issues such as travel time to work, and distance to parks, schools, and shopping

⁵³⁶ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, 59.

⁵³⁷ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*.

⁵³⁸ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 32-34.

⁵³⁹ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 83.

⁵⁴⁰ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, 59.

⁵⁴¹ Eddo Coiacetto, "The Role of the Development Industry in Shaping Urban Social Space: A Conceptual Model," *Geographic Research*, December 2007, 340-341, 345.

centers. Although the Urban Land Institute noted that the average subdivision size at the time was thirty-five acres, they promoted the idea of developing larger areas at a time. The Handbook promoted the "rule of thumb" that a lot should be two times its frontage in depth. ⁵⁴²

Suburban Industrial Development

The important Urban Land Institute Bulletin No. 21 "The Community and Industrial Development," offered reasons traditionally-residential suburbs at the urban fringe should work to attract new industries. It noted that these were the communities where taxes collected were likely to be insufficient to provide for exploding populations; this may have been because these communities were composed mainly of residential properties which did not even pay for the cost of the municipal services provided to them. The deficit needed to be made up by taxes from higher-valued commercial and industrial properties. Industries, with their land, buildings, and equipment added to the tax base. "The additional demands for costly municipal services are relatively small as compared with an equivalent investment in residential property."⁵⁴³ Industrial payrolls generate economic activity and build tax revenues. Garrabrant warned of the danger of specialization and encouraged communities to expand their economic bases. Garrabrant noted that the costs of providing municipal services had increased as "municipalities, like the State and Federal governments, had been affected by the same post-war inflationary influences that had raised the cost of materials and labor for everyone." It had become more costly to maintain the same municipal services. New growth, he noted, "entails new capital construction at cost levels approximately double those of prewar times."⁵⁴⁴ He also noted that as a community expanded, more municipal services needed to be provided.

Garrabrant noted that although new taxes had been introduced, the property tax was used most often to support local governments due to restrictions on the amounts of money that could be generated by the new taxes. Property tax revenues are dependent upon the natural growth in the number of people and buildings. It is the character of the new construction; however, that determines whether enough revenue can be collected.

⁵⁴² Community Builders' Council of the Urban Land Institute. *The Community Builders Handbook*, 13.

⁵⁴³ Robert B. Garrabrant, "The Community and Industrial Development," in *Urban Land Institute Technical Bulletin No. 21*, (Urban Land Institute, Washington D.C.: 1953), foreward.

⁵⁴⁴ Garrabrant, "The Community and Industrial Development," 4.

⁵⁴⁵ Garrabrant, "The Community and Industrial Development," 6.

⁵⁴⁶ Garrabrant, "The Community and Industrial Development," 1-6.

Garrabrant indicated that many communities in need of the additional tax revenues resisted attracting industry due to fears of negative impacts on quality of life. He pointed out; however, that "The modern American factory operated by a reputable company is acutely conscious of the advantages of being a good neighbor." He said owners and managers of industrial establishments were well aware that it was bad public relations to locate a plant where it would be a nuisance to the residents. He talks about the elimination of tall chimneys, noise, dust, odors, unattractive architecture, and poorly-landscaped grounds. Garrabrant believed that communities could attract industry with all the benefits and none of the negative associations.⁵⁴⁷

Factors in Industrial Location

Robert Garrabrant noted, from an economic standpoint, that industry is defined by its ability to bring new jobs to the community and, thus, new income. He noted that, within this basic framework, industry was extremely varied. For an industrial operation, economies in manufacturing its products depended upon its plant location. The "intelligent plant location" is one that "minimizes total cost as delivered to the desired market." Several prospective locations may be chosen. The principle reason behind the choice of location may be market-based (proximity to a particular market), material-based (proximity to good sources of material), or labor-based (proximity to available labor pool). Final site selection depends on a number of other criteria including: markets, resources, labor, land, buildings, construction costs, transportation, utilities, water, fuels, existing industries or facilities, housing, community services, public attitude, and climate.

A community, Garrabrant says, needs to be prepared with a detailed economic assessment at the outset of these plant location decisions. This involves fact-finding and promotional work as well as presentations to potential industries and, sometimes, negotiations with owners and municipal authorities. One result of assembling this information is the discovery of areas of improvement in the community and the ability to remedy those in advance. He suggests that civic leaders enlist wider interest and support within the community. As more citizens volunteer their time, the burden of assembling the economic information lessens. Sometimes, Garrabrant says, the organization is "set up within the framework of the local chamber of commerce or some other existing civic organization." He mentions the Louisville Industrial Foundation as a permanent organization founded in 1916 to advance industrial development in the City of Louisville and its vicinity. Financing, he says, can be through soliciting, contributing, or selling stock within the community. Returns will be through increased economic activity for those with a stake in the project. Some organizations grant financial aid to new industries.

A 1943 National Industrial Conference Board study showed that the steps companies go through in choosing new plant sites include: assignment of a committee to select the location, specification of requirements to be met, selection of general area based on a small number of

⁵⁴⁷ Garrabrant, "The Community and Industrial Development," 6-7.

important factors, screening of potential location to narrow the list of possibilities, and final site comparisons and selection of site. Due to the confidential nature and reluctance of industrial operations to disclose themselves prematurely, it is best for communities to make their economic information publicly available through such organizations as state and regional chambers of commerce and development agencies, management and location consultants, and industrial realtors. Business news sections of newspapers may indicate companies planning expansions and businesspeople may discover this information. Communities also use paid advertising to make it clear that new industry is welcome there. Special inducements, such as provision of municipal services or cash grants may be provided but some businesses may feel it is bad practice to accept these inducements. Garrabrant makes a special point of saying that these types of inducements, advertising, and promotion should be used to attract industry locally as well. He also says to keep in mind the effects of new industry on existing industries within the community.⁵⁴⁸

A 1953 G.E. publication indicated that G.E. sought to locate its plants in small communities that could still meet the company's employment and other requirements. G.E. tried not to require beyond 15 percent of a community's work force. G.E. also sought good employees; politically "fair weather" (cooperation from public officials); transportation facilities; power, fuel, and water facilities; specific kinds of available housing; good educational and religious facilities; recreational, cultural, and civic facilities; and health, hospital, and medical facilities. Shopping facilities, fire protection, parking, and public safety features were also important to G.E. Its "give and take" relationship with the community was promoted.⁵⁴⁹

⁵⁴⁸ Garrabrant, "The Community and Industrial Development," 7-11, 13-15.

⁵⁴⁹ Lemuel R. Boulware, "Big Industry in the Community: G.E. Assesses Community Relations," in *Journal of Educational Sociology*, vol. 27, no. 4, Industry and Community (December, 1953), 152-159.

Mirroring the National Trend

This overview helps place the mid-twentieth century subdivision boom in Louisville within its national context. Examination of larger historical trends such as twentieth century suburbanization, the post-war housing crisis, and the development of the stressed-skin plywood panel helps explain the why and where of development for many subdivisions in the study corridors. Information on the types of developers, process of house building and development, and innovative new marketing techniques leads to a better understanding of the seemingly endless proliferation of suburbs across Jefferson County after World War II.

Louisville's post-World War II housing boom did not occur in a vacuum, nor was it the first time the Falls City experienced a rush of domestic construction. Suburbanization began to take root in Jefferson County in the nineteenth century. The first suburbs of the late-nineteenth century were within the city limits, but these boundaries were quickly tested and expanded as the twentieth century dawned. The first suburban housing boom in Louisville owed its existence to another war – World War II.

Chapter 6. The Landscape of the Suburbs: A New Way of Building and Living

Introduction

Although migration from the urban core to rural areas occurred during the early nineteenth century simultaneously with the evolution of transportation routes such as turnpikes and rail lines, the process of suburbanization in Jefferson County took root after the Civil War. Suburbanization, strictly defined, is the spread of residential communities on the outskirts of a city.

After the Civil War and up to World War I, transportation improvements, parks, and building and loan associations shaped the nature of residential development in Louisville. Suburban development in the 1870s and 1880s focused on western Louisville, "where developers were able to purchase tracts of level farmland at low prices, subdivide them into lots of a fairly regular size, and then dispose of the lots at a reasonably low price while still making a handsome profit."⁵⁵⁰ The buyers of these lots, however, were not average residents, but were still fairly well-off professionals with disposable income.

Parkland, a neighborhood bounded by Broadway on the north, 26th Street to the east, 34th Street to the west, and Woodlawn and Wilson Avenues and Catalpa Street, to the west, is one example of this type of development (Figure 6.1). A rural tract outside the city's boundaries, the real estate firm of Morris, Southwick and Company auctioned off 1,072 lots in 1871, after contracting with the Central Passenger Railway Company to extend tracks to the area.⁵⁵¹ The town of Parkland was incorporated in 1874, and 20 years later, Louisville annexed the community.⁵⁵²

The foundation of the post-war suburb in Jefferson County formed along the lines of the interurban and the streetcar beginning in the late-nineteenth century. A 1909 article heralding the success of the Beargrass Railway trumpeted that "rapid transit converts country towns near Louisville into charming suburbs."⁵⁵³ The map accompanying the article clearly shows the two corridors explored in this study anchoring the west and east sides of Louisville (Figure 6.2).

 ⁵⁵⁰ Carl E. Kramer. "Two Centuries of Urban Development in Central and South Louisville," in *Louisville Survey Central and South* (Louisville, Kentucky: Louisville Landmarks Commission, May 1978), 93.
 ⁵⁵¹ John Kleber. "Parkland," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed. John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The

⁵⁵¹ John Kleber. "Parkland," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed. John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University of Kentucky Press, 2001), 689.

⁵⁵² Like many city neighborhoods, Parkland suffered from white flight in the 1950s, as families succumbed to the lure of the suburbs. The neighborhood lost nearly 25 percent of its population between 1970 and 1980. Parkland was listed in the NRHP in 1980.

⁵⁵³ The Courier-Journal. January 2, 1909.



Figure 6. 1 Parkland, as seen on Plate 25 the Atlas of the City of Louisville, Ky. and Environs, 1884.554

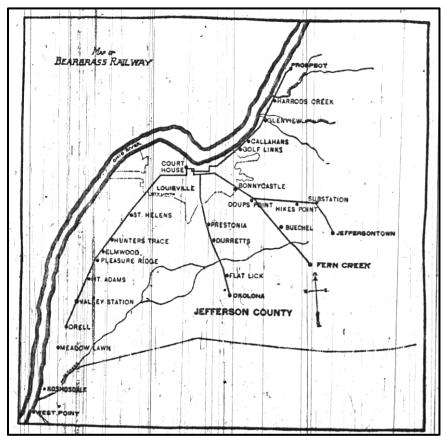


Figure 6. 2 Map of Beargrass Railway Interurban lines.

⁵⁵⁴Image Number ULUA.LouAtlas1884, University of Louisville Records and Archives Center, <u>http://digital.library.louisville.edu/cdm/ref/collection/maps/id/71</u>

Streetcar lines crossed Louisville by 1890, and provided convenient access to work, commercial establishments and to homes in developing suburbs such as Cherokee Park and Crescent Hill. Soon most residents could easily walk to a streetcar stop.

Only around 15 percent of the population lived outside Louisville city limits in the last decade of the nineteenth century. During the "half-century between the end of the Civil War and American entry into World War I, Louisville burst at its seams, moving outwardly to the west, south, and east."⁵⁵⁵ This outward development traveled along major transportation corridors, most notably Bardstown Road and Dixie Highway.

City Beautiful Movement, 1890-1920

The City Beautiful movement of the late-nineteenth century provided ample inspiration for Louisville's local builders and developers. A key proponent of the principles of the City Beautiful movement was Fredrick Law Olmsted and the Olmsted firm. Jefferson County's long relationship with Olmsted over the years resulted in the nationally-acclaimed Louisville parkway system, as well as the landscapes of private homes and public institutions.

Principles of the movement included "coordination of transportation systems and residential development" and a focus on tree-lined, curvilinear streets, large, landscaped lots, and a sense of privacy within a pastoral setting.⁵⁵⁶ The Progressive movement, with its emphasis on the health benefits of fresh, clean air and the idyllic qualities of the countryside, also played a role in this shaping of suburban development in the early twentieth century. A healthy respect for the natural terrain was advocated, which worked well in Louisville, especially along Bardstown Road, which was not possessed of large swaths of flat, well-drained land.

The traits of this naturalistic movement can be seen in many subdivision developments in Louisville during the study time period. The last subdivision platted in the Belknap neighborhood off of Bardstown Road before the United States entered World War I was University Park (Figure 6.3).⁵⁵⁷ Covering 11.85 acres, University Park was an anomaly in Louisville subdivision development at the time, as it was developed by International Realty Associates, a firm out of St. Louis County, Minnesota. Most of the subdivisions developed in Louisville before World War I were handled by local developers and builders.

Although platted in 1917, the war kept University Park from being fully realized. A full-page ad in the June 1, 1919 edition (Figure 6.3) of the *Courier-Journal* touts the amenities of the subdivision, including that the restriction for "high class residences." Although this section of University Park lacks the curvilinear street pattern advocated by Olmsted and City Beautiful

⁵⁵⁵ Carl E. Kramer. "A History of Eastern Louisville," in *Louisville Survey East Report*. (Louisville, Kentucky: Historic Landmarks and Preservation Districts Commission, 1980), 51.

⁵⁵⁶ Ames and McClelland, 39.

⁵⁵⁷ The subdivision was intended to adjoin the University of Louisville on a parcel donated by the Belknap family, but after construction of the new campus failed with voters in 1923, the land was sold to William F. Randolph, who developed the Aberdeen and Tecomah subdivisions.

followers, the ad makes clear distinction between "city "and "country." "Prepare to live close by nature" is one sentiment, "country atmosphere, city convenience" continues the theme.

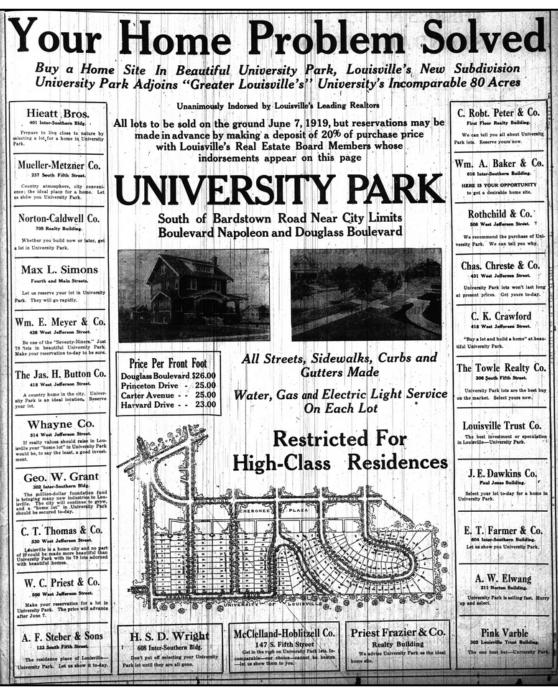


Figure 6. 3 Ad for University Park in the Courier-Journal.

The City Beautiful movement, with its emphasis on comprehensive planning and a melding of "aesthetics and functionalism,"⁵⁵⁸ also inspired James C. Murphy, a Louisville architect, to eventually craft the framework for a city planning commission and a city plan.⁵⁵⁹ Cities across the country, following the example set by the Columbian Exposition of 1893, began to draft and adopt comprehensive land use documents, and enact regulations that encompassed zoning measures, transportation systems and public utilities to guide and restrict land use.

Murphy presented a paper calling for a local arts commission to the Louisville Engineers and Architects Club in 1901. In 1908, at Murphy's urging, the club formed a city planning committee. The fruit of Murphy's endeavors would not be fully realized until the late 1920s and 1930s.

Optimism and Hope: The 1920s

From the 1924 Courier-Journal:

"Louisville is a city of home owners and lovers of homes."⁵⁶⁰

America emerged from the horrors of the Great War brimming with optimism for the 1920s, and Louisville was no exception. The economy expanded, as did building projects and the city's boundaries. The Kentucky General Assembly passed legislation in 1893 that allowed first class cities to annex surrounding area, "including smaller incorporated towns, unless 75 percent of the citizens of the affected territory could demonstrate that annexation would materially retard the prosperity of the [annexing] city and of the owners of real estate in and inhabitants of the territory sought to be annexed."⁵⁶¹

Louisville's annexation activities in the late-nineteenth century, which included the addition of streetcar suburb Crescent Hill, took a huge leap forward after World War I. Nearly 12 square miles of suburban land to the east and south of Louisville, with some 40,000 people, was annexed by the city in 1922. Neighborhoods such as Oakdale, Highland Park, Crescent Hill, Deer Park, Bonnycastle, Belknap, Douglas and Hazelwood were added to the city's tax rolls.⁵⁶² Algonquin Parkway was included in this annexation, laying the groundwork for the development of one of the study's intensively-documented subdivisions, Algonquin Place (for more discussion of Algonquin Place, see Chapter 8, page 254).⁵⁶³

⁵⁵⁸ Ames and McClelland, 31.

⁵⁵⁹ Carl E. Kramer, "Planning and Zoning," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed. John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University of Kentucky Press, 2001), 707.

⁵⁶⁰ "Louisville is a City of Home Owners and Lovers of Homes." *The Courier-Journal*. May 23, 1924.

⁵⁶¹ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 59.

⁵⁶² Ibid, 89.

⁵⁶³ Louisville West Survey Report

Residential building experienced previously unreached highs during the 1920s. In 1923, 59 subdivision plats were recorded in Louisville. The next year, despite a slowdown nationally in home construction, the Louisville market "has not only remained strong but has even improved over a year ago."⁵⁶⁴ Activity was occurring not only within the old city boundary, but at record rates in the land annexed in 1922. The single-family home developments within the annexed portions tended to be "high class subdivisions."⁵⁶⁵

While early twentieth century population figures for the city were stagnant, the county grew significantly. Growth was not, however, in rural farm-related enterprises, but rather in outlying suburban neighborhoods, connected to the city by streetcar lines and the interurban train system. New middle-class white suburban areas developed exponentially in the 1920s. Subdivisions, such as Audubon Park, Edgewood, and Parkway Village to the east and south of downtown, became high growth areas in the 1920s. Additionally, areas such Germantown, Schnitzelburg, and Shelby Park to the southeast, rapidly developed and even included new industries.

St. Matthews, which would become the focus of heated annexation attempts by Louisville after World War II, was one of these growing areas. Six new subdivisions were platted in St. Matthews between 1924 and 1926. William F. Randolph, of the Wakefield-Davis Realty Company, "one of Louisville's most active firms in the 1920s," began developing Fairlawn Subdivision in 1925.⁵⁶⁶ Fairlawn, located between Lexington Road and Frankfort Avenue, covered around 13 acres. Randolph exemplified the professionalization of the real estate business during the boom years of the 1920s, when he and other real estate professionals "laid out carefully planned subdivisions, sold lots to individual home builders or speculators, and used deed restrictions to control the quality, value, and style of construction."⁵⁶⁷

The Rise of the Realtor

The power and involvement of realtors in the development process increased exponentially after World War I. Not only did realtors "organize and manage a construction project, they also integrated aspects of existing suburban projects with contemporary views about housing that were being expressed and promoted by a network of early twentieth century housing professional with which they were associated."⁵⁶⁸

There was still, at this time, a separation between the logistics of development and quality control, and the building process. A successful builder/developers operating in Louisville in the years before the Depression and World War II was C.C. Hieatt, developer of Strathmoor (for more discussion of Strathmoor, see Chapter 8, page 333).

 ⁵⁶⁴ "Louisville is a City of Home Owners and Lovers of Homes." *The Courier-Journal*. May 23, 1924.
 ⁵⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁵⁶⁶ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 96.

⁵⁶⁷ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 129.

⁵⁶⁸ Carolyn S. Loeb. *Entrepreneurial Vernacular: Developers' Subdivisions in the 1920s.* (Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press, 2001), 4.

A comparable development to Fairlawn in 1926 was the United States Realty Associate's Lexington Manor, a 12.23-acre development that stretches from Lexington Road to Willis Avenue. Building on the ideals espoused in the University Park ad in Figure 5.3, subdivisions like Lexington Manor stressed the importance of a "park-like atmosphere," the extensive landscaping, "sensible restrictions," and the value of investing in the area (Figure 6.4).⁵⁶⁹ Although Lexington Manor typifies on some levels the development approach of the 1920s, it adheres to the gridiron pattern established in Eastern Louisville's first wave of suburban development.

William F. Randolph led the way in developing subdivisions that followed the natural contours of the land, rather than forcing the landscape to conform to the traditional gridiron pattern. This approach was coined "curvilinear" in the post-war period and formed the foundation for the Federal Housing Administration's subdivision development guidelines in the post-war period.

⁵⁶⁹ November 7, 1926 edition of the *Courier-Journal*.



Figure 6. 4 1926 ad for Lexington Manor.

Single-Family Versus Multi-Family

Louisville's residential building boom of the 1920s included construction of both single-family and multi-family homes as well as apartment buildings. The first apartment building constructed in the city was the Rossmore, built in 1893-1894 on Fourth Street north of Broadway. Other buildings soon followed, and by 1905, there were more than ten apartment buildings in Louisville. ⁵⁷⁰

⁵⁷⁰ Carolyn Brooks. "Apartment Buildings," in in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 39.

In 1912, there were 138 apartment buildings listed in Who's Who in Louisville, but only around 30 of those were located in downtown Louisville. The majority of the buildings were located in the Highlands and Old Louisville.⁵⁷¹ Until after the Great Depression, apartment buildings continued to be constructed in those two areas and downtown Louisville.

In the 1925 Louisville City Directory, 207 apartment buildings were listed. The Who's Who directory listed 303 apartments in 1928, the year that marked the end of most apartment construction (with the exception of public housing projects) in Louisville until after World War II. Many of the middle-to-upper-middle-class developments of the 1920s included multi-family housing along with single family homes. While areas like Cherokee Triangle included multistory apartment buildings like the Belvoir Apartments (constructed in 1904), the examples viewed in the survey area tended to be four-plexes or duplexes. Shadylawn, one of the surveyed subdivisions, had six of these four-plexes in place by 1928.

Though planners and city official sought to prohibit apartment building nationally, there is no indication that this fervor consumed Louisville. The construction (or conversion) of tenement buildings in downtown Louisville garnered much attention, but the construction of multi-family buildings within the suburban context in the 1910s and 1920s proceeded unabated.⁵⁷² Like the single-family homes being constructed within newly annexed portions of Louisville, these apartment buildings were designed to appeal to the middle and upper-middle class.

Better Homes in America Program

The after-effects of World War I, including more women in the work force, and the benefits of technology that allowed greater mobility, permeated civic consciousness. The 1920 census revealed that less than half of Americans owned their own homes, as "issue of critical importance to those who believed that American freedom and safety rested with a home-owning democratic population."573 In 1922, a national campaign, Better Homes in America, aimed at promoting appropriate values for the twentieth-century housewife within a "defined architectural setting," commenced.⁵⁷⁴ The principal founder was Marie Meloney, editor of *The Delineator*, a women's magazine focused primarily on aspects of the home and fashion, though it also published fiction. The Better Homes in America program gained government support, with then-Secretary of Commerce Herbert Hoover serving as chairman. The kick-off of the program was the construction of a model home in Washington, DC, exemplifying the values of the program (Figure 6.5).

⁵⁷¹ Ibid.

⁵⁷² The Tenement House Commission was founded in 1909.

⁵⁷³ Janet Hutchinson. "The Cure for Domestic Neglect: Better Homes in America, 1922-1935," in Perspectives in *Vernacular Architecture, II.* (Columbia, Missouri: University of Missouri Press, 1986), 168. ⁵⁷⁴ Ibid, 168.



Figure 6. 5 The 1922-23 National Better Home in Washington, DC.

The first National Better Home was constructed in 1922, on public land near the White House. The dwelling, a reproduction of a seventeenth-century New York house, appealed to the "community and familial values" of the twentieth-century reader.⁵⁷⁵ The reproduction extended only so far, however, as the designers embraced twentieth century building materials and an interior layout designed to appeal to the modern family. The "Better Homes Week" celebrated the melding of history and community with the message that home neglect could be dealt with scientifically, through standardization and efficiency.⁵⁷⁶

The aims of the organization were as follows:

1. To make accessible to all citizens knowledge of high standards in house building, home furnishing, and home life.

2. To encourage the building of sound, beautiful, single-family houses; and to encourage the reconditioning and remodeling of old houses.

3. To encourage thrift for home-ownership, and to spread knowledge of methods of financing the purchase or building of a home.

⁵⁷⁵ Ibid, 170.

⁵⁷⁶ At the end of Better Homes week, the house needed to be relocated from government property. It was offered to the Girl Scout National Council, and moved to a new site, where Girl Scouts learned the "skills of hostessing and housekeeping in the proper environment." Herbert Hoover's wife, Lou Henry Hoover, was president of the Girl Scouts at the and her financial contributions funded moving the house.

4. To encourage general study of the housing problem and of problems of family life, and to help each community to benefit from its study.

5. To encourage the furnishing of homes economically and in good taste.

6. To supply knowledge of the means of eliminating drudgery and waste of effort in housekeeping, and to spread information about public agencies which will assist housekeepers in their problems.

7. To encourage the establishment of courses of instruction in home economics in the public schools, and particularly the construction of home economics cottages and home-management houses where girls in our public schools and colleges may, by actual practice, learn the best methods of conducting household operations and of home-making,

8. To encourage the building of small houses by boys of vocational schools or vocational classes of public schools, and instruction in house upkeep and repair; so that the boys of the community may acquire an intelligent interest in the problems of householding and home-ownership.

9. To promote the improvement of house lots, yards, and neighborhoods, and to encourage the making of home-gardens and home-playgrounds.

10. To extend knowledge of the ways of making home-life happier, through the development of home music, home play, home arts and crafts, and the home library.

11. To encourage special study and discussion of the problem of character-building in the home. 577

The Better Homes movement spread nationally, holding annual contests of model demonstration homes in communities across the country. Louisville held its first annual Better Homes Education Exhibit May 11-18, 1924. The exhibit, conducted by the Courier Journal and a group of local merchants, presented "three homes, varying in type and price, and which will be furnished in perfect good taste, so that everyone will be able to see the beautiful home in which harmony of color has played a big part."⁵⁷⁸ The most modest home of the three was located on Eastern Parkway just east of Preston Street, while the other two homes, "the most expensive and the happy medium" were located on Caroline Avenue. The homes were loaned by the C. Robert Peter and Company, Realtors, one of the prime movers and shakers in real estate sales and development during this time period (Figure 6.6).

⁵⁷⁷ Blanche Halbert, ed. *The Better Homes Manual*. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932), 742-743.

⁵⁷⁸ "Home Beauty to be Stressed." *The Courier Journal*, April 29, 1924.



Figure 6. 6 The three homes featured in the 1924 Better Homes exhibit in Louisville.

Over 79,000 people visited the 1924 Better Homes exhibit, and Louisville embraced the movement even more fully the following year. The 1925 Better Homes exhibit attracted even more merchant partners, which meant that the houses were only one part of the exhibit. Women acted as hostesses at each of the houses, and every facet of the house – and yard – were touted, examined and exulted in media coverage. A full-page ad celebrating the upcoming exhibit ran in the Courier-Journal (Figure 6.7). The message remained the same, however; home ownership was an uplifting experience and having a beautiful home, no matter the size, was of critical importance. "The landscaping of the surroundings is a definite factor in the complete home, whether for demonstration or practical purposes."

The four homes featured in the 1925 exhibit were intended to target a range of demographics. The largest and most expensive, House Number 1, was located at 2540 Glenmary Street. Built for \$30,000, it included a garage under the house "big enough for two cars." House number two, located in the Aberdeen subdivision on Princeton Drive, was built for the cost of \$13,000 and included "an ironing board that can be instantly changed into a breakfast table."⁵⁷⁹ The Aberdeen Subdivision was developed by William F. Randolph, of the Wakefield-Davis Realty Company.

⁵⁷⁹ "Baby's Room is Show Feature." The Courier Journal, May 12, 1925. Section 1, pages 1 and 2. .

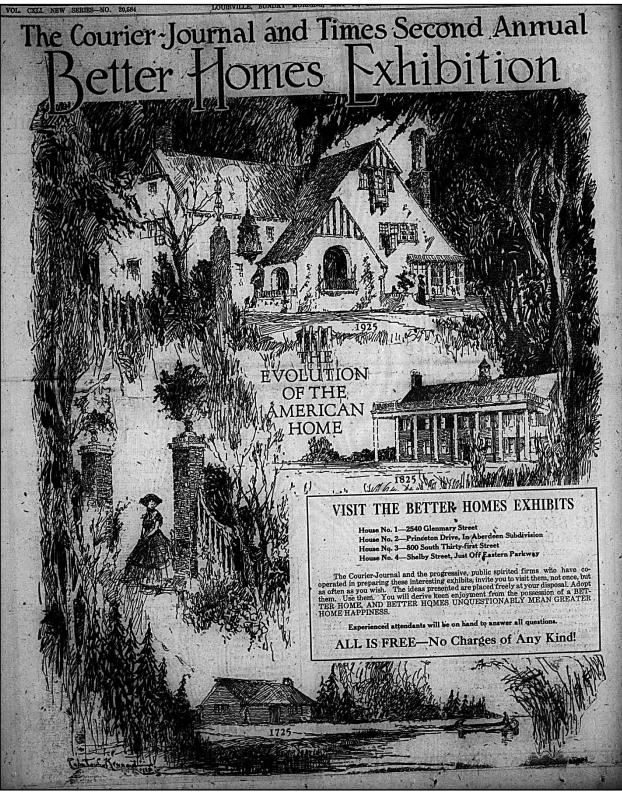


Figure 6.7 1925 ad extolling the pleasures and delights of the Better Homes exhibit.

House number three was located at 300 South 31st Street, and was built for \$6,000. The real star of the show, however, was the fourth house, which was built specifically for the Better Homes exhibit (Figure 6.8).



Figure 6.8 House number 4 in the 1925 Better Homes Exhibit.

Home No. 4 is a three-room stucco bungalow. It is the ideal type for the "newly-weds" of moderate circumstances or persons who are getting away from apartment life. The visitor enters a combination living room and dining room from the front porch. Back of this is the kitchen, and running the entire length of the house, on the other side, is the bedroom and bath. The home is built with every modern convenience, and is as complete as it is compact. The surroundings are beautiful and this unit of the exhibit will encourage many visitors of moderate circumstances to improve their surroundings and home life conditions. ⁵⁸⁰

⁵⁸⁰ "CJ Homes Show Will Open Today." *The Courier-Journal*, May 10, 1925. Section 5, page 2.

By 1930, there were over 7,279 Better Homes communities, using a demonstration home to educate the public about "aesthetics, thrift and proper housekeeping."⁵⁸¹

Although the goals of the Better Homes movement arose out of the Progressive era, and focused more on enrichment and beauty, many parallels can be drawn between the exhibits stemming from the national movement held in Louisville, and the various gimmicks and enticements of the 1950s building boom.

Annexation

Movement out of the central core of Louisville began around 1910, and set the stage for the previously discussed annexation of 1922. Although other cities across the country experienced a wave of incorporations on their borders during the 1920s and 1930s, Louisville did not. Part of this was due to Louisville's slow recovery from the Depression, and the focus of the city on public housing and blight projects.

Kentucky law states that "an unincorporated area containing between 125 and 1,000 residents may become a city through an incorporation petition to the local circuit court."⁵⁸² The Kentucky Revised Statute 81.050 outlines the proceedings to incorporate; the petition must include the following:

(a) The signatures and addresses of:

1. A number of registered voters equal to two-thirds (2/3) of the voters of

the proposed territory; or

2. A number of real property owners, the sum total of whose assessed value

of real property is equal to at least two-thirds (2/3) of the assessed value

of the real property in the proposed territory;

(b) A statement of the boundaries proposed and the number of residents;

- (c) An accurate map of the proposed territory;
- (d) A detailed statement of the reasons for incorporation including the services
- (e) A description of the existing facilities and services within the proposed
- (f) A statement of the form of government under which the city will operate if

⁵⁸¹ Ibid, 173.

⁵⁸² Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 125.

sought from the proposed city; territory; and incorporated.⁵⁸³

The advantages of incorporation range from setting a low tax rate (as compared to that of Louisville, which during the study time period was two to three times that of municipalities located outside its corporate limits); zoning powers; and the need for efficient public services supported by taxes.⁵⁸⁴

There are six classes of cities within the Commonwealth, and the sixth class city was the "primary driver of municipal organization."⁵⁸⁵ The class of city is determined by population: first-class – 100,000; second-class – 20,000; third-class – 8,000; fourth-class – 3,000; fifth class – 1,000 and sixth class – 300.⁵⁸⁶ Table 6.1 lists the current and active incorporated communities in Jefferson County; of the 81 cities on the list, well over half of them are sixth class cities.

While newspaper articles from the early 1950s bemoaned that the housing growth of that decade lagged behind that of the booming 1920s, no one could dispute the proliferation of municipalities across Jefferson County after World War II. There were only 11 municipalities in Jefferson County in 1945. During the 1950s, 29 municipalities incorporated. The next decade the number dropped only slightly to 22.⁵⁸⁷ Of this number, only 20 municipalities from the 1950s remain active, and 19 from the 1960s.⁵⁸⁸ Of the more than 80 incorporated communities tallied in Jefferson County in 1979, two-thirds of them were in the eastern third of the county.⁵⁸⁹

Louisville's view toward annexation focused on the maintaining the city tax coffers and population figures. Three of the mostly hotly disputed annexation battles relevant within the scope of this study include Shively, located in the study corridor of Dixie Highway, Buechel, located in the study corridor of Bardstown Road, and St. Matthews, one of the recommended areas of future research and survey.

After World War II, an increasingly popular view was the problems of the city were not seen as the problems of the suburbs. This can be noted in the 1956 effort to merge suburban fringe areas with the city, in order to provide fire, water, sewers and other city services. The Mallon plan, named after Louisville Cement Company Executive John Mallon, was defeated at the voting

⁵⁸³ 2011 Kentucky Revised Statutes, Chapter 81 City Classification, Boundaries, And Alternative Method Of Consolidating Governmental Services, 81.050 Proceedings To Incorporate -- Exception Upon Adoption Of Consolidated Local Government. Available online at <u>http://law.justia.com/codes/kentucky/2011/081-00/81-050</u>

⁵⁸⁴ Fifth and sixth class cities were stripped of their zoning powers by the Kentucky General Assembly in 1964 and 1966, respectively.

⁵⁸⁵ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 125.

⁵⁸⁶ John Kleber. "Cities and Towns," in in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 185.

⁵⁸⁷ John Kleber. "Suburbs," in in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 861.

⁵⁸⁸ Kentucky Secretary of State's Office.

⁵⁸⁹ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 125.

booth by two-to-one in suburban areas. Louisville residents approved it by 14,000 votes. The Louisville Times said of the failed vote, "There is a general feeling that suburban life is 'different,' and that some residents just wanted no part of City citizenship." ⁵⁹⁰

⁵⁹⁰ George H. Yater, *Two Hundred Years at the Falls of the Ohio: A History of Louisville and Jefferson County* (Louisville: The Heritage Corporation, 1979), 227.

Table 6.1 Incorporated (and active) cities in Louisville, Kentucky. Year incorporated in parentheses, followed by the class of city.

Anchorage (1878): 4th	Lyndon (1965): 4th	Woodland Hills (1961): 6th
Audubon Park (1941): 5th	Lynnview (1954): 5th	Woodlawn Park (1955): 5 th
Bancroft (1970): 6th	Manor Creek (1972): 6th	Worthington Hills (1980): 6th
Barbourmeade (1962): 5th	Maryhill Estates (1963): 6th	
Beechwood Village (1950): 5th	Meadow Vale (1967): 5th	
Bellemeade (1956): 6th	Meadowbrook Farm (1975): 6th	
Bellewood (1950): 6th	Meadowview Estates (1954): 6th	
Blue Ridge Manor (1964): 6th	Middletown (1866): 4th	
Briarwood (1957): 6th	Mockingbird Valley (prior to 1940): 6th	
Broeck Pointe (1980): 6th	Moorland (1959): 6th	
Brownsboro Farm (1966)	Murray Hill (1982): 6th	
Brownsboro Village (1940): 6th	Norbourne Estates (1950): 6th	
Cambridge (1953): 6th	Northfield (1965): 5th	
Coldstream (1983): 6th	Norwood (1975): 6th	
Creekside (1977): 6th	Old Brownsboro Place (1977): 6th	
Crossgate (1968): 6th	Parkway Village (1940): 6th	
Douglass Hills (1973): 4th	Plantation (1960): 5th	
Druid Hills (1950): 6th	Poplar Hills (1983): 6th	
Fincastle (1974): 6th	Prospect (1974): 3rd	
Forest Hills (1959): 6th	Richlawn (1948): 6th	
Glenview (1985): 6th	Riverwood (1969): 6th	
Glenview Hills (1972): 6th	Rolling Fields (1958): 6th	
Glenview Manor (1965): 6th	Rolling Hills (1966): 6th	
Goose Creek (1969): 6th	St. Matthews (1950): 4th	
Graymoor-Devondale (1987): 4th	St. Regis Park (1953): 4th	
Green Spring (1974): 6th	Seneca Gardens (1941): 6th	
Heritage Creek (1960): 5th	Shively (1938): 3rd	
Hickory Hill (1979): 6th	South Park View (1961): 6th	
Hills and Dales (1976): 6th	Spring Mill (1983): 6th	
Hollow Creek (1971): 5th	Spring Valley (1983): 6th	
Hollyvilla (1958): 6th	Strathmoor Manor (1931): 6th	
Houston Acres (1956): 6th	Strathmoor Village (1929): 6th	
Hurstbourne (1982): 4th	Sycamore (1979): 6th	
Hurstbourne Acres (1963): 5th	Ten Broeck (1979): 6th	
Indian Hills (1941): 4th	Thornhill (1976): 6th	
Jeffersontown (1797): 2nd	Watterson Park (1981): 5th	
Kingsley (1939): 6th	Wellington (1946): 6th	
Langdon Place (1977): 6th	West Buechel (1951): 5th	
Lincolnshire (1953): 6 th	Westwood (1967): 6th	

The following three case studies provide an overview of the impact of annexation in the study corridor and outside of the study corridor.



Case Study: Shively

Figure 6. 9 Map showing boundaries of Shively.

The current intersection of Seventh Street Road and Dixie Highway, in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, supported the operations of a thousand acre farm owned by Christopher William Shively and his three brothers. The area around the Shively farm became known as Shively precinct, with a church established in 1816 and the first school, Cane Run, opening around 1832.⁵⁹¹

The organization of St. Helen's Catholic Church and School in 1897, at the intersection of Dixie Highway and Crums Lane, spurred the formation of a small community of stores clustered around the church (Figure 6.10). The area adopted the moniker of the church, but could not apply "St. Helen's" to the name of their new post office in 1902 because of a pre-existing St. Helens in Lee County, Kentucky. Instead, residents opted for the name of Shively. The arrival of the interurban in 1904 further encouraged growth in the community.

⁵⁹¹ Rowena E. Bolin. "Shively," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Klber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 815.



Figure 6. 10 St. Helen's Church, which is no longer extant.

During the middle of the nineteenth century, German immigrants settled in and around Shively, developing truck farms that supplied vegetables to Louisville residents. Dixie Highway became synonymous with truck farms from the last quarter of the nineteenth century until the building boom after World War II. In addition to truck farms, distilleries defined the landscape of Dixie Highway and Shively. Although West Louisville has traditionally been the home of the whisky industry, Brown-Foreman's location along Howard Street, between Dixie Highway and 22nd Street, has been the site of distilling operations since 1883. During the golden age of distilling in Louisville, from after the Civil War to the enactment of Prohibition, distillery offices lined Main Street at Whiskey Row, while many of the distilleries' operations were located at Broadway and 26th Street.

At the end of Prohibition in 1933, Louisville distilleries lost little time in ramping up longdormant operations, and a construction wave began on Dixie Highway in Shively. A total of eight distilleries located in Shively, among them Brown-Foreman, Stitzel-Weller, Frankfort, National, Yellowstone, Schenley and Joseph Seagram. The distilleries' desire to avoid annexation by Louisville and the accompanying taxation burden led to Shively to incorporate on May 23, 1938.

The new city, a "one-half mile centered around the intersection of Seventh Street Road and Eighteenth (Dixie Highway) Street," increased its tax base by \$20 million and laid the

foundation for becoming one of the fastest-growing cities in the state during the 1950s. ⁵⁹² Town officials, buoyed by the taxes from the distilleries, boasted in 1951 that it was "the richest town in Kentucky."

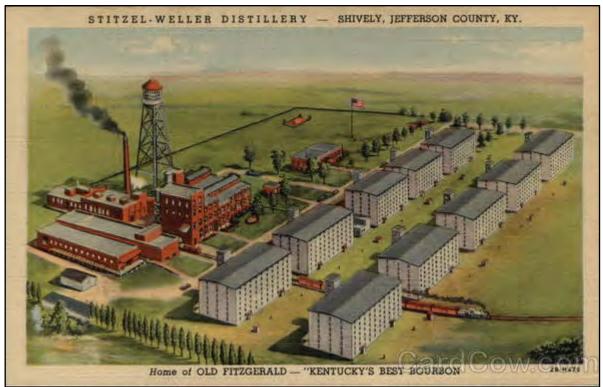


Figure 6. 11 Postcard showing Stitzel-Weller Distillery in Shively.

The Watterson Expressway (I-264) connected to Dixie Highway in Shively in the 1950s, prompting further growth along the route, just as the rates of automobile ownership and use expanded significantly. The giddiness of the mid-twentieth century faltered, however, as increasing state whisky taxes in the 1960s resulted in the closing of many distilleries.

⁵⁹² Ibid.

Case Study: Buechel

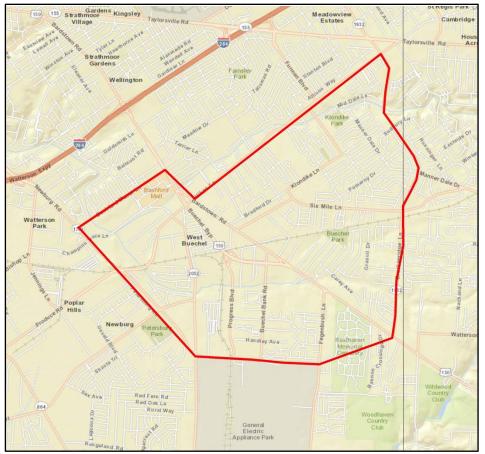


Figure 6. 12 Approximate boundaries of Buechel, which is not incorporated.

Buechel, a "mixed residential and commercial suburb," is "roughly bounded by Bashford Manor and Hikes Lane to the north, Breckenridge Lane to the east, Buechel Bank Road to the south, and Newburg Road to the west."⁵⁹³ Its boundaries as an unincorporated, populated place have remained uncertain; through the years suggested boundaries have included the area within the Buechel Water District or served by the Buechel Volunteer Fire Department.⁵⁹⁴ In the late 1800s the Buechel family, for whom the community was named, moved to the Buechel area, then known as Two-Mile House, within Two Mile Precinct.

⁵⁹³ John Kleber, "Buechel," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, ed. John Kleber, (University Press of Kentucky, Lexington: 2001), p. 140. ⁵⁹⁴ James Goble, "Buechel: The Raw Materials of a City," *Courier-Journal*, section 3, col. 1-6, p.1, 1951.

The well-established Buechel business district was promoted in a 1916 special Buechel and Bardstown Road Booster Edition of *The Jeffersonian*.⁵⁹⁵ In this issue Buechel was referred to as "a thriving suburb of Louisville with only a five cent electric car fare to the city." The issue noted that Buechel was an ideal place to build a country house, but also indicated that 200-300 houses had been built in the Buechel area along Bardstown Road within five years of the article. The issue also noted its

"flourishing bank, churches . . . splendid graded school, large establishment with planning mill, lumber, feed and coal yard, builders' supplies, hardware and farm implements store, saw mill and crate factory, ice, coal, and storage company, culvert manufacturer, produce exchange, four grocery stores, hotel, blacksmith shop, physicians, and other business and professional men."⁵⁹⁶

With the June 6, 1908 opening of the Fern Creek-Jeffersontown line of the Louisville and Interurban Electric Railroad (Figure 6.13), which operated through December 26, 1933, along the western side of Bardstown Road came development radiating outward from downtown.⁵⁹⁷



Figure 6. 13 Car on the Fern Creek Bridge at the Opening of the Fern Creek-Jeffersontown Interurban line.⁵⁹⁸

 ⁵⁹⁵ "Buechel and Bardstown Road Booster Edition," *The Jeffersonian*, vol. 9 no. 47, Thursday May 11, 1916.
 ⁵⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁹⁷ James Burnley Calvert, "Interurbans," in The Encyclopedia of Louisville, ed. John Kleber, (University Press of Kentucky, Lexington: 2001), p. 419-420.

⁵⁹⁸ Copy of photograph from the Buechel Museum in the Derby City Antique Mall

In 1951 the General Electric Company began its acquisition of land near Buechel Bank Road and Fegenbush Lane for what would become Appliance Park, the largest appliance manufacturer in the nation. Appliance Park was one of ninety-four defense projects approved for federal tax benefits which would allow them to write off 70 percent of project costs.⁵⁹⁹ General Electric had made its decision to build in Jefferson County based on the city's location near the geographic center of distribution, its large labor supply, and its superior access to water, air, and rail transportation.⁶⁰⁰ Water access, in the form of the Ohio River, was especially important to G.E. for its steel shipments.⁶⁰¹ Apparently, General Electric also saw the large farms in the Buechel area as open space suitable for assembling and converting into its "massive plant layout." General Electric further appreciated the area's "favorable business climate."⁶⁰² The Buechel site was apparently chosen over another Jefferson County site in Okolona due to its superior topography and drainage as well as the lower utility and tax rates in Buechel.⁶⁰³

Following the announcement of General Electric's decision were heated annexation attempts by the City of Louisville on a large portion of the Buechel area and the 1952 incorporation of the City of West Buechel, located outside the Buechel development surveyed as part of this study. The fierce fighting of the annexation of the Buechel area caused the proposal to be abandoned by 1955.⁶⁰⁴

⁵⁹⁹ "U.S. Willing, If G.E. Picks a Site Here: Final Decision on Jet Plant Still Uncertain," *Courier-Journal*, April 24, 1951, sec. 2, col. 8, p.1

⁶⁰⁰ Carl Kramer, "History: Two Centuries of Urban Development in Central and South Louisville," in Louisville Survey Central and South Report (City of Louisville Community Development Cabinet: 1978), p. 159.

⁶⁰¹ "G.E. Selects 700-Acre Site Near Buechel to Construct Multimillion-Dollar Plant: 16,000 Jobs Likely in 3 to 6 Years," *Courier-Journal*, May 19, 1951, sec. 1, col. 1-2, p. 12.

⁶⁰² General Electric, "GE Celebrates Its 50th Anniversary in Louisville," color brochure, 2003.

⁶⁰³ "G.E. Selects 700-Acre Site Near Buechel to Construct Multimillion-Dollar Plant," 12.

⁶⁰⁴ Kleber, "Buechel," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*, 140.

Case Study: St. Matthews



Figure 6. 14 Map showing boundaries of St. Matthews.

St. Matthews, a fourth-class city five miles east of downtown Louisville, is centered at the "intersection of Breckinridge Lane, Chenoweth Lane, Westport Road, Lexington Road, and Shelbyville Road."⁶⁰⁵ During the Euro-American settlement period, Colonel John Floyd established Floyd's Station along the middle of Beargrass Creek in 1779. The forerunners to the road network that defines the city today, stagecoach routes such as the Louisville and Lexington Turnpike and Frankfort Avenue, facilitated growth of the area.

By the middle of the nineteenth century, the crossroads was known as Gilman's Point, after Daniel Gilman, local owner of a general store and tavern. The first post office to serve the area,

⁶⁰⁵ John Kleber. "St. Matthews," in in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 779.

however, received the slightly loftier name of St. Matthew's, after a nearby Episcopal Church formed in 1839.⁶⁰⁶

During the nineteenth century, St. Matthews remained a rural hamlet, serving the needs of area farmers. Its agricultural claim to fame was potatoes; in 1910, "St. Matthews boasted of being the largest single shipping point for Irish potatoes in the United States."⁶⁰⁷ The potato farms gave way, however, as developers began to lay out lots for new homes in the late-nineteenth and early twentieth century.

Development slowed in the 1930s and 1940s, but like Shively along Dixie Highway, the returning veterans and their families, anxious to move out of cramped apartments, meant that building in the community swelled after World War II. Estimated population figures at the end of the war put the number of residents in the community at around 10,000. Thought to be the "largest unincorporated area in the nation" at the time, the growth in the area prompted Louisville to commence annexation efforts in 1946.

St. Matthews incorporated a as sixth-class city in 1950 rather than face annexation by Louisville. Louisville spent 12 years attempting to encompass some of the area into its boundaries, and was "only able to acquire the business district center along Lexington and Shelbyville Roads and Frankfort Avenue."⁶⁰⁸

⁶⁰⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁰⁷ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 95.

⁶⁰⁸ Kleber, St. Matthews, 779.

1930-1945

Planning and Zoning

James C. Murphy's work shaping the planning debate in the first two decades of the twentieth century involved other architects, builders, realtors such as C.C. Hieatt, and a number of business and civic organizations. Opposition forces to a city plan were just as numerous, and stalled any substantive progress throughout the 1920s.

Louisville's General Council created a city planning commission and enacted a temporary zoning ordinance in the summer of 1927. The city hired Harland Bartholomew and Associates of St. Louis to develop a comprehensive municipal plan in 1929.⁶⁰⁹ Three years later, the Kentucky General Assembly passed the City Planning and Zoning Act, which "provided for creation of a City Planning and Zoning Commission" in Louisville.⁶¹⁰

The existing commission in Louisville was reorganized to adhere to the statute. In the interim, the state legislature finally approved the City Planning and Zoning Act, and the Major Street Improvement Act in 1930.⁶¹¹ In 1942, all of Jefferson County came under the auspices of the newly-created Louisville and Jefferson County Planning and Zoning Commission. The expansion of regulations forced developers – those operating under the law – to consider the landscape as more than an impediment to an efficient development.

This did not end development problems in the county. Though there was now oversight over land use in the county, as in Louisville, this only meant that how the land was zoned – either commercial or residential – was supervised. Additionally, the countywide planning body dictated the location of buildings on lots (setbacks). Controversy over construction, additional zoning needs and special-use permits would continue until the late 1950s. The onslaught of the Great Depression meant that the impact of the changes secured by the City Planning and Zoning Act would not be realized until after World War II.

Model Homes

Nationally, new house construction and remodeling expenditures plummeted between 1928 and 1933, and in an effort to spark interest in a public wearied by economic crisis, the "model home" concept made its debut. Model homes "were decorated and furnished on the site of the new subdivision development."⁶¹² Cities across the county held model shows, often with competitions for the design of the home to be built after the show. The model home concept built

⁶¹¹ Ibid.

⁶⁰⁹ Kramer, 136.

⁶¹⁰ Carl E. Kramer. "The Evolution of the Residential Land Subdivision Process in Louisville, 1772-2008." In *The Register* of the Kentucky Historical Society. (Frankfort, Kentucky: The Kentucky Historical Society, Vol. 107, no 1., Winter 2009), 67.

⁶¹² Donna Neary. Mockingbird Valley Historic District. *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places*. On file at the Kentucky Heritage Council, Frankfort, KY. Section8, page 6. Listed 2006.

on the Better Homes Exhibits held during the 1920s, but more emphasis was placed on design rather than the elevation of self through a beautiful home and landscaping.

Louisville's first Home Show was held in 1929, and speakers, displays and demonstrations beckoned to the public (Figure 6.15). Booths hawking lighting, wallpaper and paint appealed to homemakers, while a design competition for architects produced the model home that highlighted the desirable features of the modern home. Architect W. S. Arrasmith won the design in 1929, while Stratton Hammond took top honors in the 1930 show.



Figure 6. 15 Ad for the 1930 Louisville Home Show.

The World Fairs of the 1930s inspired many model home exhibits, and foreshadowed some of the on-going work toward prefabricated homes. The 1933 Chicago World's Fair featured an exhibit entitled the Homes of Tomorrow Exhibition. The theme of the fair, "Century of Progress," guided the construction of the dozen homes, which emphasized new construction techniques, modern home appliances and innovative materials.

The World's Fair of 1939, held in New York, featured the "Town of Tomorrow" with 15 singlefamily model homes on display (Figure 6.16). Examples included the "House of Plywood," the "Pittsburgh Glass House," and the "Triple Insulated House." Although those houses suggest a continued emphasis on innovative materials, some of the houses tended to be less experimental and more practical. The "Small House of Brick," for example, was designed for "simplified living for the family with a limited budget for their home."⁶¹³ The house description also referenced the FHA and lending requirements.

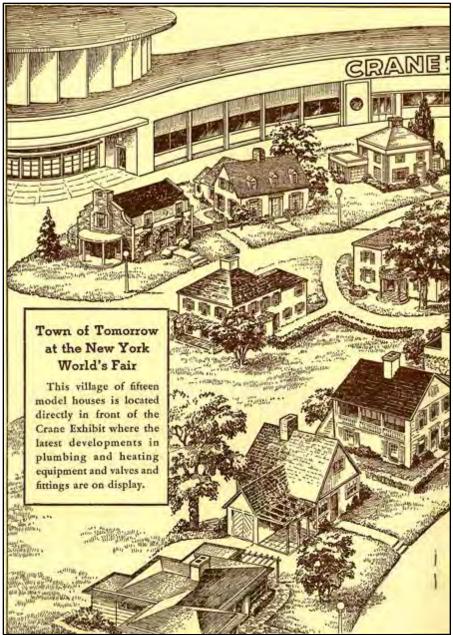


Figure 6. 16 Brochure from the 1939 World's Fair showing the Town of Tomorrow.⁶¹⁴

⁶¹³ http://www.1939nyworldsfair.com/worlds_fair/wf_tour/town_tomorrow/House-05.htm

⁶¹⁴http://www.1939nyworldsfair.com/univ_lg_window.aspx?pageTitle=Crane%20Plumbing%20and%20Heating%2 0%20in%20the%20Town%20of%20Tomorrow&imgType=p&numImg=20&imgNum=10&retURL=worlds_fair/wf

Post-War Housing Crisis

No subdivisions were platted in Louisville from 1931 to 1934. The creation of the Federal Housing Administration in 1934 encouraged a scattering of development in the late 1930s, but a full-scale revitalization of the housing market would not transpire until after the war.

The market clamored for revitalization, because housing shortages in the Falls City were acute. Louisville already suffered from a housing shortage on the eve of World War II, both in terms of real estate for sale and real estate for rent.⁶¹⁵ A 1941 survey of the real estate advertisements in the Courier-Journal showed an alarming trend. In 1922, there were 30,000 ads placed annually for rentals, and that number continued to climb through the Great Depression, reaching a peak of 87,385 rental ads placed in 1938. A decline set in, with only 58,798 real estate ads listed in the Courier-Journal in 1940. The first six months of 1941, however, underlined the gravity of the housing crisis, with only 14,353 real estate rental ads placed, half the number in the same period of time in 1940.⁶¹⁶

It is estimated that there were only 6,000 dwelling units available for renters in Louisville in the fall of 1941. The number of houses for sale was woefully inadequate as well. The boom year of 1926, when 60 subdivisions were platted in Jefferson County, saw 68,301 real estate for sale ads placed in the *Courier-Journal*. As the economy soured, the volume of ads decreased, bottoming out at 19,530 ads annually in 1933. Throughout the rest of the decade, the number of ads for real estate for sale increased, with an estimated total for 1941 put at 60,338.⁶¹⁷ Despite the seemingly positive outlook for the sale of homes right before the war, the majority of lower-income, working-class and middle-class residents of Louisville were renters.

A 1945 report by the National Housing Agency, produced in tandem with the Louisville Area Development Association, foreshadowed the dramatic building-out in the post-war years. The report noted that in order to keep up with population increases, Louisville would need to produce at least 5,100 dwellings annually. The combined effects of a population surge after World War II, government incentive programs and the lack of suitable extant housing meant that Louisville was poised for either a crisis or a growth spurt of unprecedented proportions. As one real estate professional commented in 1942, "the real estate and home-selling business in Louisville has always been either a feast or a famine."

_tour/town_tomorrow/crane/crane&retUrlExt=aspx&retName=Crane%20Plumbing%20and%20Heating&imgName =worlds_fair/wf_tour/town_tomorrow/crane/images/large/crane-&contributor=Randy%20Richter

⁶¹⁵ The rental units include houses, apartments and businesses, but excluded rooms for rent.

⁶¹⁶ Orville S. Wesje. "C-J Ads Tell Housing Story." *The Courier-Journal*. August 24, 1941.

⁶¹⁷ Ibid.

⁶¹⁸ John Eschrich. "Housing Situation Here is the Offspring of an Economic Mismarriage." *The Courier-Journal*. January 1946.

The Post-War Suburbs, 1945-1970

"For many Americans, life in the postwar suburbs represented the fulfillment of home ownership and material well-being. Postwar suburbs – the result of one of the largest building booms in American history – represented a new and distinctive stage in the succession of suburban neighborhood types. They, furthermore, created an almost seamless suburban landscape in the extensive territory they occupied, the manner in which large numbers of home were rapidly mass-produced, and the disperse pattern of settlement made possible by the construction of modern freeways."⁶¹⁹

Prior to World War II, most homes in the United States were built by individual owners, or by contractors who might build five homes annually. Two-thirds of all residential buildings were constructed in this fashion, which would be turned on its head by the end of the 1950s. Large developers, handling all aspects of the residential building process, began to dominate the industry. Large subdivisions like Highgate Springs (for more discussion of this resource, see Chapter 8, page 433) with 1,200 lots for single-family homes, or Buechel Terrace (for more discussion of this resource, see Chapter 8, page 371), with its over 400 parcels, relied on a one-stop-fits-all home-buying strategy, and promoted their product heavily. The nature of real-estate advertising changed as well, another theme of the post-war period. Industrial suburbanization drew Louisvillians out of the city core, and the automobile made it possible for them to get "out" of Louisville and into the "country."

It wasn't just the construction industry that was changing – the American consumer was changing as well. The economic constraints stemming from the war gradually lifted, and Americans wanted to own their own homes, fill those homes with consumer goods, and pursue the American dream. The GI Bill, certain structures of the tax code and the emphasis on the nuclear family all worked together to raise consumer expectations.

Louisville shaped and reshaped planning and zoning regulations in the post-war period; this, along with government incentives and regulations, led to a proliferation of affordable homes in the study area – but affordable homes weren't always welcomed by their neighbors. The increasingly complexity of subdivision regulations from the mid-1950s onward squeezed many non-professional developers out of the real-estate boom. This unprecedented housing boom did not, however, include overtures toward integration, which would be exacerbated during the 1960s and 1970s, when Urban Renewal efforts further eroded areas where African Americans could live.

⁶¹⁹ Ames and McClelland, 3.

Wildcatting and other Zoning Issues

Although official recordation of plats continued to grow during the late 1940s and through the 1950s, Louisville also dealt with a plague of "wildcatting." Coined by a term in the Kentucky subdivision act, the subdivision lots associated with wildcatting did not receive "prior approval of the Planning and Zoning Commission."⁶²⁰ In a nine-year period, 1944-1953, 245 subdivisions were officially platted in Jefferson County. These duly-recorded subdivisions contained 11,700 lots. Wildcatted subdivisions during the same time period accounted for 491 subdivisions with 8,763 lots.⁶²¹ The often-poor quality of roads and other improvements in these subdivisions and demands for local services from their residents led to tension between government officials and developers. The state legislature outlawed wildcatting in 1954.⁶²²

By 1949, it was becoming apparent that a new trend in subdivision development was not fleeting, but was reshaping the entire county. Zoning changes and requests for the year were overwhelmingly located outside of the city limits, and along the seven main highways leading out of Louisville. Of the 162 cases heard by the Planning and Zoning Commission, 117 cases dealt with "proposed zoning changes, subdivisions or special-use proposals outside the city."⁶²³ The majority of those requests were along Dixie Highway, which was followed by Shelbyville Road, Preston Highway and Bardstown Road.

The impact of suburbanization was reshaping Jefferson County, in a manner not unlike that of other cities across the country. It "manifested itself in a sweeping arc of residential, commercial, and industrial development that stretches outward from the corporate limit of Louisville from its northeastern to its southeastern intersections with the Ohio River. The majority of suburbanites located in new subdivisions that mushroomed in the vicinity of once-tiny unincorporated hamlets along the major radials – Pleasure Ridge Park, at the intersection of Dixie Highway, Greenwood Road, and St. Andrews Church Road; Valley Station, further south at the junction of Dixie Highway and Valley Station Road; Okolona, at Preston Highway and the Outer Loop; Buechel, at Bardstown Road and Six Mile Lane; Fern Creek, at the intersection of Bardstown Road and Fern Creek Road; and St. Matthews, along Frankfort Avenue and Shelbyville Road at Chenoweth Lane."⁶²⁴

Despite a national slowdown, the real estate market in Louisville remained strong in the first few years of the 1950s. Louisville, according to market officials in 1952, is "just plain different."⁶²⁵ The Kentucky Director of the Federal Housing Administration echoed the thoughts of real estate market watchers, stating that "our business is way up over last year. We had 445 applications in

⁶²⁰ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, in the Louisville Survey East Report, 1979, page 115.

⁶²¹ Ibid.

⁶²² Ibid

⁶²³ Grady Clay. Zoning Docket Reflects Growth Outside City Limits." *The Courier-Journal*. December 25, 1949. Section 3, page 7.

⁶²⁴ Carl Kramer. History of Louisville Central and South. Page 191

⁶²⁵ Grady Clay. "Despite Gloomy Reports Elsewhere, the Home Market Here Seems Strong." *The Courier-Journal*. September 7, 1952, Section 3, page 19.

August, compared with 213 in August 1951. Louisville in having no boom, but house-building and sales are on a very sound basis right now."⁶²⁶ Advertising, too, reflected the steady pace of Louisville's real estate market. Fourteen percent more real estate ads were published in the Courier-Journal during the first seven months of 1952, as compared to the same time span in 1951.

Realtors in 1951 reported a heavy demand for houses in the Buechel area – especially those under \$11,000. One realtor more specifically stated that there was an "unusually strong market for two-bedroom houses selling for \$8-9,000."⁶²⁷ At least two subdivisions examined as part of the study fall into this category – Buechel Terrace and Raleigh Subdivision (see Chapter 8, page 397).

Though construction of new homes continued at a satisfactory pace in Jefferson County, development problems continued. The planning regulations, as stated earlier, meant that land use in the county was more strictly enforced. Lot size and setback requirements began to change the way developers platted new subdivisions. But issues like sewage disposal, drainage, traffic congestion and construction quality fanned the flames of resentment among builders and developers and planners. One subdivision, Slyvania, located in southwestern Jefferson County, typified many of these problems plaguing planner and residents alike in the early 1950s.

The Result of No Planning: Slyvania



Figure 6. 17 LOJIC map showing Slyvania.

⁶²⁶ Ibid.

⁶²⁷ "Proposed Plant Reported Causing Heavy Demand for Houses Here: Market Is Strong Under \$11,000," *Courier-Journal*, May 10, 1951, sec. 1, col. 4, p. 14.

In 1924, a subdivision with the evocative name of Slyvania was platted (Figures 6.17 and 6.18). A second section was platted in 1925. Located between the Ohio River and Dixie Highway on the east and west, and by Hunter's Trace and Pleasure Ridge Park to the north and south, the subdivision was developed by McAlister and Company. Though likely idyllically rural or rustic in the 1920s, the 345 lots that covered Section 1, which was around 147 acres, was anything but ideal in 1952.

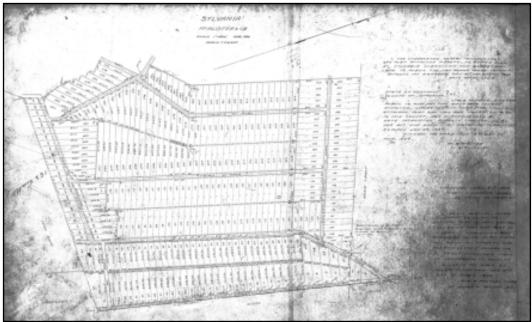


Figure 6. 18 1924 plat of Section 1 of Slyvania.

That year, the City-County Health Department conducted a review of sanitary conditions in the development. Their finds included not only a subdivision with deplorable roads, but also "99 unprotected wells, 46 homes with no water, 130 homes with open-pit privies and 179 homes with infestations of rats."⁶²⁸ Only one road (Sylvania Road) in the development had been dedicated to county use, while the remaining six roads had to be maintained by the residents.

During 1953, some of the sanitary issues had been resolved, but the quality of the dwellings continued to be a sore point, both with county officials and residents upset by the negative publicity. The Director of the City-County Planning Commission, William Watts explained that

⁶²⁸ Grady Clay. "Sylvania Has Trees – and Shacks and Bad Privies." *The Courier-Journal*. June 28, 1953. Section 1, page 12.

there was no legal recourse for the "shacks," essentially box-frame structures on piers, clad in tarpaper. The only building restrictions for the subdivision included the stipulation that all homes cost at least \$2,000. Some of the lots in Sylvania were purportedly "sold for down payments to people who built shacks on them, but could not finish paying for the lots. The property would then be reclaimed and sold to someone else."⁶²⁹

⁶²⁹ Ibid.

New Regulations

In the second half of the 1950s, development in southwestern Jefferson County outpaced the eastern part of the county by "something like three to two."⁶³⁰ The number of new subdivisions platted in the Dixie Highway Corridor in the first half of the decade seem to suggest that the numbers were already disproportionate. In May 1954, 500 lots in the Valley Gardens subdivision in the Dixie Highway Corridor sold in two days. Described as a "new subdivision designed to appeal to former GI's" Valley Gardens offered two and three bedroom homes. The two-bedroom homes featured "expansion attics: and were priced to qualified veterans at \$9,400."⁶³¹

The Planning and Zoning Commission hired the St. Louis firm of Harland Bartholomew and Associates again in 1954 to study the long-term planning needs of Louisville and Jefferson County. A new comprehensive plan developed by the firm, as well as a new zoning ordinance and subdivision regulations, was presented in 1957 and adopted in 1958. Some 57 years after James C. Murphy began advocating for planning and regulatory tools in Louisville, the same set of subdivision design and zoning standards applied to both Louisville and Jefferson County.

The zoning and subdivision regulations which sought to ensure a cohesive standard of treatment across the county improved the infrastructure problems faced by many homeowners in wildcatted subdivisions. It also, however, led to further residential segregation in Jefferson County, both by race and socioeconomic status. Additionally, existing subdivisions highlighted the double set of standards between Louisville and incorporated communities, and the unincorporated areas of Jefferson County.

The new regulations necessitated larger lots, which drove land costs up, and resulted in larger and more expensive homes. Consequently, "most new housing went to middle and upper income families while poorer families, frequently black, were left with older homes on smaller lots in the central city. This has been especially true in eastern Louisville, where the housing market historically had been geared for the middle and upper middle classes."⁶³² The one caveat to this trend, however, is developments like Buechel Terrace, which through the use of prefabricated homes, catered to a working class clientele that may have otherwise not been able to afford some of the other, more traditional suburban developments.

Federal Housing Administration

The impact of the Federal Housing Administration on Louisville cannot be overstated, not only through their financing programs, but also their influence on residential housing construction and design. Getting a development approved by the FHA was not an easy task; developers would submit painstakingly drawn and considered plans, only to have them returned, perhaps multiple times, with changes and further directions.

⁶³⁰ Louisville Magazine. "Growing Suburbia." March 20, 1957. Volume 8, No 3, Page 8

⁶³¹ Ibid.

⁶³² Kramer, *History of Eastern Louisville*, 115.

The FHA's publications made standards and recommended designs available to developers. The series of circulars, including *Subdivision Development*, *Planning Neighborhoods for Small Houses*, *Planning Profitable Neighborhoods* and *Successful Subdivisions* outlined seven minimum requirements for new subdivisions funded by the FHA:

- 1. Location exhibiting a healthy and active demand for homes.
- 2. Location possessing a suitable site in terms of topography, soil condition, tree cover, and absence of hazards such as flood, fog, smoke, obnoxious odors, etc.
- 3. Accessibility by means of public transportation (streetcars and buses) and adequate highways to schools, employment, and shopping centers.
- 4. Installation of appropriate utilities and street improvements (meeting city or county specifications), and carefully related to needs of the development.
- 5. Compliance with city, county or regional plans and regulations, particularly local zoning and subdivisions regulations to ensure that the neighborhood will become stable (and real estate as well).
- 6. Protection of values through "appropriate" deed restrictions (including setbacks, lot sizes, minimum costs of construction).
- 7. Guarantee of a sound financial set up, whereby subdividers were financially able to carry through their sales and development program, and where taxes and assessments were in line with the type of development contemplated and likely to remain stable.

In addition to complying with local ordinances and financing plans, the FHA released "a set of desirable standards, which, although not strict requirements, were additional factors that influenced the approval of a project."⁶³³ These standards included:

- Careful adaptation of subdivision layout to topography and natural features
- Adjustment of street plan and streets widths and grades to best meet the traffic needs
- Elimination of sharp corners and dangerous intersections
- Long blocks that eliminated unnecessary streets
- Carefully studied lot plan with generous and well-shaped house lots
- Parks and playgrounds
- Establishment of community organizations of property owners
- Incorporation of features that add to the privacy and attractiveness of the community.⁶³⁴

Providing a Maximum Accommodation within a Minimum of Means⁶³⁵

The FHA released five basic house types in 1936, all including two bedrooms, kitchen, living room and one full bathroom. *Planning Small Houses* included elevations and floor plans, and "each type was devoid of nonessential spaces, picturesque features, and unnecessary items that would add to their costs. The smallest house, Type A, was only 534 square feet, and the building

⁶³³ Ames and McClelland, 49.

⁶³⁴ Ibid.

⁶³⁵ Ibid, 61.

industry coined it the "FHA minimum house." The house types did not allow much room for variation or flexibility, as builders were limited to changes in building material, stylistic ornamentation or placement on the lot to achieve some diversity.⁶³⁶

In its 1940 edition of *Planning Small Houses*, the FHA chose a more flexible system that allowed for "expandability, standardization and variability."⁶³⁷ More architectural details were permitted, resulting in different roof types, gables, porches, windows and cladding materials. Basements were allowed, as were chimneys and fireplaces. Larger, more expansive house designs were highlighted, some with central-passage or side-passage plans, with three or four bedrooms, and attached garages.

The 1940 revisions laid the groundwork for the tract house of the 1950s. The FHA principles "provided instructions for grouping similarly designed houses in cul-de-sacs and along streetscapes by varying the elements of exterior design in ways that avoided repetition and gave the neighborhood interesting and pleasing character, for example, by varying the placement of each houses on its lot and introducing a variety of wall materials and roof types."⁶³⁸ The FHA's literature, requirements and guidelines fostered the growing influence of the operative builder, who quickly realized that large-scale development was highly efficient and financially advantageous.

Dixie Gardens, one of the prototype subdivisions examined as part of this study (Chapter 8, page 423), was an FHA-approved development in the Dixie Highway Corridor (Figure 6.19). The subdivision exemplifies many of the desirable standards advocated by the FHA for overall layout of a development, as well as the house plans that allowed a "minimum" house to be personalized yet remain efficient and affordable for the burgeoning ranks of new homeowners.

⁶³⁶ Ames and McClelland, 61.

⁶³⁷ Ibid, 62.

⁶³⁸ Ibid.

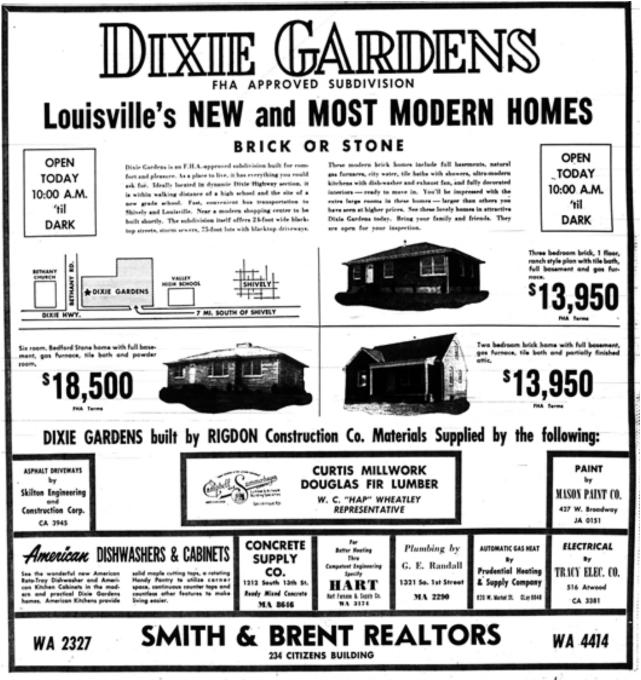


Figure 6. 19 Circa 1953 ad in the Courier-Journal for Dixie Gardens.

Perceptions of Quality

Though the transformation of truck-farms along Dixie Highway and larger parcels along Bardstown Road continued at a furious pace throughout the 1950s, a subtle distinction was being drawn between the "new" developments and previously constructed subdivisions, particularly in the Bardstown Road Corridor.

In the spring of 1953, builder-developers Delbert and Duncan Paschal purchased 8.6 acres on Schuff Lane for \$27,500. The Paschals christened their new purchase Sunset Hill and "drew up plans to cut it into 22 lots, each with about 100 feet of frontage."⁶³⁹ Sunset Hill would serve as the brother's stepping stone toward a higher-quality type of development, with larger homes and lots, and accompanying higher prices. The homes were intended to be sold for around \$28,000 to \$30,000, but opposition from the surrounding neighborhoods presented a new dilemma to the Planning and Zoning Commission – not the plans and specifications of the planned development, but the "quality" of that development.

At a time when home-building was breaking all records in Louisville and Jefferson County, and farmland sprouted up rows of single-family homes seemingly every other week, backlash from existing neighborhoods highlight the conflict between the new age of homebuilding - a working and middle-class phenomenon, for the most part – and the more well-established neighborhoods from the preceding decades. The battle over Sunset Hill also illustrates the divide between the new neighborhoods being developed outside of the Watterson along Bardstown Road, and the type of development traditionally built along that corridor inside the Watterson.

Advertising

An examination of ads in the Courier-Journal during the study period reveals a nuanced evolution almost as distinct as that of the house types and styles that made up the residential housing developments being hawked. Between 1920 and 1970, newspapers were the primary channel for home, lot and subdivision advertising. The way in which newspaper advertising was designed, however, changed greatly after World War II. Figure 6.20 illustrates the typical pre-World War II approach to real estate classifieds.

In the 1920s, if advertisements for subdivisions were not limited to simple text, then perhaps the ad would show a plat, with various platitudes pertaining to the aesthetic qualities of the development, as well as the soundness of the investment. This was more common with upper middle-class developments. Builder-developer C.C. Hieatt utilized such an approach in his ad for Cherokee Gardens (Figure 6.21). The majority of advertisements during the 1920-1950 time period were confined to the classifieds section of the newspaper.

⁶³⁹ Ibid.

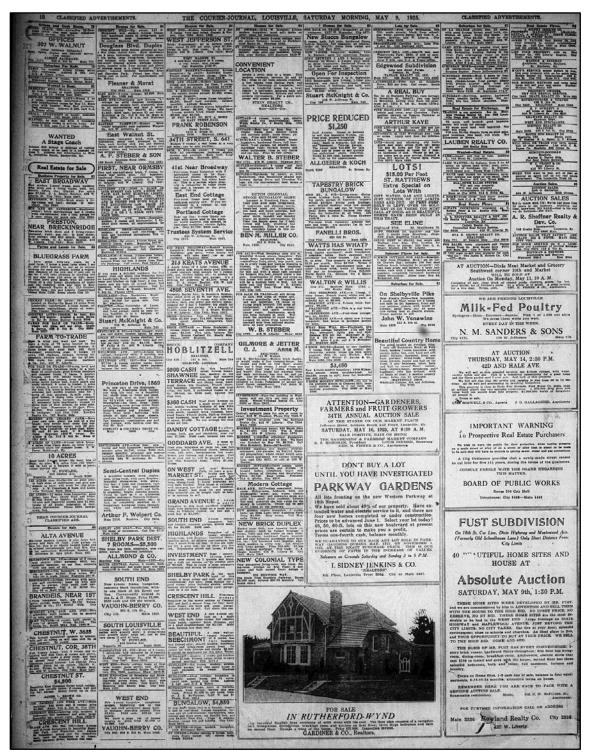


Figure 6. 20 May 9, 1925 edition of the Courier-Journal, showing real estate classifieds.



Figure 6. 21 *Ad from the February 23, 1930 edition of the Courier-Journal.*

While advertisements from the first two decades of the twentieth century proclaimed the proximity of a development to a streetcar stop, the subdivisions of the 1950s were close to shopping centers, schools, churches and bus. These advertisements also featured eye-catching graphics, with photographs or drawings of model homes, or happy couples and families rejoicing

over their newly purchased home. More importantly, for the first time many newspapers (the Courier-Journal included) dedicated an entire section to the business of real estate, which tended to be new home construction.



Figure 6. 22 Circa 1952 ad for Lafayette Homes, Inc.

Advertisements also tended to reflect the tenor of the location of the development – or perhaps the ambiance the developer was striving to promote. Take, for example, the 1952 ad for homes in St. Matthew's Manor (Figure 6.23), a subdivision platted in 1950 and developed by Garrene Realty and Development Company. St. Matthew's Manor is adjacent to Eastmoor Acres, which is discussed in Chapter 8, page 454. Both developments are gridiron-type with cul-de-sacs.The

ad contains much of the same information as the ad shown in Figure 6.22 for Lafayette Homes. Content aside, the Garrene Realty ad (which was published at the same time) lacks the overtures to veterans or the statements regarding the affordability of the featured home. The ad appears to deliberately take an understated tone, which is perhaps in keeping with its location in St. Matthews, and the fact that the home is more expensive, at \$14,750. Even the graphics highlight the different advertising campaigns, and likely, the different types of homeowners the ad was seeking to reach.



Figure 6. 23 Circa 1952 ad for St. Matthews Manor.

Loss of Farmland and Historic Homes

"Fortunately, Jefferson County is blessed with almost unlimited potential subdivision land. There are acres upon acres of picturesque countryside extending in most every direction. Except for the river on the west and north, no obstacles such as mountains or valleys confront the Jefferson County developer."640

Although the loss of farmland to development is an issue dear to preservationists today, the transition from agricultural use to suburban subdivision was also of concern during the post-war period. In 1954, "farmland as a crop" was valued more highly than Jefferson County's tobacco output for the year. ⁶⁴¹ Between 1950 and 1954, the county lost almost 1,000 farms, with the remaining farms becoming larger. Farmers either sold their land to developers, or sold off their road frontage, resulting in "stringtown subdivisions," with "open vistas now hidden behind long, long rows of new homes fronting on rural roads."642

Many nineteenth century farmhouses were demolished; still others remained, while their pastoral landscape shrank around them. Little is known about the fate of many, like the buildings seen in Figure 6.24 on Dixie Highway. Described as a log home in a 1954 newspaper article, the complex was like demolished to make way for a new subdivision, Kellsbury Acres (see Chapter 8, page 403).

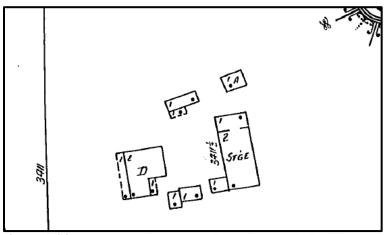


Figure 6. 24 Section from the 1951 Sanborn showing the buildings that predated the development of the subdivision. .

⁶⁴⁰ Paul F. Semonin, Jr. "Vacant Areas Give Way Fast to New Homes." *The Courier-Journal*. May 16, 1954. Section 6, page 12.

⁶⁴¹ Grady Clay. "Farmland is Turning into Jefferson County's Top 'Crop.' "The Courier Journal. October 30, 1955, Section 4, page 19. ⁶⁴² Ibid.

Incorporation of the original house into the new development occurred; "a rundown old farmhouse often can be remodeled to become an important asset to new subdivisions. Ditto old springhouses, cemeteries and other landmarks."⁶⁴³ The post-war approach to many of these existing historic homes was to incorporate the home into the new residential development. Often the home was simply sold off as another lot, and the streets of the new suburban development laid out around it. That was the case of most of the houses noted within the study corridor. Youngland, the historic nineteenth century home on Dixie Highway (Figure 6.27), was divided into apartments at some point, and is still a multi-family dwelling. Many of these original houses are unnoted by preservation professionals, sequestered as they within their current suburban environment.

Several of the subdivisions included in this study included the original farmhouse, including Valley View Subdivision (Figure 6.25) and Hoock Subdivision (Figure 6.26), and Sunnydale (Figure 6.30). Other subdivisions include more than one older house, or are near the original house, including Wellingmoor (Figure 6.27) and Algonquin Place (Figure 6.29).

⁶⁴³ Ibid.



Figure 6. 25 6411 North Drive in the Valley View Subdivision.



Figure 6. 26 2833 Tremont Drive in the Hoock Subdivision.



Figure 6. 27 2612 Goldsmith Lane, near the Wellingmoor Subdivision.



Figure 6. 28 Youngland, on Dixie Highway, near the Woodmere Subdivision.



Figure 6. 29 1720 South 25th Street, in the Algonquin Place development.



Figure 6. 30 2117 Allston, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.

New Materials and the Reinvention of Old Ones

Revolutions in the application and manipulation of traditional building materials – wood, brick and stone – provide one of the structural frameworks for understanding twentieth century development. Kentucky's historic housing stock makes ample use of these materials; beginning in 1900, experimentation with these materials, combined with the effect of two World Wars, led to a brave new world of building products. "New" versions of concrete, metal, wood and masonry provided an exciting palette for the largest housing boom in Jefferson County's history.

The impact of World War II on the building and construction industries cannot be overstated. Wartime shortages forced contractors to tweak typical building practices. Traditional building supplies, including iron, steel, wood, rubber and aluminum led to new and innovative materials as well as some construction shortcuts. As the national economy strengthened after World War II, construction expenditures grew – between 1946 and 1949, they increased almost every year.⁶⁴⁴

Concrete

Poured concrete and concrete block are common materials in the study area, primarily as foundations. Nearly 75 percent of all concrete blocks manufactured prior to 1915 were used for foundation walls, basement walls or partition walls.⁶⁴⁵ Use of concrete block soared nationally during the first two decades of the twentieth century, due to the production of an "improved and reliable Portland cement."⁶⁴⁶ Industrial organization also aided the availability of the product; by 1930 the various sizes of concrete blocks from the earlier decades coalesced into the 8-by-8-by-16-inch unit, the new standard.

Promotional materials, including trade journals and catalogues, helped introduce concrete blocks to home-building Americans, just as Sears Roebuck publicized house styles and forms. The rates of production climbed, from 50 million concrete blocks in 1919 to 387 million in 1930. The spike in housing construction after World War II resulted in the production of 1.6 billion concrete blocks in 1951.⁶⁴⁷

In an effort to address the issues of weight, lightweight aggregates were added; in 1917 cinder blocks were one of the first to be patented. Additional aggregate materials were added to the manufacturing process during the 1930s and 1940s. These different materials then marketed and promoted their products as the latest and greatest in concrete block technology. In 1930, a blast furnace slag treated with water, marketed as Pottsco, and then later as Celocrete, was introduced (Figure 6.31).

 ⁶⁴⁴ Michael A. Tomlan. "Building Modern America: An Era of Standardization and Experimentation," in *Twentieth Century Building Materials*, ed . Thomas C. Jester. (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1995), 42
 ⁶⁴⁵ Pamela H. Simpson, Harry J. Hunderman and Deborah Slaton. "Concrete Block," in *Twentieth Century Building*

⁶⁴⁵ Pamela H. Simpson, Harry J. Hunderman and Deborah Slaton. "Concrete Block," in *Twentieth Century Building Materials*, ed . Thomas C. Jester. (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1995),83.

⁶⁴⁶ Ibid, 80.

⁶⁴⁷ Ibid, 82.

Concrete blocks were "faced" or manufactured to have an ornamental facade, in many different ways, including ashlar faced blocks, as well as a treatment that imitated brick and cobblestones. Rockfaced concrete blocks, made to look like quarried stone, were by far the most popular. The rockface setting was "standard on all machines in the period 1900-1930."⁶⁴⁸ Most of these blocks were used for foundations.



Figure 6. 31 Ad for Celocrete from the Courier-Journal.

⁶⁴⁸ Ibid, 83.

Perma-Stone

Simulated masonry, such as Perma-Stone, "played a large role in the changing aesthetics of the American public beginning in the 1930s. The ease of manufacturing of the material, as well as its application – it could be applied as a facing material – ensured its widespread adoption. The brand Perma-Stone, based in Columbus, Ohio is the best known of simulated masonry products. Perma-Stone, a "molded wall facing made of aggregates, cement, crushed quartz, mineral colors and metallic hardeners, was suitable both for new construction and renovation."⁶⁴⁹ Louisville had its own Perma-Stone franchise on Preston Highway (Figure 6.32). Other companies producing simulated stone during the period included Formstone, developed by the Lasting Products Company of Baltimore, Maryland, in 1937.



Figure 6. 32 Ad for Perma-Stone from the Courier-Journal.

⁶⁴⁹ Ann Milkovich McKee. "Simulated Masonry," in in *Twentieth Century Building Materials*, ed. Thomas C. Jester. (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1995), 175.

Although Perma-Stone's longevity and its inappropriate application to historic structures causes scholars today no small amount of distress, recalling the context of the product is quite important. Perma-Stone "provided an inexpensive way for middle-class Americans to enjoy the prestige of a 'stone' house."⁶⁵⁰ The public embraced the material, drawing on social perceptions of stone as "signifying wealth, stability and grandeur," as well as the maintenance, and efficiency claims as proclaimed in the ad in Figure 6.32.

Drywall and Aluminum

At the end of the War, brick and stone continued in short supply, but the developments of wartime including wallboard and extruded aluminum, made their presence felt in post-war housing developments. The prefabricated sheets of wallboard, now more commonly known as drywall, were easier to install, and traditional plasterers found demand for their craft shrinking. Although many homes built in the late 1940s and throughout the 1950s still featured interior plaster walls, most other building types used only gypsum. Drywall's foray into residential housing developments was cemented in the 1960s.

Other treatments of wood, including plywood, revolutionized building in the post-war suburbs with the prefabricated house. More discussion of plywood and its application in the prefabrication industry can be found in this chapter on page 208.

War time development reshaped the practical application of aluminum in the residential housing market. Although manufactured in the 1920s and 1930s, it was more costly than steel and its use was limited to a trim or as an alloy. Increased demand for aircraft manufacture during World War II led to the "invention of sandwiched panels" of aluminum, resulting in a surplus of the material at war's end. Market development went into overdrive, with manufacturers seeking new markets for the material, and eventually made inroads in the construction industry.⁶⁵¹ Extruded sections of aluminum could be used for windows, doors, and most popularly, exterior siding. Scores of dwellings clad in wooden weatherboards received an application of aluminum siding, touted, of course, as maintenance and worry-free.

⁶⁵⁰ Ibid, 177.

⁶⁵¹ Tomlan, 42.

Architecture

This section will discuss the different types of architectural styles and types in the study area. Style is a useful indicator in dating and classifying historic resources, but it is only one component in understanding the spaces that people construct and use. Given the compacted nature of the time period of the study, no distinction has been made in this section between *type* and *style*, except when those two terms are interchangeable, such as a ranch type or the ranch style.

Also, the nature of twentieth-century residential development means that the architectural styles employed tended to be nationally popular revival and Craftsman styles, at least until World War II and the spreading influence of the ranch house. Prior to 1950, there is a marked preference for historical revival houses in the two study corridors; the middle class in Louisville displayed an overwhelming affinity for "Colonial, English, Tudor and Dutch Revival homes during the years before World War II."⁶⁵²

The post-war period caused some architectural devotees no small amount of pain. In a 1953 article in the *Courier-Journal*, Grady Clay mused about the fact that for "a long time, it has been possible for a builder to design, build, and sell houses that lacked any architectural distinction – or even many of the essential details of the well-planned house."⁶⁵³ A few suburban developments of the period utilized the services of an architect; the houses in Highgate Springs were designed by T.W. Leake of Baton Rouge, who worked for the Crawford Corporation and St. Matthews architect E. W. Augustus designed the houses in Lynnview (for more discussion of these developments, see Chapter 8, pages 434 and 464).⁶⁵⁴ But most of the homes marketed toward the lower-and-middle class homeowner in Louisville were not architect-designed, and were instead adaptations of popular styles – minimal forms that could be easily and efficiently built.

In her master's project, *Being Modern in a Conservative Context, the Residential Innovations of Norman Sweet, 1947-1960,* Amelia Alice Armstrong utilized both field work results and extensive archival research to compile types of post-war housing in Jefferson County (Table 6.2). This is a very useful overview of the basic types constructed in Louisville after World War II to meet the demand of would-be homeowners.

Table 6.3 illustrates the survey results from the intensively documented subdivisions in the Dixie Highway and Bardstown Road Corridors. Cape Cod houses were the most common, but that number is somewhat skewed by the overwhelming distribution of that type in the Algonquin Place Subdivision. The second most common type documented was the ranch house, and third, the prefabricated Gunnison house. Again, the number of Gunnisons is somewhat misleading,

⁶⁵² Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 105.

⁶⁵³ Grady Clay. "Increasing Use of Architects Called Good Sign for Louisville Housing." *The Courier-Journal*. November 29, 1953, Section 3, page 27.

⁶⁵⁴ Ibid.

given the inclusion of a subdivision almost exclusively dedicated to prefabricated houses, Buechel Terrace. The ever-popular Bungalow was the fourth most common type in the study area, followed closely by both the Minimal Traditional house and the front gable house, types which corresponded well to small lots and affordable construction.

Type of Post World War II Housing	Architect, Builder, or developer	Typical Location; lot size	Window characteristics	Roof form	Other details Usually three bay; similar to cape cod but with minimal details. Three to four bay similar to minimal traditional but with larger lot Versatile can be disguised in form as Minimal Traditional or small ranch but with distinguishabl e chimney and colonial revival details.		
Minimal Traditional	Builder/developer	Tract housing; new suburban neighborhood	l/l or multi-pane single hung windows.	Side gable;			
Small Ranch	Builder/developer	Tract housing; new suburban neighborhood	Multipane,1/1 or 2/2 horizontal single hung windows.	Hip; side gables			
Gunnison Homes	Builder/developer	Tract housing; new suburban neighborhood /infill housing	Casement, metal, sliding, single hung	Side gable			
Lustron Homes	Builder/developer	Tract housing; new suburban neighborhood /infill	Use of picture windows; single hung	Side gable	Use of ename siding; large picture windows bay windows and streamlined post. Symmetrical bays; common bond brick pattern; three to four bays.		
Traditional Ranch	Developer and or Architect	Middle to upper class neighborhoods	1/1 windows, sliding, horizontal	Hip or side gable;			
Contemporary Ranch	Architect	Middle class to upper class new suburban neighborhoods	Full light/casement/rib bon/ 2/2 windows	Hip or side gable; low slope	Hip or low slope roof; more versatile form use of elements typical of modern ranch. Asymmetrical		
Modern avant garde housing	Architect	Middle to upper class suburban neighborhoods	Full light/casement/rib bon windows	Low slope; side gable	Hip or low slope roof; more versatile form use of elements typical of modem ranch Asymmetrical		

Table 6.2 Post-War Housing Types in Louisville, Kentucky

Table 6.3 Intensive Survey Results																	
Subdivision	Bungalow	Cape Cod	MT	Dutch Col.	Tudor Rev.	Col. Rev.	Ms/SR	MP	FG	Am. 4SQ	Gunnison	Ranch	Bi-level Ranch	Split-Level	U	A	Total
Algonquin Place	0	366	65	1	0	0	0	0	117	0	0	43	0	0	5	4	601
De Nada Gates	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	78	0	0	0	1	80
Sunnydale	51	65	24	5	9	0	0	0	40	0	0	5	0	0	0	6	205
Valley View	0	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	77	0	0	1	0	87
Woodmere	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66	0	0	0	0	66
Buechel Terrace	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	254	44	0	0	150	1	451
Hoock	12	21	14	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	55
Shadylawn	70	8	4	5	2	0	0	0	0	6	2	0	0	0	1	1	99
Strathmoor	37	43	51	17	63	47	2	0	3	6	0	9	0	2	4	7	291
Wellingmoor	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	38	1	0	2	0	48
Total	170	506	167	30	75	47	2	5	162	12	256	363	1	2	165	20	1983

MT=Minimal Traditional; Dutch Col. = Dutch Colonial; Col. Rev. = Colonial Revival; Ms/SP= Mission/Spanish Revival; MP=Massed Plan; FG=Front Gable; Am. 4SQ= American Foursquare; U=Unknown; A=Anomaly

The Craftsman Influence: Bungalows & American Foursquares

The Craftsman style of architecture is most associated with two residential housing forms – the Bungalow and the American Foursquare. However, characteristics of the style, including low-pitched gable roofs, exposed rafter tails, tapered and square porch columns that often extend to the ground and bracketed gables, are often found on types other than those two. Many nineteenth century buildings in Louisville were remodeled to feature fashionable Colonial Revival and Craftsman details.

Bungalows were identified in the Strathmoor Subdivision, Shadylawn Subdivision, Algonquin Place, Sunnydale Subdivision and Hoock Subdivision.

The bungalow was an unpretentious design which helped increase the appearance of an average size lot through its horizontal lines and low height.⁶⁵⁵ The development of new materials such as concrete block, asphalt shingles and metal siding emphasized the design and construction flexibility of the bungalow. The inexpensive nature of this form also appealed to young couples and middle class families.⁶⁵⁶ The bungalow became popularized through the use of plan books (Aladdin, Sears Roebuck Company) and illustrations in such magazines as *Ladies Home Journal*.⁶⁵⁷ The "Portland" bungalow (Figure 6.33) was featured in the Aladdin Company's 1931 catalog, and is a good example of the type of bungalows found in the study area.⁶⁵⁸ In this advertisement, the bungalow's affordability is emphasized, and also the changes that can be made to the plan; for example, the interior layout made it possible to rent the second story separately from the first story.

⁶⁵⁵ K.T.Jackson, *Crabgrass Frontier: The Suburbanization of the United States*. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1985), 186.

⁶⁵⁶ Clifford Edward Clark, Jr. *The American Family Home 1800-1960*. (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1986), 185.

⁶⁵⁷Ibid. 179

⁶⁵⁸ Aladdin Homes 1931 Sales catalog. Online at:

http://clarke.cmich.edu/resource_tab/aladdin_company_of_bay_city/annual_sales_catalogs/annual_sales_catalogs_i_ndex.html

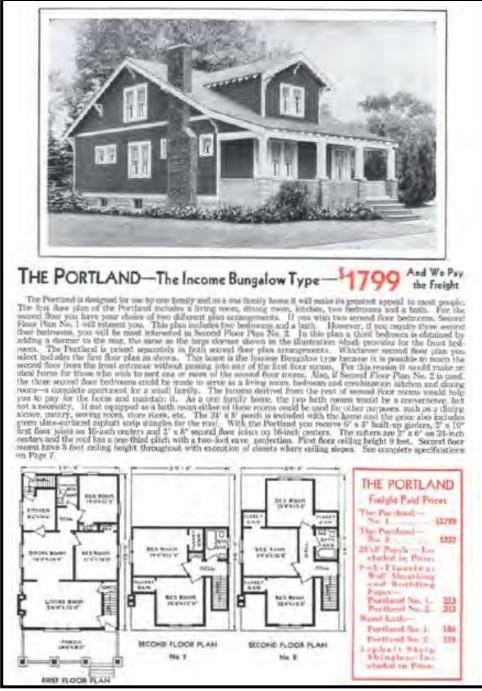


Figure 6. 33 Advertisement for the Portland Bungalow from the 1931 Aladdin Sales Catalog.⁶⁵⁹

⁶⁵⁹ Aladdin Homes 1931 Sales catalog

The bungalow was the antithesis of Victorian architecture. The Progressive era saw the entrance of national reforms which emphasized cleanliness, hygiene, and space. The overcrowded slums of the inner city caused a national movement to eradicate vice, disease and create a more family oriented atmosphere. The Bungalow and cottage styles represent this shift in American thinking. The low lines of the bungalow gave the building a solidity which offered comfort and security.⁶⁶⁰ The open, wide front porch also was a feature particular to the Bungalow. The porch created a harmonious nature between the outside world and the home with its rusticated piers and airy nature. The front porch also allowed owners to chat with passersby who walk on the sidewalks invoking a neighborly feeling.

The inside of a Bungalow is as simple and efficient as its exterior. It has an open floor plan, which has no delineation between public and private space. The rigid formality of Victorianism disappeared with the placement of bedrooms near the dining and living rooms. Bungalows also have a circular floor plan which facilitates movement within the dwelling. The designers of Bungalows tried to appeal to women with their efficient interior and hygienic design which made them easier to clean. Bungalows also suggested a less formal lifestyle of the occupants which would allow more time for leisure and recreational activities. Representative bungalows from the study area appear on the next few pages.



Figure 6. 34 1613 Deerwood Avenue, in the Shadylawn Subdivision.

⁶⁶⁰ Clark, 173.



Figure 6. 35 1700 Deer Lane, in the Shadylawn subdivision.



Figure 6. 36 1822 Oregon Avenue, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.



Figure 6. 37 2308 Winston Avenue, in the Strathmoor Subdivision.



Figure 6. 38 1729 Deer Lane, in the Shadylawn Subdivision.



Figure 6. 39 2823 Eleanor Avenue, in the Hoock Subdivision.

American Foursquare

The American Foursquare is another twentieth century house form that arose from the Arts and Crafts movement, and took many of its design cues from the Progressive era as well. The form of a Foursquare is that of a two-story cube, usually with a hipped or pyramidal roof. The name derives from the typical arrangement of four principal rooms on each floor (Figure 6.40). Like the Bungalow, a front porch is almost always present. Foursquares were built in a variety of materials, including frame and brick and stone veneer, usually on a continuous foundation. Many Foursquare houses feature elements of the Craftsman style, such as exposed rafter tails, overhanging eaves, dormers on the attic story and Craftsman-style double-hung windows. Figure 6.41 shows a typical Foursquare house in the study area.

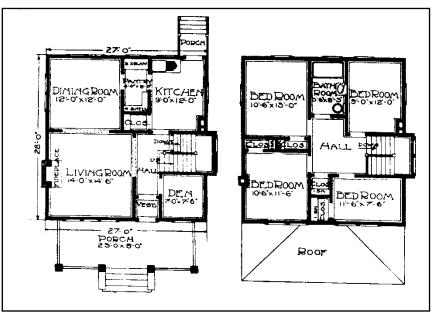


Figure 6. 40 First and second floor plan of the "Castleton," a Sears, Roebuck and Company American Foursquare design.⁶⁶¹

⁶⁶¹ Katherine Cole Stevenson and H. Ward Jandl. *House by Mail A Guide to Houses from Sears, Roebuck and Company.* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1986), 279.



Figure 6. 41 1634 Deer Lane, in the Shadylawn Subdivision.

Revival Styles

According to McAlester, the period of influence for the Colonial Revival style is 1880 to 1950, and the style's rise was fueled by an interest in the dwellings associated with the colonial period, particularly English and Dutch houses on the Atlantic seaboard. The first proponents of this style, which was seen as simplified and classically motivated response to the Victorian era, were professional architects. Richard Morris Hunt's house, Sunnyside, in Newport, Rhode Island, dating from 1870, has been identified by architectural historian Vincent Scully as the "first built evidence of colonial revivalism to exist anywhere."⁶⁶²

Colonial Revival dwellings borrow freely from the Federal and Greek Revival styles of the nineteenth century, and typically include a symmetrical façade with multi-light double-hung windows; a central entry with some sort of surround, either a hood, or fanlight and sidelights; a one-story porch or portico; usually side-gabled; dormers are common as well.

The Colonial Revival style proved to have staying power in Louisville's neighborhoods. In conjunction with the 1930 Model Home Show, a competition for architects and draftsmen in Jefferson County was held. Chosen from 19 entries for a prize of \$350 was the house by architect Stratton Hammond. The design was slated to be built in Norbourne Estates in St. Matthews following the Home Show. Hammond described his winning design as follows:

This year's model home has an exterior of early Colonial influence, which is so popular in present-day small house design, due to that elusive quality of neighborhood beauty which is the final achievement of domestic architecture and the greatest glory of the old American home. This type has the flexibility in use so essential to the many and varied requirements of homebuilding...⁶⁶³

The Colonial Revival was classified as a type in the Strathmoor Subdivision, characterized as a fairly symmetrical two story, brick veneer house with an end chimney, classical central front porch, and possibly quoins or other Colonial Revival or Neoclassical stylistic details (Figures 6.42 and 6.43). There are single story Colonial Revival houses in Strathmoor as well; these do not have the form of a Cape Cod and typically have more ornamentation.

The Cape Cod, which "is the most common form of one-story Colonial Revival houses," was very was common in both the study corridors, and continued to be built well into the 1960s.⁶⁶⁴ Colonial Revival, Tudor Revival and Dutch Colonial style houses were all identified in the study area; like many dwellings, the examples of the style are not high-style, and may only incorporate one particular stylistic detail, such as a gambrel roof, or a doorway with a broken pediment.

⁶⁶² Cynthia Johnson. "Weehawken." *Nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.* Copy on file at the Kentucky Heritage Council. Listed 2007.

⁶⁶³ "Model Home is Described." *The Courier-Journal*. February 23, 1930.

⁶⁶⁴ McAlester, 339.



Figure 6. 42 An example of the Colonial Revival house in Strathmoor, at 2211 Emerson Avenue.



Figure 6. 43 An example of the Colonial Revival house in Strathmoor, at 2313 Strathmoor Boulevard.

Cape Cod Dwellings in the Study Area



Figure 6. 44 1800 Allston Avenue, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.



Figure 6. 45 2601 Algonquin Parkway, in the Algonquin Place Subdivision.



Figure 6. 46 2116 Allston Avenue, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.



Figure 6. 47 2222 Gladstone Avenue, in the Strathmoor Subdivision.



Figure 6. 48 2311 Allston Avenue, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.



Figure 6. 49 2228 Gladstone Avenue, in the Strathmoor Subdivision.

Dutch Colonials in the Study Area



Figure 6. 50 2304 Winston Avenue, in the Strathmoor Subdivision.



Figure 6. 51 1734 Deer Lane, in the Shadylawn Subdivision.



Figure 6. 52 2100 Oregon Avenue, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.



Figure 6. 53 2826 Hoock Avenue, in the Hoock Subdivision.

Tudor Revival Dwellings in the Study Area



Figure 6. 54 2218 Tyler Lane, in the Strathmoor Subdivision.



Figure 6. 55 2821 Hoock Avenue, in the Hoock Subdivision.

Modern Styles

Ranch Houses

Housing styles that McAlester lists under the banner of "Modern" in that seminal work include "minimal traditional," "ranch," and "split-level." While McAlester discusses these under "style," the ranch house is also a *form*.

The geographical distribution of the ranch house (both as a style and as a type of house) resulted from historic events of the post-World War II period, which include a great new demand for houses, suburban places to build them, roads to the suburbs and automobiles to get there. The ranch house promised the new suburban homeowner drive-in convenience and spacious comfortable living. The growth of suburbs stretching out into rural areas allowed for larger lots and thus for houses with larger footprints.⁶⁶⁵

The reality of the interiors of these houses, which might embrace modern detailing such as multipurpose kitchens, was not reflected on the mostly traditional exterior. The new designs of the post-war period focused on what the American family could achieve – a comfortable existence far-removed from the frugality associated with the Depression era. The ranch house and its emphasis on family rooms and private bedroom space emphasized "convenience rather than style, comfort than some formal notion of beauty."⁶⁶⁶ Stylistic details of the ranch house include the low, horizontal form often punctuated by large, vertical elements such as chimneys, picture windows and the integration of the automobile into the design of the home.

⁶⁶⁵ Macintire, 147.

⁶⁶⁶ Clark, 216.



Figure 6. 56 1929 Nelson Avenue, in the Woodmere Heights Subdivision.



Figure 6. 57 6506 North Drive, in the Valley View Subdivision.



Figure 6. 58 2007 Nelson Avenue, in the Woodmere Heights Subdivision.



Figure 6. 59 9220 Ponder Lane, in the De Nada Gates Subdivision.



Figure 6. 60 9304 Ponder Lane, in the De Nada Gates Subdivision.

Split-Level

During the 1950s, the "closely related Split Level style, with half-story wings and sunken garages, began to emerge."⁶⁶⁷ The split-level design was an evolution of the standard ranch house; it was influenced by Frank Lloyd Wright and his split Prairie houses. The split level adhered to many of the philosophical tenets of the ranch house (open living spaces, emphasis on the automobile and landscape), but was a "a multi-story modification to the then dominant one-story Ranch house."⁶⁶⁸

According to a report on a survey of post-World War II residential architecture in Boulder, Colorado, the split-level divided "zones of interior living areas, relegating certain types of household activity to each of three levels." Zones progress from the noisy lower level to the quiet upper level. Many split-levels include a below-grade garage.⁶⁶⁹ The split-level has two or three short sets of interior stairs and three or four different levels. The fourth level is typically a basement beneath the mid-level floor. The front door opens into a formal living area at the mid-level floor; a short flight of stairs leads up to the bedrooms and another leads down to informal living area and garage. The mid-level floor contains the living room, dining room, and kitchen. A sub-type of the true split-level is the split-level/lower entry with its entrance on the garage level.⁶⁷⁰



Figure 6. 61 3614 and 3612 Youngwood Road, in Young Acres Subdivision.

⁶⁶⁷ McAlester, 477.

⁶⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁶⁹ Jennifer Bryant and Carrie Schomig, *Historic Context and Survey of Post-World War II Residential Architecture Boulder, Colorado*, TEC Inc., April 2010, p. 145.

⁶⁷⁰"True Splits; A Primer on Three-Level and Four-Level Homes," SplitLevel.Net website, <u>http://www.splitlevel.net/split-level.html</u>, Accessed on August 4, 2012.



Figure 6. 62 3709 Youngwood Road, in the Young Acres Subdivision.

Bi-Level

The bi-level house is a split-level sub-type with two short sets of interior stairs and two levels. The entrance is between floors and the front door opens onto a landing. One short flight of stairs leads to the top level and another leads down. The lower floor is usually at least partially below ground. The bi-level has been differentiated from the raised ranch in that its entrance is between floors; the raised ranch has a ground floor entrance.⁶⁷¹ The majority of bi-levels are 1,000 to 1,500 square foot houses built in the 1970s and 1980s.⁶⁷²

According to the Colorado report, the lower level typically contains a family room, bedroom, bathroom, and utility room. The upper level contains the living room, kitchen, bathroom, and two to three bedrooms. The front entrance is usually at or near the center of the facade. The authors of the Colorado report do not distinguish the raised ranch sub-type from the bi-level.⁶⁷³



Figure 6. 63 3234 Wellingmoor Avenue, in the Wellingmoor Subdivision.

⁶⁷² "The Bi-Level Split; A Primer on Divided Entry Homes with Two Floors," SplitLevel.Net website, <u>http://www.splitlevel.net/bi-level.html</u>, Accessed on August 4, 2012.

⁶⁷¹ "Celebrating the Versatility and Value of of Bi-Level, Split-Level, and Raised Ranch Homes," SplitLevel.Net website, <u>http://www.splitlevel.net/index.html</u>. Accessed on August 4, 2012.

⁶⁷³ Bryant and Schomig, *Historic Context and Survey of Post-World War II Residential Architecture Boulder, Colorado*, TEC Inc., April 2010, pp. 146-147.



Figure 6. 64 6620 North Drive, in the Valley View Subdivision.

Minimal Traditional

Minimal traditional houses, as defined by McAlester, are a "simplified form based on the previously dominant Tudor style of the 1920s and 1930s." These houses are characterized by a front gable on the façade that echoes the Tudor Revival style, but without the overly steeped pitch of the Tudor roof and the ornamentation of Tudor Revival houses. Another term for this style is the "American Small House," coined by the Georgia State Historic Preservation Office and defined as a "compact three-, four-, or five-room house with an irregular floor plan, usually with a moderately pitched end-gable roof, sometimes with small wings or rear ells; built from the 1930s to the 1950s."⁶⁷⁴

Some professionals in the field associate all non-ranch house forms from the post-war period with the American Small House. Since this is not a term commonly in use in Kentucky, nor one advocated by the Kentucky Heritage Council, this study breaks the types out singly.



Figure 6. 65 2234 Gladstone Avenue a Minimal Traditional house in the Strathmoor Subdivision.

⁶⁷⁴Richard Cloues. "House Types," in the *New Georgia Encyclopedia*, available online at http://www.georgiaencyclopedia.org/nge/Article.jsp?id=h-2663&hl=y



Figure 6. 66 1631 Cypress Street, in the Algonquin Place Subdivision.



Figure 6. 67 2305 Allston Avenue, in the Sunnydale Subdivision.



Figure 6. 68 826 Eleanor Avenue, in the Hoock Subdivision.

Front-Gable Houses

The front gable house in the survey area is defined, mainly, by its front gable roof, gable orientation, and long, narrow footprint. This type typically has off-center, gable roof front porches; these porches sometimes project beyond integral front corner porches and sometimes not. Front gable houses in the study area are typically one-and-one-half stories with a window in the gable area of the façade and, often, with a secondary side entrance. Front gable houses should not be confused with shotgun houses.

The materials of the front gable house vary depending on the location and the economic level of the development when built. In Strathmoor, for example, the front gable examples are brick veneer, while in Algonquin Place (where 117 front gable houses were documented), they are mainly frame construction.



Figure 6. 69 *An example of a front gable house in Section Three of Algonquin Place. This house is located at 2612 Conestoga Avenue.*



Figure 6. 70 *A front gable house in Algonquin Place, located at 2716 Wyandotte Avenue.*



Figure 6. 71 A front gable house in Sunnydale, located at 2305 Oregon Avenue.



Figure 6.72 A front gable house in Strathmoor, located at 2231 Winston Avenue.

Massed Plan Houses

The massed plan house, identified in the study area, is house that resembles a ranch, but rather than a rectangular footprint, has a square footprint. According to the McAlesters, these houses are more than one room deep with both piles spanned by a single roof, normally side gable or pyramidal hipped. They usually have a square footprint. Typically only one story in height, these houses evolved from New England building techniques and had flexible interior plans. Examples from the 1930s and later usually had either a small front porch or no porch at all, possibly in imitation of the Cape Cod type. They appear similar to the ranch type, but lack its sprawling, rectangular plan. Most documented examples date from the 1950 to 1970 time period, and can be frame, brick or stone veneer. All of the examples in the study area were found in the Wellingmoor subdivision.



Figure 6. 73 Massed plan example found at 3208 Bon Air Avenue.



Figure 6. 74 A massed plan house located at 3216 Bon Air Avenue.

Prefabricated Homes

Studies completed around the Great Depression showed that most Americans could not afford to purchase a new house. There was an unfilled demand for low-cost housing. Great faith was placed in prefabrication as the answer to the housing crisis. Efficiency through technology became critically important in order to produce cheaper houses on a larger scale. Early prefabrication was traditional in approach and basically involved notching, marking, and shipping all the parts of a house for the owner-builder to construct on previously-purchased land. Houses were traditional wood frame types. These were the early precut or "mail-order" houses and included companies like Sears, Roebuck, and Company and Aladdin. As the use of machinery increased housing manufacturers prefabricated components and sold them through lumber dealers to smaller builders. These components included door and window assemblies, plumbing 'trees,' and roof trusses.⁶⁷⁵

Experiments with precast concrete and steel houses followed. Buckminster Fuller's 1927 Dymaxion house with its futuristic mast design encouraged a redevelopment of the form of the house as the answer to the housing problem.⁶⁷⁶ Privately- and federally-funded research organizations were formed with the sole purpose of developing a low-cost, quality, prefabricated house.



Figure 6. 75 Buckminster Fuller with his Dymaxion house model, circa 1929.⁶⁷⁷

1972), originally printed in Architectural Forum, December 1942, p. 19.

⁶⁷⁵ Richard Harris and Michael Buzzelli, "House Building in the Machine Age, 1920s-1970s: Realities and Perceptions of Modernisation in North America and Australia," in *Business History*, vol. 47, no. 1, (2005), pp. 66. ⁶⁷⁶ Alfred Bruce and Harold Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," in *A History of Prefabrication*, (Arno Press,

⁶⁷⁷ Image available at http://www.buckyfullernow.com/sec-3-bio-of-buckminster-fuller-1927---1947.html

The panelized, prefabricated house was encouraged by the development of new, lightweight materials in standard sizes – these included plywood, fiber boards, plaster, and gypsum board. Most early prefabricated systems were based on the use of 4' X 8' panels based on the size of wall and fiberboards available at the time of their development.⁶⁷⁸ The stressed-skin plywood house was developed by a federal research organization - Forest Products Laboratory of the Forest Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.⁶⁷⁹

Forest Products Laboratory, concerned with the field of timber utilization, pioneered the use of plywood in the prefabrication movement. Forest Products Laboratory studied the woods and glues used in plywood manufacture and later studied its use in housing. Its first stressed-skin plywood house was erected in 1935 and had a significant impact on prefabrication in wood.⁶⁸⁰ Later, Foster Gunnison began working with Houses, Inc. and went on to develop Gunnison Magic Homes which focused on the stressed-skin plywood house.

During periods of unemployment and sharply decreased building through the 1930s and 1940s, architects often worked with or founded prefabricated housing manufacturing companies. For instance, Princeton-trained Robert W. McLaughlin co-founded New York-based, prefabricated manufacturer American Houses, Inc. His company produced the steel "Motohome" and its first model was built in Jeddo, Pennsylvania, in 1930.⁶⁸¹ The company began building with steel frame asbestos panels abandoned by 1938 in favor of wood-frame panels. Harvard-trained Howard T. Fisher founded General Houses, Inc. which worked to develop modern steel prefabricated houses with floor plans based on bungalows.⁶⁸² Fisher designed and erected an experimental house in Winnetka, Illinois, and then exhibited an improved model in the 1933 Chicago World's Fair (Figure 6.76).⁶⁸³

⁶⁷⁸ Bruce and Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," p. 58.

⁶⁷⁹ Bruce and Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," p. 14.

⁶⁸⁰ Ibid.

⁶⁸¹ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, p. 28.

⁶⁸² Cynthia E. Johnson, House in a Box: Prefabricated Housing in the Jackson Purchase Cultural Landscape Region, 1900-1960, ed. Rachel Kennedy (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 2006), pp. 37-38.

⁶⁸³ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, p. 28.



Figure 6. 76 Norman Fisher's General House, featured in the 1933 World's Fair.

Bertrand Goldberg, a noted architect, researched stressed-skin plywood panel systems for the Douglas Fir Plywood Association and built houses during the war. He co-founded Standard Houses Corporation of Chicago, Illinois with associate Gilmer Black and partners Edwin "Squirrel" Ashcroft and Ross Beatty. The first Standard house was built in Lafayette, Indiana, as part of the Purdue University Housing Research Project. Standard Houses projects in Indian Head and Suitland, Maryland, were sponsored by the Federal Works Agency's Public Buildings Administration.⁶⁸⁴

Dawson Winn with Mississippi-based Green Lumber Company built low cost end to end double units with plywood floors, walls, and roof panels. The company had built prefabricated Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camps and similar buildings in the 1930s and began with precut, partially-prefabricated houses around 1940.⁶⁸⁵ Houston Ready-Cut House Company of Houston, Texas, was founded in 1917 and produced ready-cut sectional houses for the oil industry before the war and tent frames for the army in 1941.

Even after the widespread use of prefabrication during wartime and the increase in the number of its houses manufactured post-war, doubts about prefabrication proliferated along with lingering questions over whether it would succeed or fail. Marketing was a problem as the product was still not considered as saleable as conventional housing.

⁶⁸⁴ Geoffrey Goldberg, "Bertrand Goldberg," Art Institute of Chicago,

http://www.bertrandgoldberg.org/works/standard_houses.html, accessed April 30, 2011.

⁶⁸⁵ Bruce and Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," p. 59.

Mass produced prefabricated houses were seen as the culmination and best hope for this market. The materials and construction techniques maximized affordability and the rate of production. Builders could buy in bulk and "cut out the middleman," or retail dealer, by buying directly from manufacturers. Mass production of prefabricated housing called for heavily-capitalized large scale fabrication, limited range of models, standardized parts and dimensions, and factory assembly line techniques similar to those used for automobile manufacturing.⁶⁸⁶The rise in popularity of these houses led to the "creation of instant communities comprised of virtually identical, low-cost, small houses."⁶⁸⁷

Pease Homes James Pease of Pease Woodwork Company in Cincinnati, Ohio, was an early prefabricated housing producer and industry organizer (Figure 6.77). The company produced splined, plywood panel houses; panels were pinned together to create larger, wall-sized panels.⁶⁸⁸ They developed packaged steel doors and other components.



Figure 6. 77 An ad for Pease Homes from the November 22, 1953 edition of the Courier-Journal.

⁶⁸⁶ Richard Harris and Michael Buzzelli, "House Building in the Machine Age," p. 70, 76.

⁶⁸⁷ Avi Friedman, "The Evolution of Design Characteristics During the Post-Second World War Housing Boom: The U.S. Experience," in *Journal of Design History*, vol. 8, no. 2 (1995), p. 136.

⁶⁸⁸ Bruce and Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," p. 56.

Lustron Homes

Carl Strandlund founded the Lustron Corporation of Columbus, Ohio, in 1947. The manufacturer produced factory-built, steel frame houses with insulated, enameled steel panels.⁶⁸⁹ Although Lustron was supported by government contracts, the development of its houses was one of the most costly experiments in prefabrication and it ceased operations in 1950.⁶⁹⁰



Figure 6. 78 2408 Burwell Avenue, a Lustron home located in the Algonquin Place subdivision

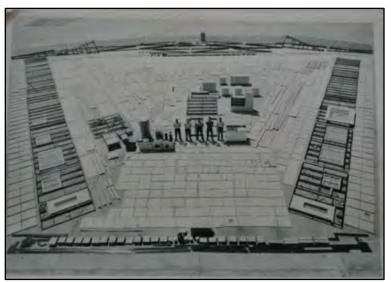


Figure 6. 79 Postcard showing components of a Lustron home in Columbus, Ohio, in 1949.

⁶⁸⁹ Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, p. 56.

⁶⁹⁰ Johnson, *House in a Box*, p. 56.

National Homes

James R. Price of the National Homes Corporation based in Lafayette, Indiana, had one of the largest prefabricated manufacturing companies in the world and was an excellent national distributor. National Homes was founded by three former Gunnison Homes employees in 1940 and also used the stressed-skin plywood panel.⁶⁹¹ C. Fred Dally of Seattle Prefab Products Company was an active home builder and prefabricated manufacturer in the northwest. Albert P. Hildebrandt founded Kingsbury Homes of Atlanta, Georgia. This company helped develop new building designs in their research department including a one-package kitchen-bath utility core.⁶⁹²



Figure 6. 80 *Image of National Homes From a "A History of Prefabrication," by Alfred Bruce and Harold Sandbank, Published by the J.B. Pierce Foundation, 1945.*

⁶⁹¹ Johnson, *House in a Box*, p. 57.

⁶⁹² Mason, *History of Housing in the U.S. 1930-1980*, p. 57.

Gunnison Homes

Gunnison Homes, Inc., based in New Albany, Indiana, began offering panelized, prefabricated houses in the 1930s and continued operations through 1974.⁶⁹³ Although Forest Products Laboratory had developed the stressed-skin panels, Gunnison spent an additional \$900,000 to perfect the use of these panels in commercial housing production.⁶⁹⁴ Gunnison had sold 5,000 houses before the start of World War II. The 1937 flood of the Ohio River provided a valuable test for Gunnison Homes, proving that they were structurally sound.⁶⁹⁵ Fourteen basic models of Gunnison houses were offered by 1950.⁶⁹⁶ Gunnison Homes reported outstanding sales in the early part of 1950; this may have been due to the development of thrift models of housing costing anywhere from \$5,200 to 9,000.⁶⁹⁷

Gunnison houses were constructed of 4' X 8' stressed-skin panels with exterior plywood. Framing members for these quarter inch plywood exterior panels were 1.5 inches thick. Total wall thickness was two inches including insulation.⁶⁹⁸ These panels were bonded with waterproof plastic adhesives in hot presses and were pre-wired. Gunnison panels were joined with bolts and steel connectors. Gunnison catalogs promoted the fact that their houses were assembled on site and under roof within a day.

Gunnison Homes, Inc. was the first to use the moving assembly line in their plant and focused on mass production, low cost, and marketing.⁶⁹⁹ Houses came with steel casement windows, the American Kitchen with steel cabinets, and either "smooth-paneled" or cedar shingle exterior material. Gunnison dealers offered home buyers left- or right-hand plans in various models and with a number of optional features.⁷⁰⁰ In Buechel Terrace Gunnison houses had asphalt tile floors over the poured concrete slab. Buechel Terrace residents noted how they buffed their asphalt tile floors to a shine every weekend.

By 1952, a House & Home article noted that Gunnison Homes would become the first prefabricated housing manufacturer to introduce year round air cooling and heating units as optional features of all models marketed in 1953.⁷⁰¹ A House & Home Gunnison Homes advertisement stressed the appeal of brand name technologies, indicating the following features: "New Perimeter heating system, Mor-Sun automatic gas or oil furnaces, beautiful exteriors, flush panel doors, American Kitchens, Fenestra steel windows, Thermo-Pane window walls,

⁶⁹³ Johnson, *House in a Box*, p. 56.

⁶⁹⁴ Boyden Sparkes, "Hey, Ma! Our House Is Here," Saturday Evening Post, vol. 217, issue 17, October 21, 1944, p. 75. ⁶⁹⁵ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, p. 43.

⁶⁹⁶ Johnson, *House in a Box*, p. 56.

⁶⁹⁷ Kelly, The Prefabrication of Houses, p. 422.

⁶⁹⁸ Johnson, *House in a Box*, p. 56.

⁶⁹⁹ Bruce and Sandback, "The Prefabricated House," p. 64.

⁷⁰⁰ Gunnison Homes, Inc., "Tomorrow's Living Today," 1951, private collection of Randy Shipp.

⁷⁰¹ "Air Conditioning to be Offered in Prefabs," *House & Home*, National Association of Home Builders, December 1952, p. 51.

Permaglas water heaters, and ceiling-to-floor sliding closet doors." The advertisement also notes that Gunnison's ". . . easy-to-clean, Mellow-Tone walls have special appeal to young people with small children – the largest group of low-priced home buyers."⁷⁰²



Figure 6. 81 1952 Advertisement for Gunnison Homes⁷⁰³

The Champion was Gunnison's basic model; it came in five sizes and with three different façade fenestration patterns. The Coronado was Gunnison's mid-range model and came in five sizes and with two façade fenestration patterns. This type can be identified by its wide eave overhang (often with decorative diagonal bracing), picture window or opening of this size, and absence of a full, front-projecting wing. Optional features included an 8' X 10' front porch, the "window bay" (a slightly projecting front gable façade bay containing the picture window), and the "window wall" instead of the picture window.

⁷⁰² "Washable Interior Walls," Gunnison Homes, Inc. advertisement, *House & Home*, November 1952.
⁷⁰³ Ibid.

The Catalina was one of Gunnison's later, higher-end models. The Catalina came in three sizes, all of which had three bedrooms. This type can be identified by its large, front-projecting wing in addition to its wide eave overhang. There are only a few identified in Buechel Terrace, Section One.

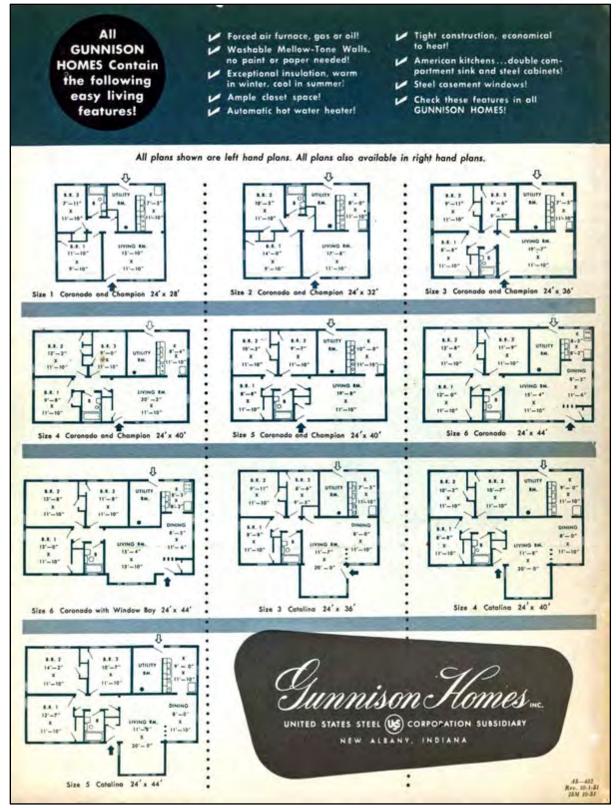


Figure 6. 82 Champion, Coronado, and Catalina Models, from 1951 Tomorrow's Living Today.

The Deluxe model is an anomaly in Buechel Terrace, Section One; only one can be identified today. The Deluxe came in eight sizes. This type can be identified by its façade chimney (in addition to its normal, metal flue pipe cover chimney surround). According to longtime Buechel Terrace residents, the most common original exterior colors were maroon and hunter green.

Gunnison had a well-respected name in the prefabricated housing industry. Foster Gunnison had, in fact, developed the first commercially prefabricated house with exterior plywood in 1936.⁷⁰⁴ This good name led to its purchase by the United States Steel Corporation in 1944.

A 1944 article in the *Saturday Evening Post* called Gunnison "one of the most experienced and promising companies building houses in factories." Gunnison Homes' experience, moving assembly line manufacturing process, focus on mass production, and system of distribution appealed to U.S. Steel. U.S. Steel was attempting to find more ways to use steel post-war and decided to risk a large amount of money on the success of Gunnison Homes, and prefabrication, after the war. Gunnison's manufacturing process meant that, in peacetime, a knocked-down Gunnison Homes came off the assembly line every twenty-five minutes. The 1944 article also notes that, although Gunnison parts were interchangeable, "considerable individuality" was possible.⁷⁰⁵ The article mentioned above also noted that the FHA "has been quite as willing to finance the purchaser of a Gunnison Home as any other kind of house, provided the purchaser's monthly payments would not exceed his weekly income."⁷⁰⁶

⁷⁰⁴ Thomas Jester, "Plywood," in *Twentieth Century Building Materials*, ed. Thomas Jester, National Park Service, 1995, 135.

⁷⁰⁵ Boyden Sparkes, "Hey, Ma! Our House Is Here," 72-75.

⁷⁰⁶ Ibid.



Figure 6. 83 An example of the Champion Model at 222 Bonnie Lane, in the Buechel Terrace Subdivision.



Figure 6. 84 An example of the Catalina model at 239 Granvil Drive, in the Buechel Terrace Subdivision.



Figure 6. 85 *An example of the Coronado model at 238 Bonnie Lane, in the Buechel Terrace Subdivision.*



Figure 6. 86 A Gunnison located at 1619 Deer Lane, in the Shadylawn Subdivision.

Multi-Family Housing

There were few examples of multi-family housing documented in the study area; most subdivisions were dominated by single-family houses. Several four-plexes from the 1920s were documented in the Shadylawn Subdivision in the Bardstown Road Corridor. These buildings complemented the style of the surrounding Bungalows and Cape Cods (Figures 6.87 and 6.88).



Figure 6. 87 Four-plex located at 1700 Deerwood Avenue.



Figure 6. 88 Four-plex located at 1712 Deerwood Avenue.

It was more common for new developments to include multi-family housing in the 1920s, especially in the growing annexed areas or outside of the city entirely. These buildings, like their single-family home counterparts, were aimed at the middle and upper-middle class consumer. They incorporated stylistics details like the single-family homes, often Colonial Revival or Craftsman, and boasted of four to five rooms and plenty of natural light. Additionally, these buildings were part of the development, rather than an after-thought or relegated to the fringes (Figures 6.89 and 6.90).

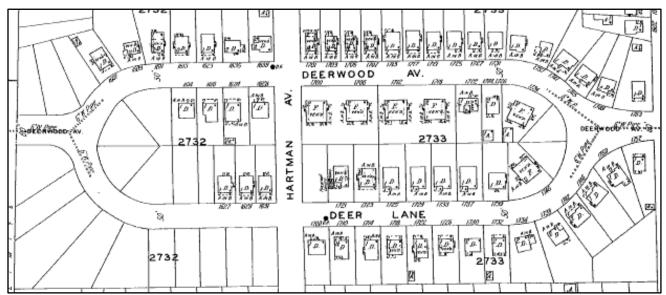


Figure 6. 89 1928 Sanborn showing Shadylawn Subdivision. The six 1920s four-plexes are present on the map.



Figure 6. 90 Aerial view of Shadylawn. The blue circles represent the circa 1920 multi-family dwellings in the subdivision.

There were several multi-family (duplex and four-plex) dwellings noted on Algonquin Parkway between South 22nd and South 23rd Street. Like Shadylawn, this development, Parkway Gardens, was platted in the 1920s, when incorporating single-family and multi-family dwellings was more typical. Parkway Gardens, being a separate plat from Algonquin Place, was not included in the study area.⁷⁰⁷

An isolated multi-family dwelling was documented in Sunnydale (Figure 6.91), but it was located on the periphery, along Dixie Highway. This type of siting foreshadows the treatment of most multi-family housing in the study area in the post-World War II period. Sunnydale did have some duplex bungalows (Figure 6.92), but again, these tended to be isolated types.

⁷⁰⁷ Parkway Gardens was platted in March 1924, and is recorded in Jefferson County Plat Book 1, page 225.



Figure 6. 91 Multi-family dwelling at 1801 Oregon Avenue, in Sunnydale.



Figure 6. 92 Duplex bungalow at 1827 Oregon Avenue in the Sunnydale subdivision.

Post-war developments like Eastmoor Acres grouped multi-family dwellings together, at one end of the subdivision, near the main traffic artery (in this case, US 60/Shelbyville Road). These brick-veneered, two-story buildings lack the stylistic details of their 1920 predecessors, and clustered together with surface parking lots between them, have no relationship to the scores of single family homes in the rest of the subdivision (Figures 6.03 and 6.94). This trend would continue throughout the post-war period – the emphasis was on single family housing, and single use neighborhoods.



Figure 6. 93 Aerial map showing Eastmoor Acres; blue circles show apartment buildings clustered together near US 60.



Figure 6. 94 One of the apartment buildings in Eastmoor Acres.

Outbuildings

The twentieth century housing boom, with all of its technological innovations, meant not only home ownership for many American families, but also vehicle ownership. Only one in 1.5 million Americans owned a car in 1899; in 1902, that number had increased to one in 6,500.⁷⁰⁸ Automobile ownership was largely the realm of the wealthy, many of whom kept their vehicles in public garages, or had garages which combined maintenance and storage of the vehicle on the ground floor, and living quarters for the chauffeur above. The carriage house of the nineteenth century was replaced by the garage, which went through its own metamorphosis. First, the garage merely supplanted the carriage house (or an existing carriage house/buggy shed was remodeled to accommodate the horseless carriage).

Car ownership in Louisville followed national patterns. The growing availability of automobiles paved the way for road improvements across the county. In Louisville, in fact, there were 291 miles of paved streets within city limits and another 306 miles that remained unpaved in the mid-1920s.⁷⁰⁹ Registered vehicles in the county doubled from 1920 to 1930 to 54,524 automobiles.⁷¹⁰

In the first two decades of the twentieth century, marketing efforts exhorted automobile owners to keep their car separate from the house and in its own shelter. The first garages were nothing more than open wooden sheds, built by the owners like a small barn. Auto owners could also purchase garages from factories and assemble them on site; these first prefabricated garages were somewhat flimsy and had a short lifespan.

By the beginning of the study period (1920), that was beginning to change. New cars were safer, easier to handle and not as fragile. Car ownership began to increase, and historic garages from that time period were documented in the study area. Located to the rear of the dwelling, the garage was often rudimentary and functional, and often included a workshop or toolshed. The building may or may not have echoed the stylistic details of the main house, but even if it did, it was a separate entity. The garage found in Sunnydale in Figure 6.95 illustrates this type. The frame building could have had several uses, including housing a car. Large windows allow in natural light to aid in the maintenance and upkeep of the vehicle. The side-gable portion at the left in the photo is perhaps an addition to the original front-gable garage at right. Double-hinged and sliding doors were common, echoing the barn-like roots of the structures.

⁷⁰⁸ Leslie G. Goat. "Housing the Horseless Carriage: America's Early Private Garages," in *Perspectives in Vernacular Architecture, III*. Eds. Thomas Crater and Bernard L. Herman (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1989), 62.

⁷⁰⁹ Kleber, "Streets," 58.

⁷¹⁰ Yater, 174.



Figure 6. 95 Garage at 2107 Oregon Avenue in Sunnydale.

Placement and style of the garage depended heavily on the type of development. In some subdivisions, like Sunnydale and Algonquin Place, the garage was built at a later date by the homeowner, and tended to be a more straightforward, basic structure. In comparison, in the Bardstown Road Corridor, garages in Strathmoor and Shadylawn were often constructed at the same time as the house – and in the case of the latter subdivision, were *part* of the house. A common type in Shadylawn was the basement garage, as seen in Figures 6.96 and 6.97. There are approximately fifty-five houses in Shadylawn with basement garages.



Figure 6. 96 *A house with the basement garage in Shadylawn, located at 1729 Deer Lane.*



Figure 6. 97 Another example of the basement garage in Shadylawn, located at 1614 Deerwood Lane.

This is not to say that all of the dwellings in Shadylawn were constructed with garages – many of the houses either don't have garages or have garages constructed at a later period. This pattern is the same in Hoock Subdivision, where later garages sit at the end of the driveway, removed from the house (Figure 6.98).



Figure 6. 98 *A frame, front gable, two-car garage at 2828 Elanor Avenue in Hoock Subdivision* .

After World War II, these simple, front gable structures, detached from the house, remained prevalent, but new subdivisions began to play with the idea of the car closer to the house, if not yet part of the house. The carport flirted with the idea of attached garage – providing shelter for the vehicle, but not committing fully to the idea of an enclosed space for the car. As a bonus, carports acknowledged the presence and importance of the car, but cost less to build than an attached garage (Figure 6.99).

Another step along the path to the attached garage was the breezeway or hyphen connecting the house to the garage. This necessitated a lot large enough to accommodate the footprint of house, hyphen and garage. A large corner lot in the Strathmoor enabled a mid-twentieth century homeowner to accomplish just that (Figure 6.100).



Figure 6. 99 A ranch house with carport at 2701 Woodmere Avenue, in the Woodmere Heights subdivision.



Figure 6. 100 The house at 2303 Emerson Avenue in Strathmoor, constructed circa 1950 with a garage attached via en enclosed breezeway.

No Longer A Car House Alone

By 1950, garages were quickly being touted as a necessity. In 1952, it was estimated that approximately 60 percent of new homes in Louisville were built without garages. The reasoning was that "many families prefer to wait for one of two years before they build a garage." But the increasing rate of homes constructed without basements or attics meant that "no longer is the garage a car house alone. It is also storage room, workshop and tool room."

Most garages built in Louisville were frame, and in the early 1950s, the one-and-one-half car garage was the most popular. Measuring at around 14 feet by 20 feet, the frame garage would cost a homeowner around \$750. A two-car garage, also of frame construction, would run around \$950. Different materials and finishes would, of course, change the price. These detached garages continued to be most popular, but some new developments began to offer houses with attached garages (Figure 6.102).



Figure 6. 101 An advertisement from the June 21, -1953 edition of the Courier-Journal.



Figure 6. 102 *Ranch house with attached garage at 6418 South Drive in the Valley View subdivision – and an additional, detached garage to the rear of the dwelling.*

Landscaping and Streetscaping

The landscape within the twentieth century subdivision includes not only improved land composed of residential (and sometimes commercial) parcels but can also include features such as public utility easements, drainage easements (often including drainage pipes and culverts), drainage ditches and swales, interurban rights-of-way, storm sewers (and associated grates), curbs (standard or rolled), gutters, and manholes for service access to city water and sewer systems. Based on their apparent ages, even trees within the subdivision can indicate whether the land was completely graded before the subdivision was built or whether developers maintained some of the existing topography.

Subdivision standards changed on a local, as well as national, level as the twentieth century progressed; developers were forced to respond if they wanted a subdivision approved for construction or for FHA or VA financing. Developers with little operating capital often chose to build at or near minimum subdivision standards while more progressive and better funded developers built curving streets, larger houses on larger lots, and more services than required.

The presence or absence of the landscape features listed above can serve as valuable indicators not only for the type of the developer and her means but also for the period of construction. Important to remember is the fact that, although developers sometimes chose to forego more expensive improvements and services, city water and sewer services were sometimes simply unavailable at the time the subdivision was developed. Large drainage easements extending across a subdivision, for instance, may indicate that the land here was chosen due to its low cost and may abut a body of water or be poorly drained. Subdivisions of this type often included lots with drainage easements along their rear parcel lines and, sometimes, parcels which were considered unbuildable. These unbuildable parcels may be represented on the landscape today by sections of houses built during a later period of construction after further drainage improvements were made.



Figure 6. 103 Landscape shot in Algonquin Place.



Figure 6. 104 De Nada Gates landscape shot.



Figure 6. 105 Streetscape/landscape view in the Hoock Subdivision.



Figure 6. 106 Streetscape/landscape view in the Hoock Subdivision.



Figure 6. 107 Landscape view in Valley View.



Figure 6. 108 Wellingmoor landscape photos.



Figure 6. 109 Woodmere Heights landscape photo.

The most commonly-observed landscape features in the subdivisions documented within the project corridors along Bardstown Road and Dixie Highway included driveways, public utility easements, and sidewalks. Driveways were present in all the subdivisions in the project area. In Algonquin Place, Sunydale, Shadylawn and Strathmoor some of the driveways were of the Hollywood type (Figures 6.110 and 6.111).. The Hollywood Drive consists of two strips of concrete or asphalt, separated by a grass (or gravel) middle section. The Hollywood Drive may have been a more affordable option than a full driveway, but it is also a fixture of the 1920s period of vehicle ownership. The garage was not fully accepted as a piece of the domestic landscape, and ambivalent attitudes towards its presence and placement were common. Even if the garage was at the rear of the house, the visual impact of the driveway could be "minimized by reducing it to two concrete tracks separated by a wide strip of grass."⁷¹¹

⁷¹¹ Goat, 71.



Figure 6. 110 A Hollywood driveway in Sunnydale.



Figure 6. 111 A Hollywood driveway in Strathmoor, at 2233 Emerson Avenue.

In De Nada Gates and Hoock drainage pipes run beneath driveways. In some cases, there were drainage grates built into the driveways or culverts beneath. In Buechel Terrace driveways were originally gravel and were paved later. Ten to fifteen foot public utility easements (electricity & telephone) were present in most of the subdivisions in the project area including: Algonquin Place (some between parcels, most at rear), De Nada Gates (between parcels), Valley View (rear of parcels), Woodmere Heights (between parcels), Buechel Terrace (rear of parcels), Hoock (rear of parcels), and Wellingmoor (rear of parcels). Sidewalks were present in most of the subdivisions in the project area including: Algonquin Place (added later), Hoock (only along Tyler, Lancashire – outside streets), Shadylawn, and Wellingmoor.

Less frequently observed landscape features were more costly improvements such as concrete curbs, storm sewers, sanitary sewers, interurban railway rights-of-way, creeks, drainage easements, and gutters. Concrete curbs were present in the following subdivisions: Algonquin Place, Woodmere Heights (rolled curbs), Shadylawn (rolled curbs), and Wellingmoor (both standard and rolled). Storm sewers were present only in De Nada Gates (seemed later), Hoock (also likely later), and Woodmere Heights. Sanitary sewers were present only in the later sections and subdivisions (late 1950s and 1960s) including Valley View Section 2 and Woodmere Heights (10' sewer & drain easements). In Buechel Terrace, septic tanks were installed originally and sewer pipes were added later. Interurban railway rights-of-way were present in the 1920s sections of Algonquin Place (K & I Terminal Railway Co) and Sunnydale (Louisville & Interurban Railway right-of-way). Creeks were present in De Nada Gates (Bee Lick Creek: partially surrounds) and Buechel Terrace (an intermittent stream, a tributary of the South Fork of Beargrass Creek; extends through Sections 2-3 and parcels adjoining creek originally unbuildable). Drainage easements were present in Valley View and Buechel Terrace. Gutters were present only in the Wellingmoor subdivision.

Chapter 7. A Question of Evaluation

National Register Criteria for Eligibility and Significance

The NRHP identifies sites, structures, buildings, objects and districts significant in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering and culture. The development of a historic context enables researchers to understand and evaluate a historic resource.

A. Association with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

B. Association with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. Embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

d. Yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Criteria Considerations

Ordinarily cemeteries, birthplaces, graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the National Register. However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

a. A religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or

b. A building or structure removed from its original location but which is primarily significant for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or

c. A birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no appropriate site or building associated with his or her productive life; or

d. A cemetery that derives its primary importance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or

e. A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or f. A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own exceptional significance; or

g. A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.

Evaluation

This study does not seek to provide definitive answers on National Register eligibility and listing, because perceptions related to significance change over time. New research, additional studies and as always, the separation from the period of significance that only time can provide will ultimately provide more understanding of this period and its buildings. The professional's understanding of the postwar context will expand, and precedent will inform future evaluation and listing. The process of delving into a mid-century residential housing development will grow easier and future evaluations will in turn become more consistent.

The foundation for documenting and placing into context the post-war suburb in Louisville is to first approach the unit (the subdivision) from within its likely theme (post-war housing along Bardstown Road and the community builder, for example) and evaluate any archival material that can be located relating to the subdivision.

Prior to beginning any study of a subdivision in Jefferson County, the researcher should first determine whether or not it is an officially recorded subdivision in a plat. The first step would be to consult the Louisville /Jefferson County Information Consortium (LOJIC) system to determine the subdivision's name and boundaries.⁷¹² After determining the veracity of the subdivision as an entity, the next item to be examined should be the official plat. All sections of the plat must be identified. Evaluating a post-war subdivision based on only one section of the overall development is like evaluating only one-third of a historic house and disregarding the rest. Based on the time period and location with Jefferson County, the surveyor should be able to make an educated guess about the appropriate development category of the subdivision.

Next, the surveyor should conduct archival research. The archives of the *Courier-Journal* and *Louisville Magazine* are obvious sources, and through an examination of advertisements and articles, the surveyors can determine

1. Whether or not they are dealing with a development associated with an operative or community builder, which tended to be larger-scale subdivisions of over 100 parcels or a small-scale subdivision, which tended to be more of a mom and pop operation. If the latter is the case, the availability of primary sources within print media may be scant. This does not mean that the subdivision is not eligible or important! It simply means that

⁷¹² LOJIC is a multi-agency effort to provide a comprehensive Geographic Information System (GIS) to serve all of the Louisville Metro area.

a more exhaustive search of primary sources, including chain-of-title and oral history efforts are the best tools for fleshing out the context of the subdivision.

2. Only after the first step has been completed should the surveyor then conduct the field work. The reason for this is that too often, especially in the case of Section 106 undertakings, the only Criterion that is addressed is Criterion C. This is simply not acceptable when dealing with post-war subdivisions in Louisville. While the aspects of integrity tend to deal more with material changes (based on the form of the resource and its architectural style, if any) that are grounded in Criterion C, this cannot be completely avoided. But given the difficulty of assessing these resources of the recent past, establishing a firm background of the subdivision's origination and history is vital to being able to view and evaluate it appropriately, with as few preconceptions as possible.

Types of Suburban Development in Louisville, Jefferson County

- Railroad Suburbs, 1830-1890
- Streetcar and Interurban Suburbs, 1870-1930
- Early Automobile Suburbs, 1910-1945
- Post-War Suburbs, 1945-1970

Types of Builders in Louisville

- The Subdivider: Small-scale development, acquiring and surveying land, developing a plan, laying out building lots and roads, and improving the site. The subdivider operated through all of the period of significance; most of the truck farms along Dixie Highway were developed this way prior to World War II.
- The Home Builder: a turn-of-the-twentieth-century builder, constructing houses on a small number of lots in order to increase marketability for the entire subdivision. The houses simply made the land more valuable and selling the land remained the first priority. It took years for a subdivision of this type to come to fruition, but the presence of homes increased buyer confidence.
- The Community Builder: The community builder was a real estate entrepreneur acquiring large tracts developed according to a plan; this type of builder often hired design professionals and valued proximity to schools, shopping, churches, and employment. Community builders were more concerned with long-range planning issues, often using

deed restrictions and promoting zoning.⁷¹³ The most common type of builder in eastern Louisville until after World War II. Examples in Louisville include C.C. Hieatt and William F. Randolph, among many others.

- The Operative Builder: took control of the entire operation, building more houses and phasing construction as money became available. The FHA gave the speculative builder the kinder name "operative builder" in 1934. In 1944 Miles Colean noted that operative builders were of growing importance, but "don't dominate the industry."⁷¹⁴ By 1949; however, a survey estimated that 41 percent of all new single family houses were erected by operative builders. Speculative, or operative builders, were replacing contractors by the early 1950s. During this time, the extension of building regulations, subdivision regulations, and planning controls meant that there was a sharp decrease in owner built houses without municipal services.⁷¹⁵ The Paschal Brothers were operative builders.
- The Merchant Builder: Merchant builders used the processes of mass construction, standardization, and prefabrication for their large-scale developments. This type of builder also acquired large tracts of land, but laid out subdivisions according to F.H.A. standards and was able to quickly construct vast numbers of houses. Merchant builders sold "both a home and a lifestyle."⁷¹⁶ Merchant builders blurred the lines between general contractor and operative builder by erecting model homes and then pre-selling them to clients with a range of options.⁷¹⁷ Examples of merchant builders in Louisville include Crawford Homes (Highgate Springs) and Trinity Corporation (Lynnview and Raleigh Subdivision). Nationally, large-scale corporate builders, such as William Levitt fit this profile.
- The Dealer and Dealer-Erector: Gunnison and other pre-fabricated subdivisions in the post-World War II period, like Clifford Knopf and Buechel Terrace. Dealer-erectors could concentrate efforts within a relatively local market, benefit from factory mass production and erection economies, and keep site expenses down. They were also on site when the manufacturer could not be, were familiar with local building codes and zoning, used local labor, and decreased community resistance to the development.⁷¹⁸

⁷¹³ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, 26-27.

⁷¹⁴ Colean, American Housing Problems and Prospects, p. 64.

⁷¹⁵ Harris, "The Birth of the Housing Consumer in the United States, 1918-1950," p. 526.

⁷¹⁶ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*, p. 28.

⁷¹⁷ Richard Harris and Michael Buzzelli, "House Building in the Machine Age, 1920s-1970s: Realities and Perceptions of Modernisation in North America and Australia," in *Business History*, vol. 47, no. 1, (2005), p. 66. ⁷¹⁸ Kelly, *The Prefabrication of Houses*, p. 379.

Post-War Housing Evaluation

Under Criterion A, a mid-twentieth century residential housing development in Jefferson County may be eligible for listing when one of the following applies:

• The neighborhood reflects an important historic trend in the development and growth of a locality or metropolitan area.

For example, the development outside of the traditional city boundaries of Louisville in the late 1940s through the 1960s. Suburban development along major transportation arteries such as Dixie Highway and Bardstown Road represents the push outward from the city core.

• The suburb represents an important event or association, such as the expansion of housing associated with wartime industries during World War II, or the racial integration of suburban neighborhoods in the 1950s.

Industrial expansion associated with a major manufacturer, such as Ford Motor Company or GE.

- The suburb introduced conventions of community planning important in the history of suburbanization, such as zoning, deed restrictions, or subdivision regulations.
- The neighborhood is associated with the heritage of social, economic, racial, or ethnic groups important in the history of a locality of metropolitan area.
- The suburb is associated with a group of individuals, including merchants, industrialists, educators, and community leaders, important in the history and development of a locality or metropolitan area.

Criterion B applies to mid-twentieth century residential housing developments in Jefferson County when:

• The Neighborhood is directly associated with the life and career of an individual who made important contributions to the history of a locality or metropolitan area.

For example, the subdivisions associated with C.C. Hieatt or William F. Randolph of the Wakefield-Davis Company.

Criterion C applies to mid-twentieth century residential housing developments in Jefferson County when:

- The collection of residential architecture is an important example of a distinctive period of construction, method of construction, or the work of one or more notable architects Buechel Terrace could be eligible as post-World War II, prefabricated housing subdivision under Criterion C.
- The suburb reflects principles of design important in the history of community planning and landscape architecture, or is the work of a master landscape architect, site planner, or design firm.

• The subdivision embodies high artistic value through its overall plan or the design of entrance ways, streets, homes, and community spaces.

Criterion D applies to mid-twentieth century residential housing developments in Jefferson County when:

• The neighborhood is likely to yield important information about vernacular house types, yard design, gardening practices, and patterns of domestic life.

Integrity

The issue of integrity may be one of the most complicated issues when it comes to evaluating post-war housing. The number of resources is again a concern. Ames and McClelland point out some key aspects to keep in mind when weighing the overall integrity of the subdivision resource:

- The integrity of historic characteristics such as the overall spatial design (setbacks and density), circulation network, and vegetation, as well as the integrity of individual homes should be considered.
- Integrity depends on the context of a metropolitan area's pattern of suburbanization and the condition of comparable neighborhoods in the area,
- The loss or relocation of a few feature does not usually result in the loss of integrity in an entire subdivision; however, the loss of entire streets or sections of the plan might.
- Cumulative alterations and additions to large numbers of dwellings, lot subdivision (especially after the POS) and a large percentage of infill may threaten the overall historic character of the subdivision.
- Integrity cannot be measured simply by the number of contributing and noncontributing resources. The impact of changes must be measured against the feeling of the whole unit

 historic and contemporary views may be compared through old photographs, news clipping and promotional brochure to determine the extent to which the general design, character, and feeling of the historic subdivisions are intact.⁷¹⁹

⁷¹⁹ Ames and McClelland, *Historic Residential Suburbs*

Chapter 8. The Study Corridors

Dixie Highway

Dixie Highway begins an "an urban street, turning into a suburban artery traveling south-southwest through the heart of Shively, Pleasure Ridge Park, Valley Station, and Kosmosdale, before becoming a rural highway in the very tip of Jefferson County and then continuing to Fort Knox and Nashville."⁷²⁰



Figure 8. 1 Dixie Highway and Seventh Street in Shively, 1923.⁷²

Dixie Highway in Jefferson County, one of the two corridors studied for this project, is by its existence defined by the changing trends of transportation. Its ready access to the city as well as its rural nature as the roadway moves south promoted its first period of suburban growth after the Civil War. Industrial growth in the corridor constitutes a second wave of development that spans the late-nineteenth century to World War II. Industries located in the corridor based on proximity

⁷²⁰ Kleber, John. "Dixie Highway," in the *Encyclopedia of Louisville*. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 249. ⁷²¹ <u>ULPA 1994.18.0374</u> Herald Post Collection, 1994.18, Special Collections, University of Louisville, Louisville,

Kentucky. http://digital.library.louisville.edu/cdm/ref/collection/heraldpost/id/365

to downtown, the river, and the railroad, but also because of available, cheap land, which was traditionally not as highly prized by agriculturalists as land in the eastern part of the county. The second wave of development included the influx of distilleries locating in the area in the 1930s at the end of Prohibition. The third building cycle developed in tandem with the rise of the automobile, ushering in a frenzy of post-war housing and commercial development. These three themes defined the foundation of the post-war suburbs along Dixie Highway.

Early Development

Southwestern Jefferson County, the location of the Dixie Highway Corridor, lagged behind in development than other parts of Jefferson County; as an agricultural area it lacked the rich, welldrained soil of the northeastern and southeastern sections of the county. A proposed town by the name of Williamsville was platted in 1792 "on land at the mouth of the Salt River."⁷²² Much like its counterpart of Transylvania in northeastern Jefferson County, the community never amounted to much, except for a "few cabins which are said to have washed away in early floods."⁷²³

Transportation improvements in the mid-nineteenth century encouraged further development of farms in the area. The southwestern Jefferson County artery known as Dixie Highway stretches 18.8 miles from Broadway to the Hardin County line. Now part of the extensive US Highway 31W highway system (Figure 8.2), the road's history traces back to the early nineteenth century, when it was a section of the Louisville and Nashville Turnpike.

⁷²² Tom Owen. "Southwest Jefferson County." Manuscript from a driving tour, on file at the University of Louisville Archives. ⁷²³ Ibid.



Figure 8. 2 Route of Dixie Highway.

Governor Joseph Desha championed the construction of two turnpikes for the state in 1825, "one being a Louisville-Nashville route," though construction didn't commence for several years.⁷²⁴ The Louisville, West Point and Elizabethtown Turnpike Road Company received a charter from the Kentucky legislature in 1829. Construction delays resulted in a new charter being issued in 1833.

Subsequent revisions, amendments and charters led to the turnpike company splitting into five sections, each managed by a separate company. The five sections included (1) Louisville to the mouth of the Salt River at West Point (2) West Point to Elizabethtown (3) Elizabethtown to Bell's Tavern (4) Bell's Tavern to Bowling Green (5) Bowling Green to the state line. The entire route covered 143 miles.⁷²⁵ A toll gate was erected every five miles on the macadamized road, which was ultimately completed in 1850.⁷²⁶

This storied route hosted many names over the years, including the Louisville and Elizabethtown Turnpike and the Valley Pike. In 1874 completion of the Elizabethtown and Paducah Railroad, built parallel to Dixie Highway, further increased transportation and development opportunities in this area of Jefferson County.

The Louisville and Interurban Railroad Company, introduced to the county in 1893, ran a line through the area to Valley Station in 1904, with an extension reaching Orell in 1908.⁷²⁷ By 1935, service on these Interurban lines discontinued, as the popularity of automobiles soared with the public.

The location of distilleries along Dixie Highway following Prohibition also helped shape the corridor's transformation from truck farm mecca to suburban nucleus. As discussed in Chapter 5, the wealth of the distilleries prompted covetous longing in Louisville's city leaders, and was largely responsible for Shively incorporating in 1938. The amenities of Dixie Highway facilitated the construction activities of not only Brown-Foreman, but seven other distilleries. The Stitzel-Weller Distillery, located at Ralph Avenue on the west side of Dixie Highway, opened on Derby Day 1935.

The firm of Bernheim Brothers, founded by Isaac Wolfe Bernheim and his brother Bernard, in Paducah in 1782, moved to Louisville in 1888. Travel, by rail and river, made operating in the Falls City a sound business decision. Construction on the Bernheim Distillery commenced in 1897, on Bernheim Lane, between the Illinois Central Railroad Tracks and Dixie Highway.

⁷²⁴ Katherine L. House "Louisville and Nashville Turnpike," in *The Kentucky Encyclopedia*. Ed John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2000), 580.

⁷²⁵ Rachel Kennedy and William J. Macintire. *Roadside Architecture of Kentucky's Dixie Highways*. (Frankfort, Kentucky: The Kentucky Heritage Council, 2004), 3.

⁷²⁶ House, 580.

⁷²⁷ James Burnley Calvert. "Interurbans," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 418.

The Frankfort Distillery (Figure 8.3), founded in 1902, also located on Dixie Highway after the end of Prohibition. The 1934 photograph in Figure 8.3 illustrates the sprawling complex type common to distilleries, with an almost terrace-like effect of brick structures of varying heights, punctuated by smokestacks.



Figure 8. 3 Frankfort Distillery on Dixie Highway.

Existing neighborhoods (including Algonquin Place and Sunnydale, see pages 254 and 283) along Dixie Highway at the time provided ready workers for the distilleries, and new developments were planned and constructed to take advantage of the proximity of the distilleries, tobacco warehouses and other industrial and manufacturing concerns located near the railroad. Though the Great Depression and the forced conversion during World War II negatively impacted the distilleries, employment there continued to be a draw as Dixie Highway entered its busiest period of growth in the 1950s. By the 1970s, consolidation and declining bourbon sales forced the closure of many distilleries along Dixie Highway.⁷²⁸

In 1954, planners, engineers and residents alike expressed concern over the unchecked and chaotic growth along Dixie Highway. Some 16,000 people lived along Dixie Highway in 1954, and planner Erwin E. Hoffman, commissioned to undertake a study of development patterns

⁷²⁸ Michael J. Veach. "Distilleries," in *The Encyclopedia of Louisville*. Ed John Kleber. (Lexington, Kentucky: The University Press of Kentucky, 2001), 249.

along Dixie Highway, postulated that the "commercial zoning on the highway and the present or future population nearby have no relationship to each other."⁷²⁹

From Shively to the Salt River, a 13.4-mile stretch, 44 changes of zoning had been approved since 1944. The highway had at the time "23 motels and tourist courts, 44 restaurants and taverns, six trailer parks and 16 grocery stores."⁷³⁰ Harland Bartholomew and Associates, the St. Louis firm that developed Louisville's first comprehensive city plan in the late 1920s, estimated that population along Dixie Highway would increase 270 percent by 1980.⁷³¹

The Dixie Highway corridor today bears only a passing resemblance to its 1954 self. It is one of Jefferson County's busiest roads, and the commercial landscape of stores, restaurants and billboards is continually evolving. Many of the roadside architectural gems that defined the driving experience for the 1950s motorist have disappeared and been replaced, but behind the cacophony of the strip are residential neighborhoods which held a world of promise to post-war first-time homeowners.

The first section of Chapter 8 covers the intensively surveyed subdivisions in the Dixie Highway study corridor:

- Algonquin Place (1928-1960s)
- De Nada Gates (1955-1960s)
- Sunnydale (1925-1940s)
- Valley View (1952-1967)
- Woodmere Heights (1960s)

Three of the subdivisions are inside the Watterson (I-264), and two are located outside of the Watterson. Figure 8.4 presents a view of the subdivisions in the study corridor; more detailed maps are within each subdivision section.

⁷²⁹ Grady Clay. "Is There Too Much Commercial Zoning on Dixie Highway?" *The Courier-Journal*. November 21, 1954, section 4, page 23.

⁷³⁰ Ibid.

⁷³¹ Ibid.

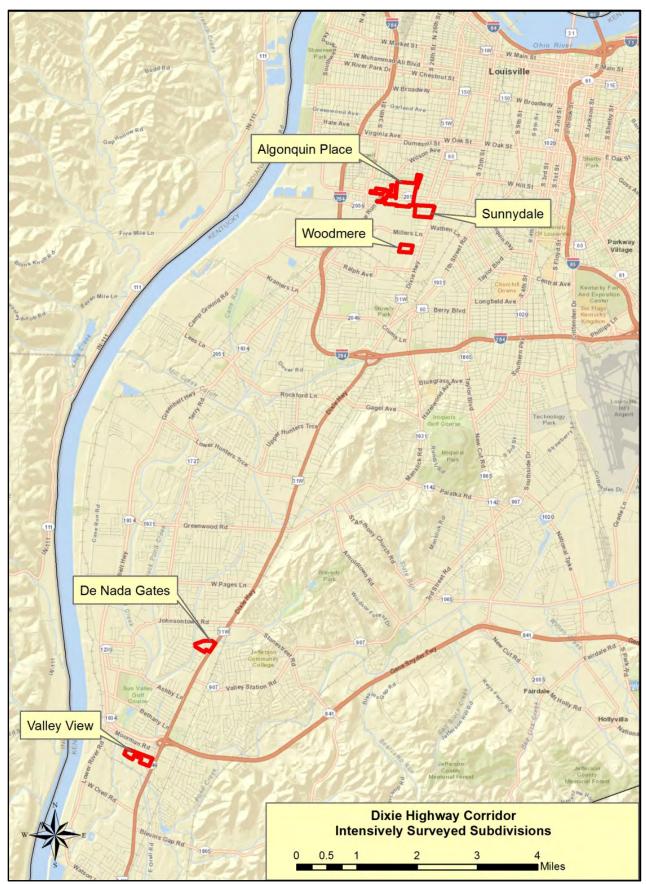


Figure 8. 4 The intensively surveyed subdivisions in the Dixie Highway Corridor.

Algonquin Place (1928-1960s)

L. Leroy Highbaugh Sr. & L. Leroy Highbaugh, Jr., Developers

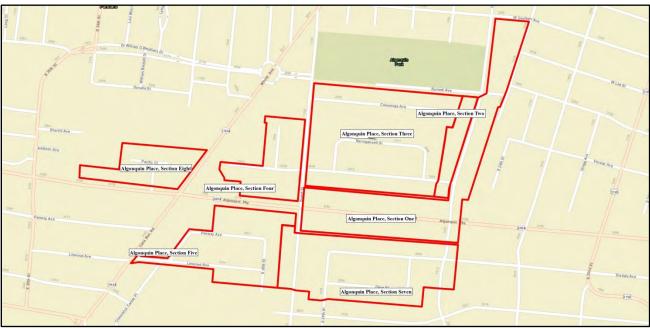


Figure 8. 5 Map of Algonquin Place, all sections.

Algonquin Place subdivision was platted, beginning in 1928, by L. Leroy Highbaugh Sr. and L. Leroy Highbaugh Jr. Development continued into the 1960s. Located off Dixie Highway, or U.S. 31 W, Algonquin Place is located "inside" (north of) the Henry Watterson Expressway, or I-264. The Kentucky & Indiana Terminal Railroad Company right-of-way ran halfway through sections two and three; this was the first line to be electrified in Louisville. A newspaper clipping in the Algonquin Place file in the subdivision records at the Louisville Metro Archive indicated that the Highbaughs were issued building permits for eighty-six more homes built on the "south side of Algonquin Parkway and Cane Run Road." The clipping also indicates that the Highbaughs "are building 60 similar homes on 10 acres on the north side of the parkway." These were likely Algonquin Place, sections four and five. The article also indicates that the new homes would cover eighteen acres and would rent for \$67.50 a month or sell for \$7,250. Even today, some of these homes are owned by neighborhood investment corporations and may be publically subsidized rental housing.

Algonquin Place is composed of eight sections (not counting section nine which was likely developed and then sold). Sections one (1928) and two (1939) were developed by L. Leroy Highbaugh Sr. and L. Leroy Highbaugh Jr. and Stonestreet & Ford, Surveyors & Engineers.



Figure 8. 6 Aerial view of all sections of Algonquin Place.

Sections three (1941), four (1950), five (1959), and seven (1951) were developed by L. Leroy Highbaugh Sr. and L. Leroy Highbaugh Jr. and Frank D. King. There is no section six. Sections eight and eight revised (1960/1964) were developed by "Algonquin Village Homes – a corporation owner and developer" and King and Pitan, Engineers. Section nine of Algonquin Place was platted by Leroy Highbaugh Jr. – Builder, Inc. (owner and developer) and King & Pitan, Engineers, but may have been sold after it was developed. It is now the Hallmark Estates subdivision and; therefore, is not included as part of Algonquin Place.

Deed restrictions in Algonquin Place required that all buildings be single family residential, no more than two stories, and with a detached garage for no more than two cars. Setbacks on the original plat were strictly enforced and lots had to be at least 5,000 square feet and forty-five feet wide. Homes were also required to cost at least \$3,000. The ground floor of single story homes had to be at least 700 square feet (exclusive of porches/garages) and at least 600 square feet for one- and one-half or two story homes. Noxious or offensive trades or activities which may be nuisances or annoyances were prohibited. Residents were restricted to those of the "Caucasian race" except in the case of "domestic servants" living with the homeowner. No outbuilding or temporary constructions could be used as a residence. Fences had to be four feet high, located at the rear of the house, and built out of "wire, pickets, or hedge." Outbuildings had to be "under one roof," detached, and at the rear of the lot (except for garages which could be attached to the house).

Property Types Found in Algonquin Place 732

Algonquin Place								
Section	Type A (Cape Cod)	Type B (Minimal Traditional)	Type C (Front Gable)	Type D (Dutch Colonial)	Type E (Ranch)	U	Α	Total
1	54	24	10	0	0	2	3	93
2	5	9	0	1	0	0	0	15
3	58	31	75	0	0	3	0	167
4	52	0	8	0	0	0	0	60
5	81	0	10	0	0	0	0	91
7	115	0	14	0	9	0	1	139
8	1	1	0	0	19	0	0	21
8R	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	15
Total	366	65	117	1	43	5	4	601

Type A: The Cape Cod

The Cape Cod house occurs in a number of variations within this subdivision. The Cape Cod is considered a plan; however, certain stylistic features have become associated. The basic version is a 1.5 story house with a central front door, steeply-pitched side gable roof, and three-bay-wide, two-pile-deep dimensions. Typically there is a gable end chimney and, often, there are gable roof dormers. The most common variation is a Tudor Revival style Cape Cod with a steeply-pitched, gable roof projecting entrance bay (sometimes with one slope extending down across the façade); sometimes these Tudor Revival-influenced Cape Cods have arched doorways, original arched front doors, or small diamond pane windows framing the front door. Another variation is a Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod with a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of its main roof. An unusual variation found in this subdivision that has a lesser impact on the plan of the house is a Cape Cod with an original oriel window projecting from its façade.

⁷³² 8R refers to Section 8, revised. "U" refers to an unknown property type, while "A" is an anomaly.



Figure 8.7 Type A: 2606 Algonquin Parkway (above-left) and 2717 Algonquin Parkway (above-right).

Type B: The Minimal Traditional

A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is becoming more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod house by its front-projecting gable roof façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cods have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing.



Figure 8. 8 Type B: 2613 Algonquin Parkway.

Type C: The Front-gable House

The front gable house is defined, mainly, by its front gable roof, gable orientation, and long, narrow footprint. These houses, within the study area, typically have off-center, gable roof front porches; these porches sometimes project beyond integral front corner porches and sometimes not. Front gable houses in the study area are typically 1.5 stories with a window in the gable area of the façade and, often, with a secondary side entrance.



Figure 8. 9 Type C: 1847 Cypress Street (above-left) and 1808 Beech Street (above-right).

Type D: Dutch Colonial

The Dutch Colonial house is a Colonial Revival type most readily identified by its gambrel roof and resulting second story living space. These homes are often frame, several bays wide and two piles deep, with Colonial Revival style details. There is only one example in this section of the subdivision.



Figure 8. 10 Type D: 1824 Cypress Street.

Type E: Ranch House

Ranch houses in this subdivision have a variety of roof forms including hipped, front gable, and side gable. Many were built with attached garages whereas others have car ports or detached garages. Attached garages either share the main hipped roof or are set back from the main house and have a separate hipped roof. Car ports either share the main hipped roof or have a separately-hipped roof. In this section, many ranch houses are oriented the long way on their narrow lots; many of the houses with this orientation have front entrances set back from a front-projecting, hipped roof wing. Only one of these had a front gable roof.



Figure 8. 11 Type E: 1932 S. 28th Street (above-left and 3303 Pacific Court (above-right).

Section 1

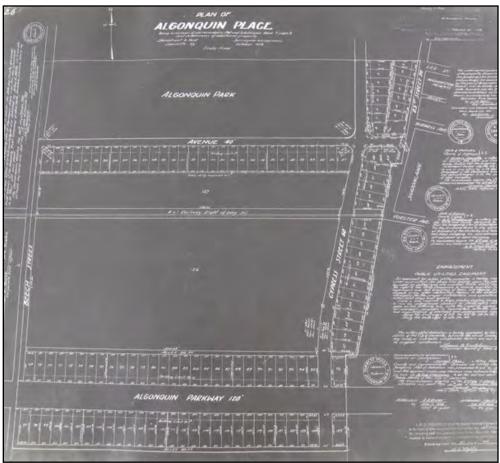


Figure 8. 12 Plat of Section One of Algonquin Place.

Section One, platted in 1928 and always noted only as "Algonquin Place", retains all of its original lots. There are no vacant lots. The lot with current address 1713 Cypress Street was originally a portion of the Kentucky & Indiana Terminal Railway right-of-way and no house was ever built on it; a small outbuilding (likely for 1711 Cypress Street) is located on the lot today. Most parcels were fifty feet wide and approximately 140 feet deep with a 30 foot setback or building limit indicated. A ten-foot public utility easement ran behind parcels and sporadic 2 foot easements between parcels were indicated throughout. At 1702 S. 25th Street, Section One retains a T-plan house which appears to be the original frame farmhouse.

There are 93 total houses in Section One including the Cape Cod (**Type A**), Minimal Traditional (**Type B**), and Front Gable (**Type C**). Most of the houses (58 percent) are Cape Cods (**Type A**), followed by 26 percent Minimal Traditional (**Type B**), and 11 percent Front Gable (**Type C**).

The most common variation on the Cape Cod house in Section One is a Tudor Revival style Cape Cod with a steeply-pitched, gable roof projecting entrance bay (sometimes with one slope extending down across the façade); sometimes these Tudor Revival-influenced Cape Cods have arched doorways, original arched front doors, or small diamond pane windows framing the front door. Another variation is a Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod with a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of its main roof. An unusual variation found in this subdivision that has a lesser impact on the plan of the house is a Cape Cod with an original oriel window projecting from its façade.

For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod house by its front-projecting gable roof façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cods have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing. Front gable houses in the study area are typically 1.5 stories with a window in the gable area of the façade and, often, with a secondary side entrance.



Figure 8. 13 *An example of a Type B(Minimal Traditional house) in Section One,* 2600 *Algonquin Parkway.*



Figure 8. 14 An example of the most common property Type in Section One, the Cape Cod (Type A). This example is at 2606 Algonquin Parkway.

Section 2

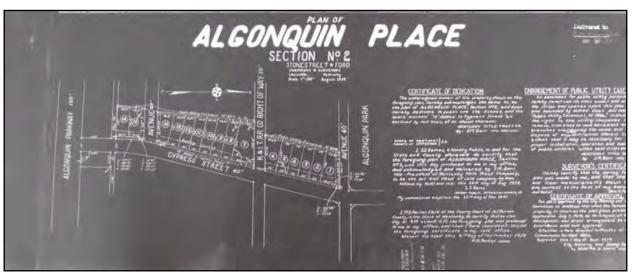


Figure 8. 15 Plat of Section Two of Algonquin Place.

Section Two, platted in 1939, contains fifteen single family residences today although it originally had sixteen platted lots. Most parcels were fifty feet wide and 135-180 feet deep with an unspecified setback or building limit indicated by a dashed line. Along the rear of parcels is a ten-foot public utility easement. It was also indicated that ten feet were added to Cypress Street. The line of parcels was broken only by the Kentucky & Indiana Terminal Railroad Company right-of-way.

House types include the Cape Cod (**Type A**), Minimal Traditional (**Type B**), and Dutch Colonial (**Type D**). Type A accounts for 33 percent of the types in Section 2, while Type B makes up 60 percent and Type D 7 percent. The most common variation of the Cape Cod in this section is a Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod with a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of its main roof. There is only one Dutch Colonial house in Section Two.



Figure 8. 16 An example of the most common property type in Section 2, *Type B. This example is located at 1702 Cypress Street.*

Section Three

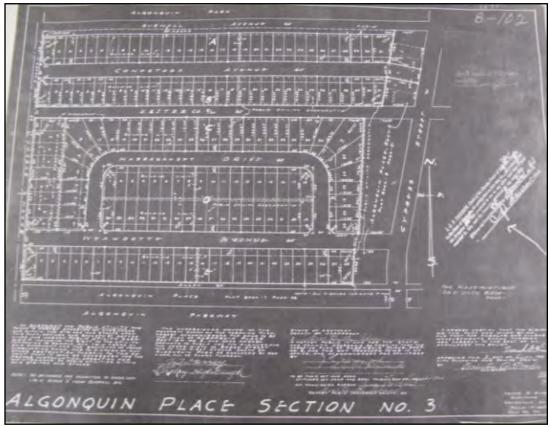


Figure 8. 17 The plat of Section Three of Algonquin Place.

Section Three, platted in 1941, contains 167 total single family residences today. Parcels were originally platted in blocks A-E. Most parcels were 33-45 feet wide and 126-131 feet deep with a twenty-five foot setback or building limit. There were ten-foot public utility easements along the rear of parcels.

House types include the Cape Cod (**Type A**), Minimal Traditional (**Type B**), and Front Gable (**Type C**). Section Three shows a change with its increase in both the number of front gable houses as well as in vinyl-sided frame; there is a distinct decrease in the number of brick veneered houses. Front gable houses (**Type C**) are actually the highest proportion (45 percent) in this section, followed by Cape Cod (**Type A**) at 35 percent and Minimal Traditional (**Type B**) at 18 percent. This move to front gable houses (narrow and long) corresponds with narrower parcel sizes in Section Three as compared to the previous two sections.

A common variation on the Cape Cod house in this section of the subdivision is a Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod with a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of its main roof. Additionally, a number of Cape Cod houses in this section have oriel windows in their gable ends. An interesting variation on the Minimal Traditional house in this section is provided by a shallow, front-projecting, gable roof bay which often overhangs the foundation much like the oriel windows found on the facades of homes in section one of this subdivision; this feature occurs either alone or along with a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof. Front gable houses in this section are typically 1.5 stories with a window in the gable area of the façade; some have an oriel window toward the rear of the side elevation. This section contains many more front gable homes as compared to the first two sections.



Figure 8. 18 *An example of the Front Gable (Type C) type in Section Three. This example is located at 2812 Narragansett Drive.*



Figure 8. 19 An example of Type B in Section Three. This example is located at 2913 Narragansett Drive.

Section Four

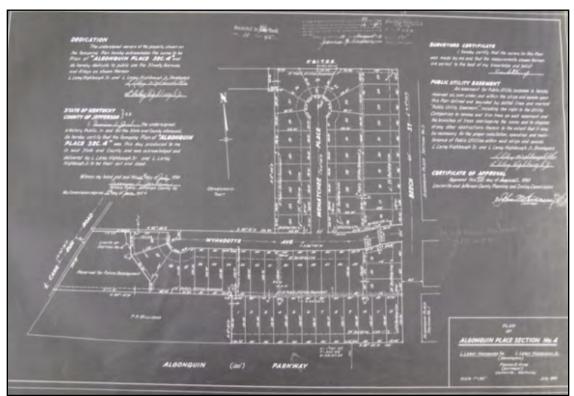


Figure 8. 20 Plat of Section Four of Algonquin Place.

Section Four, platted in 1950, has sixty total houses today including the Cape Cod (**Type A**) and Front Gable (**Type C**). Most parcels are 40-48 feet wide and 109-131 feet deep with a 25 foot setback or building limit. Public utility easements of ten feet ran at the rear of parcels and, occasionally, between them. A cul-de-sac on Wenatchee Place was included in the plat of this section. The Cape Cod (**Type A**) comprises an overwhelming majority of the houses at 87 percent.

A common variation in this section is a Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod with a frontfacing gable roof on the front slope of its main roof; the front-facing gable roof is moved to the right, left, or center for variation. Some homes have their central door sheltered by bracketed, gable roof hoods while others are sheltered by shed roof porches with square-sided supports. Some are sheltered by wide, bracketed, extensions of the front slope of the roof which shelter not only the front door but also a façade window. Front gable houses in this section typically have central doors sheltered by awnings or bracketed shed roof porches. Front gable houses typically have secondary, side entrances sometimes sheltered by porches.



Figure 8. 21 An example of Type A in Section Four. This example is located at 1806 Beech Street.

Section Five

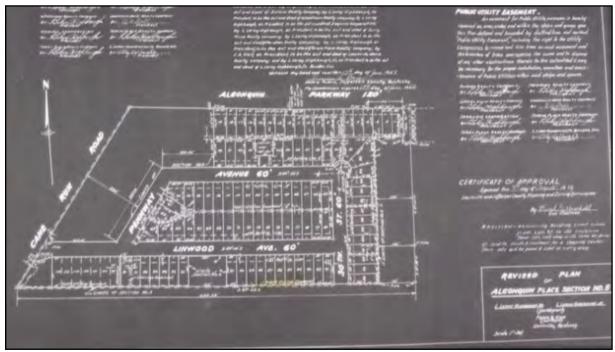


Figure 8. 22 Plat of Section Five of Algonquin Place.

Section Five, platted/revised in 1959, contains ninety-one total houses today including the Cape Cod (**Type A**) and Front Gable (**Type C**). A *Courier*-Journal article from 1951 noted that the Louisville Planning & Zoning Commission had approved construction plans in Section Five on the condition that surface drainage issues would be fully addressed. Those issues, they said, had not yet been addressed and the subdivision itself could not yet be approved.⁷³³ These issues are indicated by the revised plat date of 1959 for Section Five.

Most parcels in this section are 40-50 feet wide and 121-125 feet deep with a twenty-five foot setback or building limit. Public utility easements were indicated along the rear of parcels and, occasionally, running between. Interestingly, the plat for Section Five includes a small cemetery between parcels #24 and #25.

The Cape Cod (**Type A**) predominates at 89 percent of the total houses in this section. One common variation of the Cape Cod in this section a Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod with a either a central or off-center, front-facing gable roof on the front slope of its main roof, but without an actual front-projecting bay or wing. Cape Cod houses in this section of the

⁷³³ *Courier-Journal*, Louisville, Saturday, January 27, 1951, Section 1, p. 6.

subdivision differ mainly in porches (either extensions of the main slope of the roof, central shed roof porches, or bracketed hoods). Only one example in this section has Tudor Revival influence with a gable roof, front-projecting entrance bay at the center of its façade. Front Gable houses within this section have front doors typically sheltered by bracketed, shed roof hoods or off-center, gable roof front porches.



Figure 8. 23 *An example of Type A in Section 5. This example is located at 3007 Linwood Avenue.*

Section Seven

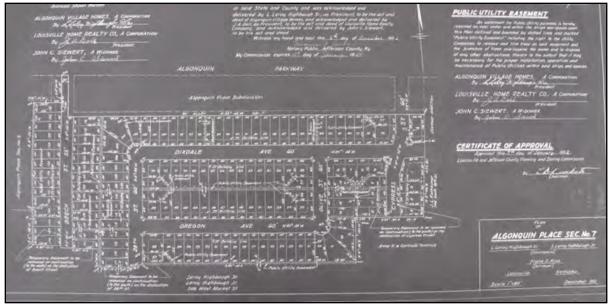


Figure 8. 24 Plat of Section Seven of Algonquin Place.

Section Seven, platted in 1951, contains 139 total houses today including the Cape Cod (**Type A**), Front Gable (**Type C**), and Ranch (**Type E**). Most parcels are 40-50 feet wide and 125 feet deep with a twenty-five foot setback or building line. Public utility easements are indicated along the rear of parcels and, occasionally, running between. The Cape Cod (**Type A**) again predominates at 85 percent of the total houses followed by the Front Gable (**Type C**), at 10 percent and the Ranch (**Type E**) at 6 percent. There is one bungalow at 1929 Beech Street in this section which is considered an anomaly. It was almost certainly built here before this section was developed.

Cape Cod houses in this section of the subdivision differ mainly in porches (either extensions of the main slope of the roof, central shed roof porches, or bracketed hoods). Within this section, front gable houses have front doors typically sheltered by bracketed, shed roof hoods or off-center, gable roof front porches. Ranch houses in this subdivision have a variety of roof forms including hipped, front gable, and side gable. Many were built with attached garages whereas others have car ports or detached garages. Attached garages either share the main hipped roof or are set back from the main house and have a separate hipped roof. Car ports either share the main hipped roof or have a separately-hipped roof. In this subdivision, many ranch houses are oriented the long way on their narrow lots; many of the houses with this orientation have front gable roof.



Figure 8. 25 An example of Type A in Section 7. This example is located at 1934 Beech Street.

Section Eight

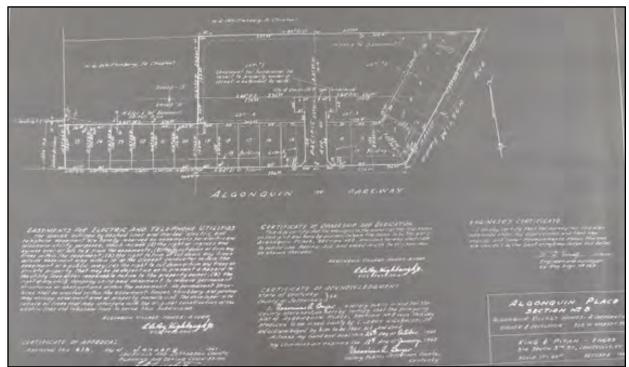


Figure 8. 26 Plat of Section Eight of Algonquin Place.

Section Eight, platted in 1960, consists of twenty-one total houses today including the Cape Cod (**Type A**), Minimal Traditional (**Type B**), and Ranch (**Type E**). Parcels in Section Eight are 60-70 feet wide and 125 feet deep with a twenty-five foot setback or building limit. Electric and telephone easements of fifteen feet are indicated along the rear of the parcels.

In this later section, the Ranch house (**Type E**) comprises 90 percent of the total subdivision with only one of each of the other types. Ranch houses in this section have a variety of roof forms including hipped, front gable, and side gable. Many were built with attached garages whereas others have car ports or detached garages. Attached garages either share the main hipped roof or are set back from the main house and have a separate hipped roof. Car ports either share the main hipped roof or have a separately-hipped roof. In this section, many ranch houses are oriented the long way on their narrow lots; many of the houses with this orientation have front entrances set back from a front-projecting, hipped roof wing. Only one of these had a front gable roof.



Figure 8. 27 *An example of Type E in Section 8. This example is located at 3311 Algonquin Parkway.*



Figure 8. 28 *An example of Type E oriented to fit on a narrow, deep lot. This example is located at 3319 Algonquin Parkway.*

Section Eight (Revised)

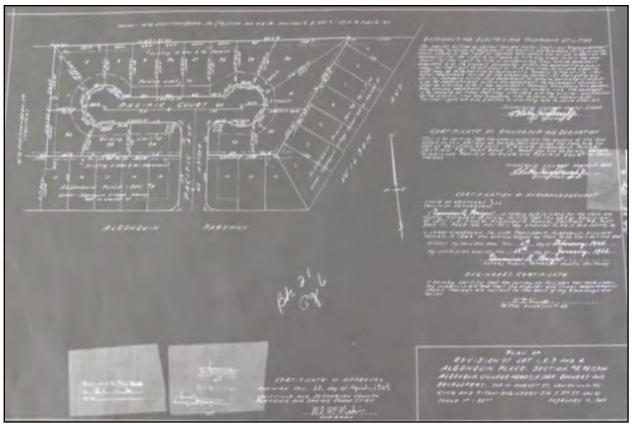


Figure 8. 29 Plat of Section Eight (Revised) of Algonquin Place.

Section Eight (Revised), platted in 1964, consists of fifteen total houses today and is comprised entirely of Ranch houses (**Type E**). Interestingly, it is built around a double cul-de-sac at Pacific Court. The double cul-de-sac was one of the most efficient plans possible in order to get the maximum houses into the minimum area. Parcels varied significantly due to the plan, but were approximately 41-37 feet wide and 73-131 feet deep with a 25 foot setback or building limit. A fifteen foot electric and telephone easement was indicated at the rear of parcels.

Ranch houses in this subdivision have both hipped and side gable roofs. Many were built with attached garages or car ports. Attached garages either share the main hipped roof or are set back from the main house and have a separate hipped roof. Car ports either share the main hipped roof or have a separate roof. In this section, attached two-car garages and attached garages with roll-up doors facing side (not front) are luxuries afforded by the larger lots of the double cul-de-sac. Normally the latter are attached to ranch houses turned the long way on their lots (and with front entrances set back and sometimes in their own hipped roof bays) to save some space.

Minimal traditional influenced ranch houses with gable roofs on the front slope of their main roofs are also found in this section (Figure 8.30).



Figure 8. 30 An example of the Minimal Traditional influenced ranch house at 3307 Pacific Court.



Figure 8. 31 Ranch house in Section Eight (Revised) at 3314 Pacific Court.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

The Algonquin Place subdivision is considered eligible for listing as a district in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to the broad patterns of suburban development in Louisville. Algonquin Place serves as a time capsule of development from the late 1920s through the 1960s. In this large scale subdivision, a record of changes in subdivision standards; national planning efforts; local planning & zoning; as well as broader architectural, social, and economic trends is reflected in the built landscape. Algonquin Place is also considered eligible under Criterion B for the contributions of its developers L. Leroy Highbaugh, Sr. and L. Leroy Highbaugh, Jr. to suburban development in Louisville; the Highbaughs developed another large subdivision called Brookhaven in the 1950s and 1960s. Highbaugh, who began by building dwellings for rental purposes, later developed thousands of single family dwellings in subdivisions throughout Jefferson County. There is also the possibility of nominating Algonquin Place thematically under a context examining the development of subdivisions retaining the historic home of the original landowner.

The most common changes to houses in Section One of Algonquin Place include cladding changes – the addition of aluminum or vinyl siding. These changes are considered removable providing they do not damage the original materials beneath. These types of cladding changes are also commonly found in Sections Three, Four, Five, and Seven. Other changes in Section One include the addition of dormers which is considered a major unsympathetic alteration. Only a handful of houses had this type of addition. Finally, a number of houses in Sections One and Two have modern aluminum awning style porch additions or awnings over windows. Awnings are not considered to affect eligibility. Vinyl replacement windows were common alterations found in Sections One, Two, Four, Five, Seven, Eight, and Eight (Revised). In Section Eight were a few attached garage additions.

Algonquin Place retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. These homes retain original setbacks, sidewalks, concrete curbs, driveways (some of the Hollywood type), and detached garages. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. Integrity of design and materials has been somewhat compromised in Section One by several Cape Cod houses with prominent full width shed roof dormer additions which basically increase the height of the house to two stories; these are sometimes at the front and sometimes at the rear. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Algonquin Place; these typically include aluminum or vinyl siding. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Most homes in Algonquin Place retain character-defining features such as porches, hoods, dormers, and decorative brackets and, therefore, have fairly high integrity of

workmanship. Aluminum awnings and awning style porches are often added later, but are not considered to compromise integrity.

Sunnydale (1925-1940s)

C. Robert Peter & Co, Developer



Figure 8. 32 Map of Sunnydale.

Dixie Highway, an important development corridor for automobile use, encouraged suburbanization at the fringe of Louisville. Sunnydale was platted in May 1925 by C. Robert Peter & Co., Owners & Developers, and was developed by Rodgers & Read, Engineers and Surveyors Incorporated. An approximately thirty-foot-wide right-of-way for the Louisville & Interurban Railway is indicated on the original plat map; the right-of-way runs between the platted lots along the eastern boundary of Sunnydale and Dixie Highway (then Eighteenth Street Road).⁷³⁴ Sunnydale was originally divided into 214 lots. Except for the six tapering, triangular lots abutting the railway right-of way, lots rarely vary from a forty foot width, but range from 102-139 feet deep. Lots fronting on Oregon Avenue and lots north of Allston Avenue tend to be the deepest.

⁷³⁴ "Sunnydale," 1928, Jefferson County Plat Book 5, p. 53, Louisville Metro Archives.



Figure 8. 33 Aerial view of Sunnydale.

Sunnydale lies "inside" (north of) the Henry Watterson Expressway, I-264. Sunnydale was outside the Louisville city limits when it was platted and remained so at least through 1928, according to the Sanborn Maps available. Its location along Dixie Highway and its convenient access to the Louisville & Interurban railway; however, meant that suburban life in this subdivision was a possibility for a middle class population with city jobs. Sunnydale was a subdivision developed in the early years of the automobile age; the fact that interurban travel was still important at the time meant that Sunnydale developers could capitalize on both modes of transportation. Many homes in Sunnydale do not have associated, detached garages or have garages which appear to be later constructions. There are a few early, frame detached garages. It may be that many of these frame garages did not survive; more likely, Sunnydale residents included a mixture of interurban and early automobile commuters.

A 1938 advertisement for a clapboard bungalow in Sunnydale noted the subdivision's "... city conveniences, but no city taxes." There was only a "... small cash payment and \$33 dollars monthly."⁷³⁵ Interestingly, a 1955 *Courier-Journal* article notes that severe drainage problems had already plagued Sunnydale residents for fifteen years. To help alleviate "ponding areas" of up to three feet, residents installed drainage pipes on their own time and with equipment obtained

⁷³⁵ "Sunnydale" in Houses for Sale, *Courier-Journal*, Louisville, Sunday morning, May 22, 1938, Section 5, p. 11.

free of charge. Residents also formed the Sunnydale Improvement Committee, raised money, surveyed, and drew up plans to submit to M.S.D. to tie into sewer lines. Their effort was ultimately successful.⁷³⁶

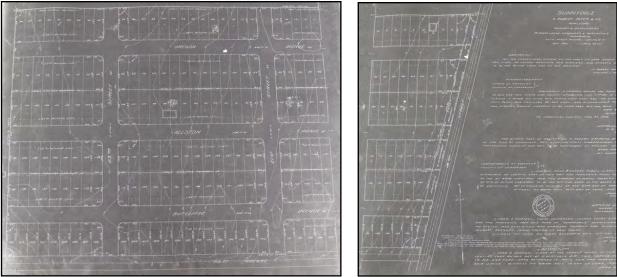


Figure 8. 34 Plat of Sunnydale (the plat was spread across two pages when recorded).

Character-defining features of Sunnydale include its grid plan; curbless, straight streets; sidewalks; driveways (some of the Hollywood type); lack of street lighting; and retaining walls along the front slopes of small hills on which some homes are built. At least some of the space along the eastern boundary of the subdivision, where the Louisville & Interurban Railway would have run, has been preserved. This maintains a buffer along Dixie Highway which preserves the integrity of design of the subdivision.

⁷³⁶ "'Orphans' Dig into Pockets and Ditches to Drain Subdivision off Algonquin," *Courier-Journal*, Louisville, Monday, October 17, 1955, Vol. 202, No. 109.

Property Types Found in Sunnydale

Sunnydale								
Type A (Bungalow)	Type B (Cape Cod)	Type C (Dutch Colonial)	Type D (Minimal Traditional)	Type E (Tudor Revival)	Type F (Front Gable)	Type G (Ranch)	Anomaly	Total
51	65	5	24	9	40	5	6	205

Type A: Bungalow

The bungalow is defined by its circular floor plan. It typically has a side gable roof and either an integral or shed roof front porch usually extending across nearly the full width of the facade. Bungalows are 1.5 stories typically with a gable- or hipped-roof dormer on the front slope of the main roof and, often, a dormer on the rear slope as well. Many have bay or oriel windows in their gable ends. Bungalows often have a full width rear porch as well. Most had Craftsman style features originally; these included exposed rafter tails, wide eave overhangs, Craftsman porches, and divided light Craftsman wooden windows. Bungalows can also be oriented in front gable fashion; this orientation is more typical of a southern bungalow.

Sunnydale is 25 percent Type A.



Figure 8. 35 *Type A examples in Sunnydale:: 1810 Oregon Avenue (above-left) and 1822 Oregon Avenue (above-right).*

Type B: Cape Cod

The Cape Cod house occurs in a number of variations within this subdivision. The Cape Cod is considered a plan; however, certain stylistic features have become associated. The basic version is a 1.5 story house with a central front door, steeply-pitched side gable roof, and three-bay-wide, two-pile-deep dimensions. Typically there is a gable end chimney and, often, there are gable roof dormers. The most common variation is a Tudor Revival style Cape Cod with a steeply-pitched, gable roof projecting entrance bay. An unusual variation found in this subdivision that has a lesser impact on the plan of the house is a Cape Cod with an original oriel window projecting from its façade.

Sunnydale is 32 percent Type B.



Figure 8. 36 *Type B examples in Sunnydale: 2106 Allston Avenue (above-left) and 2123 Ratcliffe Avenue (above-right).*

Type C: Dutch Colonial

The Dutch Colonial house is defined mainly by its gambrel roof and Colonial Revival style features. These houses are typically two full stories and may have dormers on the front and rear slope of their roofs. Most have central front entrances. There may be an attached, original, sunroom at one end of the house.

Sunnydale is 2 percent Type C.



Figure 8. 37 Dutch Colonial at 2100 Oregon Avenue.

Type D: Minimal Traditional

A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is becoming more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing.

Sunnydale is 12 percent Type D.



Figure 8. 38 *Type D examples in Sunnydale: 2313 Oregon Avenue (above-left) and 2303 Ratcliffe Avenue (above-right).*

Type E: Tudor Revival

The Tudor Revival house is defined mainly by its steeply-pitched, gable oriented rooflines. Most often, there are more than one of these and one is separated into a projecting bay containing the front entrance. Sometimes one of the roof slopes will extend down and across the façade. Arched window, porch, and door openings are typical. A tapering façade chimney with a large base as well as ornamental stone work is often present.

Sunnydale is 4 percent Type E.



Figure 8. 39 Type E example in Sunnydale at 1801 Allston Avenue.

Type F: Front Gable

The front gable house is defined, mainly, by its front gable roof, gable orientation, and long, narrow footprint. These houses, within the study area, typically have off-center, gable roof front porches; these porches sometimes project beyond integral front corner porches and sometimes not. Front gable houses in the study area are typically 1.5 stories with a window in the gable area of the façade and, often, with a secondary side entrance.

Sunnydale is 20 percent Type F.



Figure 8. 40 *Examples of Type F in Sunnydale: 2114 Oregon Avenue (above-left) and 2104 Ratcliffe Avenue (above- right).*

Type G: Ranch

The ranch house is distinguished by its horizontality and sprawling plan. These houses are usually one story high and two rooms deep. Ranch houses in this subdivision have a variety of roof forms including hipped, gable-on-hip, and side gable. Some were built with attached garages and others lacked garages.

Sunnydale is 2 percent Type G.



Figure 8. 41 Example of Type G in Sunnydale at 2310 Oregon Avenue.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

The Sunnydale Subdivision is considered eligible for listing as a district in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to the broad pattern of suburban development at Louisville's metropolitan fringe in the early automobile age. The subdivision developed outside the city limits during a critical transportation transition period in the 1920s. It provides evidence of how developers of the time wisely sought to locate a subdivision with access to both automobile and interurban transportation to encourage a wider variety of middle class commuters. Homes closest to Dixie Highway on both Oregon and Allston Avenues are often brick veneer bungalows or Tudor Revival style homes which appear to date to the 1920s. Homes farther west (away from Dixie Highway) on these streets, as well as homes on Ratcliffe Avenue, seem to have a period of construction closer to the 1940s. All houses in the subdivision appear to have been constructed in the 1925-1949 range besides the house at 2117 Allston which is a structural brick house that likely pre-dates the subdivision. Sunnydale is also considered eligible for the contributions of its developer, C. Robert Peter, to suburban development in Louisville. Peter developed at least three other subdivisions in Louisville. Finally, there is the possibility of nominating Sunnydale thematically under a context examining the development of subdivisions retaining the historic home of the original landowner.

Sunnydale retains strong integrity of association, feeling, location, and setting. These homes retain original setbacks, sidewalks, curbless streets, driveways, and detached garages. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. Integrity of materials is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Sunnydale; these include aluminum, asbestos, perma-stone, synthetic stone, or vinyl siding. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Other common alterations include rear ell additions. Homes in Sunnydale have a medium level of integrity of workmanship. Most retain character-defining features such as porches, hoods, sidelights, dormers, and decorative brackets. Many retain original front doors. Most commonly altered or removed are smaller features such as hoods, brackets, or louvered ventilators; hoods are sometimes transformed into porches through the addition of decorative metal supports and louvered ventilators are sometimes covered. Aluminum awnings and non-operable shutters are often added later, but these are not considered to affect integrity.

Woodmere Heights (1960s)

Woodmere Heights, Inc.



Figure 8. 42 Map of Woodmere Heights.

Woodmere Heights was officially platted in April 1960 by Woodmere Heights Inc., Owner, and Kerrick-Foster, Inc., Civil Engineers. Woodmere Heights has a gridiron plan, likely due to the fact that all its streets extend beyond the subdivision and its closer proximity to downtown Louisville. To the north and west of Woodmere Heights are large commercial enterprises which would have made expansion of the subdivision difficult. To the east of Woodmere Heights is a subdivision called Boonea Vista.

Parcels in Woodmere Heights are approximately 57-60 feet wide and 125-137 feet deep. A 30 foot minimum setback or building limit was established. Ten foot "sewer and drain" easements ran along the rear of parcels. The presence of "sanitary and storm" sewers on the plat indicates this was an area within the city limits of Louisville or annexed by it. Occasionally sewer lines were extended for larger subdivisions at the request of the developer. Because sewer easements extended along the rear of parcels, telephone and electric easements ran between parcels.

Woodmere Heights was originally divided into 66 parcels and all of those original parcels remain. At the western end of the block bounded north-south by Youngland Avenue and Nelson Avenue is what was labeled on the original plat as "alley" and today is an extension of Nelson Avenue. This "alley" is a fairly unusual feature on a plat from this time period and may simply have been a requirement of the Louisville Planning and Zoning Commission. Just south of



Figure 8. 43 Aerial view of Woodmere Heights.

Woodmere Heights appears to have been a piece of land purchased by Woodmere Heights, Inc. and divided into 17 or 18 parcels which were not developed along with this subdivision. This piece of land remains outside the subdivision boundaries. According to resident W.T. Dean, his side (1920 block of Youngland) of the subdivision is predominantly African American while houses on the other side mainly have white owners. It is suspected that Woodmere Heights was developed on a portion of "Youngland" owned by Bennett H. Young, a member of Morgan's Raiders and a Louisville business owner after the Civil War. Young's large brick house remains along Dixie Highway.

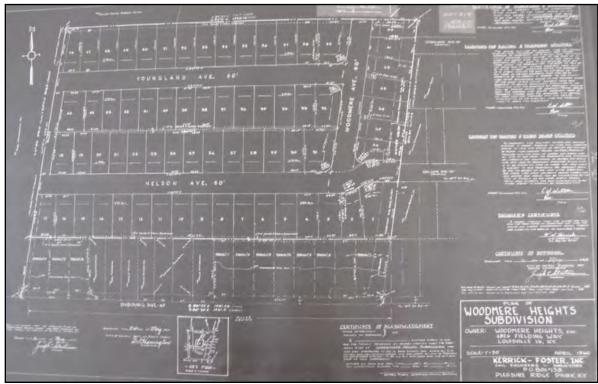


Figure 8. 44 Plat of Woodmere Heights.

Property Types Found in Woodmere Heights Subdivision

Woodmere Heights is composed of 66 ranch houses (**Type A**). Houses are either brick or stone veneer-sided. Most have a porch sheltering the front door, whether it is just an extension of the front slope of the main roof or a true porch with decorative metal supports. Some porches have been enclosed. Most houses have a picture window at the far end of the façade. Many have stoops or patio/stoops providing access to the front door. Roofs have a wide eave overhang. Both detached and attached garages are present along with the houses in this subdivision. There are a small number of Minimal Traditional-influenced ranches here.

Character-defining features in Woodmere Heights include the presence of rolled curbs and sidewalks and the lack of gutters. Rolled curbs were cheaper to install as they required no curb cuts for driveways.



Figure 8. 45 An example of Type A in Woodmere Heights, at 2016 Nelson Avenue.



Figure 8. 46 An example of Type A in Woodmere Heights, at 1928 Youngland Avenue.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

With further research, Woodmere Heights is considered potentially eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to broad patterns of history – specifically as part of a Multiple Property Listing focusing on mid-twentieth century suburbanization in Louisville. It may also be significant under Criterion B for the contributions of its developer, part of Woodmere Heights Inc. Under Criterion C it could be considered eligible as part of a nomination focusing on the architectural characteristics of ranch houses in Louisville.

Lacking further information on Woodmere Heights, Inc. and on the development of the subdivision itself, Woodmere Heights is considered ineligible at this time.

Woodmere Heights retains its original setbacks, driveways, sidewalks and rolled curbs. These features help preserve its integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. Modern metal awning style porches and awnings over windows are common additions that are not considered to affect integrity. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by vinyl replacement windows. Integrity of **workmanship** is less applicable in Woodmere Heights as these are unornamented ranch houses whose basic decorative features, if they can be described as such, include picture windows and porches which are sometimes screened.

De Nada Gates (1955-1960s)

Lester Sharp, Developer



Figure 8. 47 Map of De Nada Gates.

De Nada Gates was officially platted on April 7, 1955 by owner Lester Sharp and W.B. RoBards, Civil Engineer. De Nada Gates has a somewhat curvilinear plan with a few large corner lots. Most parcels are 70 to 80 feet wide and approximately 130 feet deep. The building limit, or setback, was platted at 40-50 feet. Although De Nada Gates was platted in the mid-1950s it appears not to have been fully developed until the 1960s. The fairly high representation of traditional ranch houses with attached garages indicates that perhaps a large portion of De Nada Gates was not built up until the 1960s. Delayed development often stemmed from a lack of financial ability on the part of the developer to obtain loans, to make the improvements necessary to gain Louisville Planning and Zoning Commission approval, or to physically lay off the subdivision into parcels.

De Nada Gates is well outside the Watterson Expressway (toward US-31W) on the western side of Dixie Highway and adjacent to the 1954 Valley Gardens subdivision at its southwest. In fact, the street Ponder Lane is partially within De Nada Gates and partially within Valley Gardens. The Planning and Zoning Commission likely required the developer of Valley Gardens to extend Ponder Lane out to Dixie Highway a year earlier. If Ponder Lane was indeed already built, this would have meant developer Lester Sharp had to build only several smaller streets (Fiesta, Hacienda, and Velle Vista) branching off Ponder and would have decreased his development costs. The only direct access from Dixie Highway into De Nada Gates is, in fact, at Ponder Lane. North of the subdivision boundary, Speedway Avenue runs east-west, intersecting with Dixie Highway. By adding a thirty foot access street (technically a new portion of the Dixie Highway right-of-way), the developer could fit seven additional parcels, fronting on Dixie, into his subdivision.



Figure 8. 48 Aerial view of De Nada Gates.

Platted parcels #9, #10, and #11 were apparently not built on originally. These parcels have been consolidated into the large medical center parcel. The medical center itself extends partially into the subdivision today. An "overhang easement" along Ponder Lane on parcels #8 and #84 may have caused these to remain empty through the present.



Figure 8. 49 Plat of De Nada Gates.

De Nada Gates is surrounded at the west-northwest by Bee Lick Creek which directly influenced its shape. Parcels fronting on Ponder Lane with rear boundaries along the creek have a continuous easement along the creek which would normally be occupied by telephone/electric and drainage easements. This would have forced the developer to build a greater number of small easements between side parcel boundaries and, again, would have influenced the look of the subdivision. Later sections of this subdivision were severely discouraged by surrounding Valley Gardens, Bee Lick Creek, Dixie Highway, and Speedway Avenue.

Character-defining features of De Nada Gates include its residential parcels fronting on Dixie Highway, lack of curbs (besides a few corner curbs added later near storm sewer grates) and gutters, and lack of sidewalks. All parcels in De Nada Gates retain driveways providing access to residential garages, whether attached or detached. Beneath some driveways is a drain pipe or,

sometimes, a culvert which channels water through drainage ditches along front parcel lines and, in turn, to storm sewers.

Property Types Found in De Nada Gates Subdivision

Of the 80 buildings in the De Nada Gates subdivision, all but two are ranch houses (**Type A**). Besides these ranch houses there is one Minimal Traditional house and one modern commercial intrusion – a medical center; these two buildings are considered anomalies. Ranch houses in De Nada Gates tend to have either hipped or gable roof front porches. Garages are usually either attached or detached with hipped roofs. Less often, there is an integral car port in lieu of an attached garage. Most main roofs are hipped with a wide eave overhang. Front porches typically have decorative metal supports. Most ranch houses in De Nada Gates are brick or stone veneer.



Figure 8. 50 An example of Type A in De Nada Gates; this example is located at: 9322 Ponder Lane.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

With further research, De Nada Gates is potentially eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to broad patterns of history – specifically as part of a Multiple Property Listing focusing on mid-twentieth century suburbanization in Louisville. It may also be significant under Criterion B for the contributions of its developer Lester Sharp. Under Criterion C it could be considered eligible as part of a nomination focusing on the architectural characteristics of ranch houses in Louisville.

Lacking further information on Lester Sharp and on the development of the subdivision itself, De Nada Gates is considered ineligible at this time.

Parcels in De Nada Gates retain original setbacks and driveways. Curbless streets and residential frontage on Dixie Highway have also been preserved. These features, along with a large wooden sign along Dixie Highway reading "De Nada Gates," help retain integrity of association, feeling, location, and setting. Investigating integrity of design by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. Integrity of design is compromised to some degree by several enclosures of attached garage door openings. These front-facing openings, when modified, are typically framed in for smaller, human scale doors or replaced with sliding glass doors. In very few cases, they are entirely covered with brick veneer. Although these changes are considered major unsympathetic alterations, their relative scarcity compromises the integrity of the subdivision to a lesser degree. Integrity of materials is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or attached garage door replacement or covering. On the positive side, most houses retain original hipped roofs and more houses than usual retain original wooden 2-over-2 double hung sash windows. Integrity of **workmanship** is less applicable in De Nada Gates as these are unornamented ranch houses whose basic decorative features, if they can be described as such, include picture windows, porches, or the occasional window-wall.

Valley View (1952 - 1967)

Frank L. Hausman, Developer



Figure 8. 51 Map of Valley View Subdivision.

Valley View Subdivision was platted beginning in 1952 by Frank L. Hausman. Located "outside" (south of) both the Henry Watterson Expressway, I-264, and the Gene Snyder Freeway, I-265, this subdivision illustrates the outward spread of development along Dixie Highway, also known as Eighteenth Street Road, and U.S. 31 W. By this point, people were increasingly willing to live farther from the metropolitan core and commute longer distances by automobile. On the other hand, many residents of this subdivision worked close to home at the Kosmos Cement Company, established in 1904. Prior to the development of 1950s subdivisions like Valley View, located farther from the metropolitan core, many of these workers lived in the Kosmosdale company town which included Kosmos Cement Company-built segregated duplexes; a school; a medical office; a company store; and, later, a railroad depot.⁷³⁷ In addition to providing workers with an alternative to company housing, the Valley View subdivision

⁷³⁷ Linda Lyly, "Places in Time: Kosmosdale," Louisville Courier-Journal Homes Online Archive, accessed September 17, 2010, <u>http://orig.courier-journal.com/reweb/community/placetime/southwest-kosmosdale.html</u>.

capitalized on many of the same factors as other mid-century developments including the post-World War II population increase, housing shortage, and increased demand. Valley View is composed primarily of traditional ranch housing.



Figure 8. 52 Aerial view of Valley View.

According to an interview with original Valley View residents Margaret and Kenneth Harshfield, Hausman sold homes as he built them; most people purchased homes that were already constructed rather than having them built. Apparently, most homes were built by someone named Zernhild and W. H. Baker was one of the salespeople for Mr. Hausman.

There were only eight homes built in this subdivision when Anna Shreder, another Valley View resident, moved into her house in 1959. The Harshfields simply learned about Valley View by word of mouth; they had not seen advertisements. The couple picked out their home with the plat map in front of them. Their lot cost \$2,500 and a corner lot would have cost \$3,000.

According to the Harshfields, a Mr. Thienemann developed the part of the subdivision "past Tierney;" this was likely all of Section Two. For the Harshfields, the close proximity of Valley View to the Kosmos Cement Company, where Mr. Harshfield worked, was a determining factor

in their decision to buy a home here. Also, Mr. Harshfield wanted a home with an attached garage. The area where Moorman Road and Rosaire Avenue cut through was originally farmland.⁷³⁸ Restrictions in the neighborhood stipulated that homes be brick or stone veneer. Most lots did not have garages.

Valley View is composed of two sections; section one was platted in 1952 and section two not until 1956. Sewage easements were not included on the plat for Valley View, Section One, although a drainage easement ran between lots 6-7, 16-17, and 22-23. By the time Section Two was platted M.S.D. "sewer and drainage" easements were included. Both sections have ten foot public utility easements which, generally, run along the rear of the lots, but occasionally run between. Lot #36 (6407 North Drive) on the plat of Valley View, section one, is labeled "N/A 'Hausman Tract' Formerly the 'Tierney Farm.'" Confusingly, the original farmhouse is located on lot number 34 (6411 North Drive). A through section of sixty-foot-wide Hausman Avenue was closed "by Jefferson County court order No. 649 date April 26, 1956." The closing off of this street provided space for lot number 1 in section two.

Evidence indicates that financing was an issue for Hausman. As indicated on the March 1952 plat of Section One, Hausman already owned the land where Section Two would be developed but it was not developed until much later. Hausman also owned the land abutting the southeastern boundary of section one and fronting on Dixie Highway; this was not included as part of the Valley View Subdivision, but may have been critical for financing the development. "Future Street" is noted at the places where North and South Drives would later extend into section two; on the January 1952 Proposed Preliminary Plan of Valley View Subdivision, Section One, "Future Section #2" is noted past the northwestern boundary of section one.⁷³⁹ Information from the Harshfield interview indicates Hausman had financial issues which forced him to make an arrangement with Thienemann in order to have section two developed.

Character-defining features of Valley View include original setbacks, absence of sidewalks, and curbless streets bordered on both sides by drainage ditches. Today, most lots have paved driveways and detached garages which are later constructions. Some original trees appear to have been retained at the rear of lots, but trees closer to the roads mainly date to the period of development.

⁷³⁸ Margaret and Kenneth Harshfield, interview by Janie-Rice Brother and Jennifer Ryall. June 2009. Louisville, KY.

⁷³⁹ "Proposed Preliminary Plan, Valley View Subdivision, Section #1," 1931-1950, Subdivision Case Files, record group 22, accession 1985/069, box 12, Louisville Metro Archives.

Property Types Found in Valley View

Valley View											
Section	Type A	Type B	Type C	Type D	U	Total					
	(Minimal	(Ranch)	(Cape	Type D (Bi-level							
	Traditional)		Cod)	Ranch)							
1	5	30	2	0	1	38					
2	2	47	0	2	0	51					
Total	7	77	2	2	1	89					

Type A: Minimal Traditional House

A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is becoming more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing.

Section One of Valley View is 13percent Type A, while Section Two is four percent.



Figure 8. 53 *Examples of Type A in Valley View: 6400 North Drive (above-left) and 6606 North Drive (above right).*

Type B: Ranch House

The ranch house is distinguished by its horizontality and sprawling plan. These houses are usually one story high, two rooms deep, and designed for wider lots. Three- to five-bay-wide versions have been identified in Valley View section two. The four-bay-wide version was the most prevalent throughout section two with the smaller, three-bay-wide versions located mainly on South Drive. Roofs are either side gable or hipped. Several ranch homes in section two have garages attached directly or via a hyphen.

Section One of Valley View is 79 percent Type B, while Section Two is 92 percent Type B.



Figure 8. 54 Examples of Type B in Valley View: 6407 North Drive and 6500 North Drive (above-right).

Type C: Cape Cod House

This is the later, Colonial Revival version of the New England Cape Cod house. This type has a steeply-pitched roof and a more compact, almost square footprint with a massed plan.

Section One of Valley View is five percent Type C, while Section Two has no examples of Type C.



Figure 8. 55 *An example of Type C in Valley View at* 6408 *North Drive.*

Type D: Bi-Level Ranch House

The bi-level was designed to be a more affordable version of the Colonial Revival house with split-level features and a continuous roofline. A bi-level is entered between floors at a landing with stairs ascending or descending to their respective levels. Ground level façade windows are not for the main living area of the house and are often minimized in subtle ways.

Section One of Valley View had no examples of Type D, while Section Two is 4 percent type D.



Figure 8. 56 An example of Type D in Valley View at 6609 North Drive.

Valley View, Section One

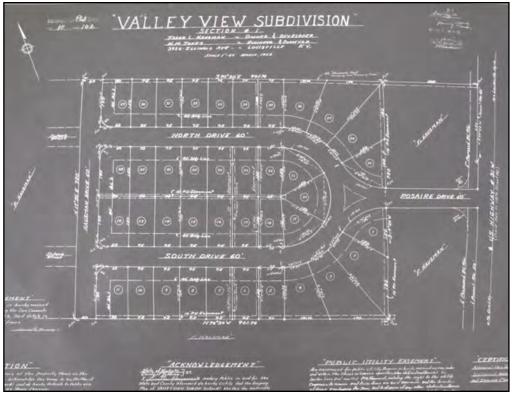


Figure 8. 57 Plat of Section One of Valley View.

Section One, platted in 1952, has retained its thirty-nine original lots. Section One was developed by H.M. Jones, engineer and surveyor. The plan of Section One with its single entrance street branching into two parallel streets is nearly identical to that of Buechel Terrace, its Bardstown Road contemporary. Average setback, "building line," or "building limit" is forty feet. Lot widths vary from sixty-five to eighty feet wide for both sections.

Most lots in Section One are 150 feet deep, but lots near the curving, forked entrance range from 150 to 266.23 feet deep.⁷⁴⁰ Lots on straight sections of road in section two are 150 feet deep; toward Tierney Avenue and curving South Drive; however, lots range from 93.96 to 188.10 feet deep.⁷⁴¹ Original lot number 1 (now 6400 South Drive) in Section One is vacant.

⁷⁴⁰ "Plat of Valley View Subdivision, Section #1," 1952, Jefferson County Plat Book 10, p. 102, Louisville Metro Archives.

⁷⁴¹ "Plat of Valley View Subdivision, Section #. 2," 1956, Jefferson County Plat Book 14, p. 5, Louisville Metro Archives.

Including the original Tierney farmhouse (Figure 8.58), there are thirty-eight single family residences in Section One today including Minimal Traditional (**Type A**), Ranch (**Type B**), and Cape Cod (**Type C**). A majority (79 percent) of the houses in Valley View are **Type B** (Ranch houses) followed by **Type A** (Minimal Traditional) at 13 percent and **Type C** (Cape Cod) at 5 percent. There is one house of undetermined type.

For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing. Ranch houses in this section have a variety of roof forms including hipped, gable-on-hip, and side gable. Some were built with attached garages and others lacked garages.

Houses in Section One tend to be wider in bays than their counterparts in Section Two. Section One is the only one in which Cape Cod houses (Type C) were identified. Section One also has approximately triple the number of homes identified with attached garages and approximately double the number of homes identified with chimneys as in Section Two. Most homes in the Valley View subdivision are without traditional chimneys or flues and, instead, have metal flue pipes indicating that they were probably originally heated by furnaces.



Figure 8. 58 The original Tiernay Farmhouse in Valley View at 6411 North Drive.



Figure 8. 59 An example of Type B in Section One, at 6417 North Drive.

Valley View, Section Two



Figure 8. 60 Plat of Section Two of Valley View.

Section Two was developed by Jones, Spalding & Jones, Engineers. Originally there were fiftysix lots in Section Two. Today there are fifty-four houses including Minimal Traditional (**Type A**), Ranch (**Type B**), and Bi-Level Ranch (**Type D**). Section One is composed overwhelmingly of **Type B** (ranch houses) at 92percent, followed by two **Type A** (Minimal Traditional) and two **Type D** (Bi-Level) houses (4 percent of each).

Original Section Two parcel numbers 29-30 (now 6600-6602 North Drive) and numbers 16-17 (now 6613-6615 North Drive) have been consolidated with the possible loss of an original home in each case. Original parcels number 15 (6611 North Drive), 20 (6703 North Drive), and 54 (6622 South Drive) in section two are vacant lots. Section Two retains fifty-one single family residences. Section Two is the only one in which bi-level ranch houses (Type D) were identified. The presence of these houses indicates that development was ongoing in Valley View through the 1970s.



Figure 8. 61 An example of Type B in Section Two, at 6512 South Drive.



Figure 8. 62 An example of Type D in Section Two, at 6612 South Drive.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Houses in the Valley View Subdivision have, like any others, undergone change over time. Because the mid-century homes are, comparatively, more recent constructions they would need to retain a higher level of integrity than older resources. The original Tierney farmhouse at 6411 North Drive is the only site within the boundaries of Valley View Subdivision that is considered eligible individually.

With further research, Valley View is considered potentially eligible under Criterion A nomination identifying it as a district placed in context as a subdivision developed to fill an overwhelming demand for housing and designed to provide homes for workers at the nearby Kosmos Cement Company. Valley View might also be included within a broader nomination of mid-20th-century Jefferson County subdivisions. It might also be eligible under Criterion C within the context of mid-century ranch housing in Jefferson County. There is also the possibility of nominating it thematically under a context examining the development of subdivisions retaining the historic home of the original landowner.

Lacking further information on Frank Hausman or the development of the subdivision itself, Valley View is considered ineligible at this time.

The most common alterations in Sections One and Two are vinyl replacement windows. Front porch additions and screening as well as attached garage door opening enclosure (typically with sliding glass doors). The latter changes are considered the major, unsympathetic alterations but, because there are relatively few houses with these types of additions, the integrity of the subdivision is compromised to a lesser degree. Modern aluminum awning additions are also found in Section One; however, these are not considered to affect eligibility.

Valley View retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. Both sections of this subdivision are still composed predominantly of traditional ranch homes, as they were originally. These homes retain their original setbacks and curbless streets bordered by drainage ditches on both sides. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing those with contemporary ranch homes was beyond our scope of work for this project. Integrity of **materials** is enhanced by the retention of almost all original exterior materials (either stone or brick veneer), but is compromised by replacement windows and modern front porch additions. Several attached garages have been converted for additional living space; in these cases, roll-up doors have been replaced by windows and surrounding space has sometimes been filled. Homes in Valley View have a high level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain original facade openings and respective character-defining wide chimneys, front-facing gables, sprawling plans, decorative under-eave supports, or steeply pitched roofs; these homes had relatively little decorative detail and, in most cases, have remained unembellished

Bardstown Road

"Perhaps no other arterial street played so singular a role in the development of a large section of the city over so long a period of time as Bardstown Road."⁷⁴²



Figure 8. 63 Section from the 1913 Louisville Atlas showing Bardstown Road.

Bardstown Road (US 31E) was the other corridor chosen for study as part of this project. Though technically a part of Dixie Highway system, this eastern arm of the route was traditionally known as the Jackson or Lincoln Highway. The Bardstown Road Corridor benefitted from the natural and topographic conditions of its eastern Jefferson County locale. The fertile, well-drained land encouraged flourishing farms and the founding of wealthy estates. In this respect, the Bardstown Road Corridor demonstrates a key distinction from the Dixie Highway corridor, which historically was characterized by flat land that did not drain well and was subsequently of less value than land in eastern Louisville.

In the late-nineteenth century, suburbanization got its start in the corridor as heirs divided up large parcels and began to develop single-family homes. The introduction of the streetcar facilitated this first phase of residential housing construction. The architecture of Highlands Historic District, a blend of residential and commercial from "Victorian to Wrightian" illustrates an evolution of development from 1815 to 1940. After World War II, the Bardstown Road Corridor, influenced by the rise of the automobile, experienced many of the same building

⁷⁴² Carl E. Kramer. "A History of Eastern Louisville," in *Louisville Survey East Report*. (Louisville, Kentucky: Historic Landmarks and Preservation Districts Commission, 1980), 109.

patterns – both residential and industrial – as Dixie Highway, especially beyond the Watterson Expressway.

Early Development

Development in Eastern Louisville, the location of the Bardstown Road Corridor, expanded along with transportation improvements. The first of these was Bardstown Road itself, which was first surveyed in 1784. As settlers began to move out from original settlements in to the surrounding countryside, the "rolling hills and plateaus along the forks of Beargrass Creek were especially inviting."⁷⁴³ Large, prosperous farms developed, with substantial dwellings constructed to house the families of some of the city's leading families, and a successful agricultural economy, propelled by slave labor, took root.

Families including the Hikes and the Speeds constructed large, high-style (Federal and Greek Revival) homes within the Bardstown Road Corridor. Though these names are remembered, countless other Louisville families settled in the corridor, and their homes are now surrounded by post-war subdivisions.

Although Bardstown Road was the first primary route through Eastern Louisville, construction on a more permanent thoroughfare was slow in developing. It wasn't until 1819, however, that the Louisville Turnpike Company, authorized by the state legislature, began to sell shares of stock to "make a turnpike road from Louisville ten miles toward Bardstown."⁷⁴⁴

The road finally began to take shape in 1832, with construction on a macadamized road extending from "the south side of the Beargrass Creek at the end of the bridge on the present Bardstown (sic) road...to the point of Speed's Lane (Farmington) near his gate."⁷⁴⁵ As the road wound its way outwards, the tollgate, first placed at Beargrass Creek and Baxter Avenue, kept pace and moved further and further out from its original site. By 1901, the first tollgate was located at Speed Avenue while the second was located "near the present Bashford Manor Shopping Center."⁷⁴⁶

Residential and commercial development subsequently extended out to the south along Bardstown Road. "From an early date, Bardstown Road was as important as a commercial street as it was a residential thoroughfare."⁷⁴⁷ As suburbanization progressed along Bardstown Road between 1910 and 1930, commercial development increased as well.

This section of Chapter 8 covers the intensively surveyed subdivisions in the Bardstown Road study corridor:

⁷⁴³ Ibid, 40.

⁷⁴⁴ Kramer, History of East Louisville, 43.

⁷⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁴⁶ Ibid, 44.

⁷⁴⁷ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville, 110.

- Shadylawn (1922-1950s)
- Strathmoor (1920-1960)
- Hoock (1924-1950s)
- Wellingmoor (1936-1961)
- Buechel Terrace (1951-1953)

Three of the subdivisions are inside the Watterson (I-264), and two are located outside of the Watterson. Figure 8.64 presents a view of the subdivisions in the study corridor; more detailed maps are within each subdivision section.

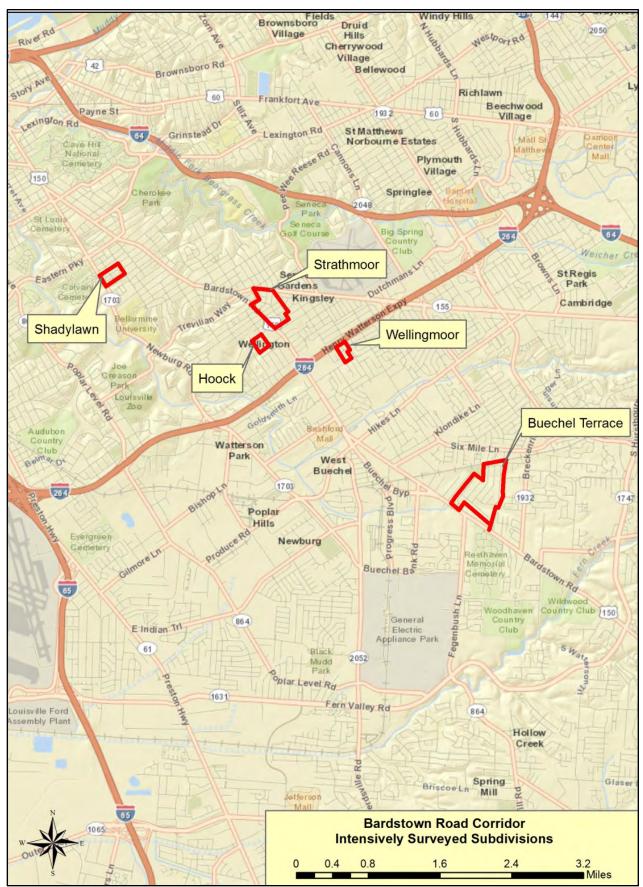


Figure 8. 64 The intensively surveyed subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Corridor.

Shadylawn (1922-1950s)

William F. Randolph, Wakefield-Davis Realty Company



Figure 8. 65 Map of Shadylawn Subdivision.

Shadylawn is a subdivision which was officially platted in August 1922, developed by William F. Randolph's Wakefield-Davis Realty Company, and surveyed by Stonestreet & Ford. The subdivision is located three-four blocks southwest of Bardstown Road. The southwestern boundary of Shadylawn is Newburg Road/Baxter Avenue and the northeastern boundary is Norris Place. The subdivision has a curvilinear (ovoid) plan focused on two main streets – Deer Lane (north) and Deerwood Avenue (south). These streets enter as a single street, curve out into two, and then merge back into a single street at the opposite end. Approximately bisecting the subdivision vertically is Hartman Avenue.

The plat of Shadylawn was divided into blocks A-F. Most parcels were about 50 feet wide and 118 feet deep with a 25 foot setback or building limit. No easements were indicated along rear or side property lines. These were obviously much more modestly-sized parcels than we would later find in 1960s era subdivisions such as Woodmere Heights. Parcel #19, situated in the curve formed by the two diverging roads, was by far the largest. It would have been the most dramatic parcel, occurring straight ahead as one entered the subdivision from the Norris Place side. This

would have been the side closest to Bardstown Road as well and was probably always the most important entrance. Closest to the entrances, parcels had irregularly-curving front parcel lines and, thus, relatively wider front yards. Dwellings on the northern side of Deerwood Avenue and on the northern side of Deer Lane are built on low hills. Many of these have basement garages built into the grade with poured concrete retaining walls and driveways connecting from the street. On the southern sides of these streets the topography is fairly level.



Figure 8. 66 Aerial view of Shadylawn.

At the southwestern corner of Shadylawn is a 14-lot section named "Shadylawn Subdivision" which appears to have developed along with the rest of Shadylawn. On the original plat of Shadylawn, this section (Block "C") had only 10 larger parcels, but was later re-surveyed and replatted with its current 14 smaller parcels. Its heaviest period of development appears to be the 1940s.

Shadylawn retains all of its original parcels; there were 96 parcels platted and there are 99 buildings today in Shadylawn. The three extra parcels can be explained by the original large Parcel #19 having been divided into three separate parcels. Each of these parcels holds an original Foursquare four-plex apartment building.

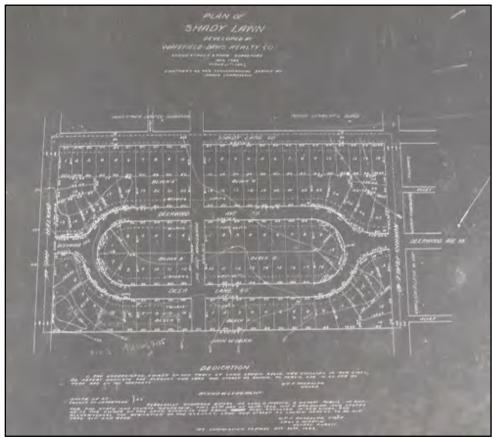


Figure 8. 67 Plat of Shadylawn Subdivision.

Property Types Found in Shadylawn Subdivision

Shadylawn												
Type A (Cape Cod)	Type B (Bungalow)	Type C (Foursquare)	Type D (Gunnison)	Type E (MT)	Type F (TR)	Type G (DC)	A	U	Total			
8	70	6	2	4	2	5	1	1	99			

There were 99 total dwellings surveyed within Shadylawn including Cape Cod (**Type A**), Bungalow (**Type B**), Foursquare (**Type C**), Gunnison Homes (**Type D**), Minimal Traditional (**Type E**), Tudor Revival (**Type F**), and Dutch Colonial (**Type G**). There was also one ranch house and one house of undetermined type. These were considered anomalies. There were more bungalows (**Type B**) by far than any other type of dwelling in Shadylawn (71 percent) and there were very few Tudor Revival and Gunnison Homes (only 2 percent of each). The Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod, with its front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof is found here. Bungalows in the Shadylawn Subdivision exhibit more variations than in other areas. For instance, there are Minimal Traditional-influenced bungalows with frontprojecting wings (some with clipped gables) as well as bungalows that exhibit Tudor Revival style features.

Interestingly, most of the Foursquare dwellings in Shadylawn are four-plex multi-family dwellings and were apparently built to serve this function originally. These dwellings tend to have Colonial Revival or Craftsman decorative features including Craftsman style double doors, sidelights, balconies with curved iron railings, oriel windows, and composite tile roofs as well as Colonial Revival or Neoclassical sidelights, columns, dentils, and broken pediments. These four-plexes typically have two front doors, one providing access to the units on the second story.

Type A: Cape Cod House

The Cape Cod house occurs in a number of variations within this subdivision. The Cape Cod is considered a plan; however, certain stylistic features have become associated. The basic version is a 1.5 story house with a central front door, steeply-pitched side gable roof, and three-bay-wide, two-pile-deep dimensions. Typically there is a gable end chimney and, often, there are gable roof dormers. The Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod, with its front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof is found here.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 8 percent Type A.



Figure 8. 68 *Examples of Type A, located at 1603 Deerwood Avenue (above-left) and 1622 Deer Lane (above-right).*

Type B: Bungalow

The bungalow is defined by its circular floor plan. It typically has a side gable roof and either an integral or shed roof front porch usually extending across nearly the full width of the facade. Bungalows are 1.5 stories typically with a gable- or hipped-roof dormer on the front slope of the main roof and, often, a dormer on the rear slope as well. Many have bay or oriel windows in their gable ends. Bungalows often have a full width rear porch as well. Most had Craftsman style features originally; these included exposed rafter tails, wide eave overhangs, Craftsman porches, and divided light Craftsman wooden windows. Bungalows can also be oriented in front gable fashion; this orientation is more typical of a southern bungalow. Bungalows in the Shadylawn Subdivision exhibit more variations than in other areas. There are Minimal Traditional bungalows with front-projecting wings (some with clipped gables) as well as bungalows that exhibit Tudor Revival style features.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 71 percent Type B.



Figure 8. 69 Examples of Type B, located at 1631 Deer Lane (above-left) and 1731 Newburg Road (above-right).

Type C: Foursquare

The McAlesters consider the American Foursquare or "Prairie Box" a sub-type of the Prairie Style house. The house usually has a square or rectangular plan, low-pitched hipped roof, and roughly symmetrical façade. These houses are typically two stories in height and often have full width, hipped roof front porches. Many have hipped roof dormers. In Shadylawn, the Foursquare house is mainly exhibited in four-plex (four units) apartment buildings. These typically have two front doors, one providing access to the units on the second story.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 6 percent Type C.



Figure 8. 70 *Examples of Type C, located at 1712 Deerwood Avenue (above-left) and 1636 Deer Lane (above-right).*

Type D: Gunnison Homes

Gunnison Homes, based out of New Albany, Indiana, manufactured prefabricated, stressed-skin, plywood panel houses; popularity soared after World War II. There are two Gunnison Homes here. One is a Coronado (at left) was Gunnison's mid-range model. The Coronado came in five sizes and with two façade fenestration patterns. It can be identified by its wide eave overhang (sometimes with decorative diagonal bracing), picture window (or this size opening) and absence of a full, front-projecting wing. The other is a U.S. Steel Home, technically a Gunnison Home, manufactured after U.S. Steel bought out Gunnison Homes. These houses can often be identified by their façade chimneys which usually have an S-shaped decoration.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 2 percent Type D.



Figure 8. 71 An example of Type D, located at 1621 Deer Lane.

Type E: Minimal Traditional

A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is becoming more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 4 percent Type E.



Figure 8. 72 An example of Type E, located at 1605 Deerwood Avenue.

Type F: Tudor Revival

The Tudor Revival house is defined mainly by its steeply-pitched, gable oriented rooflines. Most often, there are more than one of these and one is separated into a projecting bay containing the front entrance. Sometimes one of the roof slopes will extend down and across the façade. Arched window, porch, and door openings are typical. A tapering façade chimney with a large base as well as ornamental stone work is often present.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 2 percent Type F.



Figure 8. 73 An example of Type F, located at 1733 Deerwood Avenue.

Type G: Dutch Colonial

The Dutch Colonial house is defined mainly by its gambrel roof and Colonial Revival style features. These houses are typically two full stories and may have dormers on the front and rear slope of their roofs. Most have central front entrances. There may be an attached, original, sunroom at one end of the house.

Shadylawn Subdivision is 5 percent Type G.



Figure 8. 74 An example of Type G, located at 1734 Deer Lane.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Shadylawn (and Shadylawn Subdivision) is considered eligible for listing as a district in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to the broad pattern of suburban development at Louisville's metropolitan fringe in the early automobile age. Shadylawn is also considered eligible for listing as a district under Criterion B for the contributions of its developers, the Wakefield-Davis Realty Company. Wakefield-Davis is quite significant for its contributions to curvilinear subdivision design and planning. This company developed at least four other subdivisions in the Louisville area and an early subdivision called Cherokee Park in Nashville, Tennessee, which was also designed with curving streets.

Shadylawn retains strong integrity of association, feeling, location, and setting. Shadylawn retains all of its original parcels as well as its original plan with a single entrance street at each end, curving into two parallel streets. Dwellings retain original setbacks, sidewalks, rolled curbs, driveways (including some Hollywood type), and attached or detached garages. Most of the older dwellings retain basement garages. Investigating integrity of design by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. Integrity of materials is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Shadylawn; these include aluminum, permastone, or vinyl siding. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Probably the largest unsympathetic alteration is that most original Craftsman style, wooden paneled, multi-light double garage doors have been replaced with modern, metal overhead garage doors. In Shadylawn Subdivision, integrity of materials and integrity of design have been compromised to some degree by several houses with major unsympathetic alterations such as large shed roof dormer additions raising the house a second story. Homes in Shadylawn have a medium level of integrity of workmanship. Most retain character-defining features such as porches, hoods, exposed rafter tails, sidelights, dormers, and decorative brackets. Clipped gable roofs are common on the earlier dwellings. Many retain original front doors.

Strathmoor

Hieatt Consolidated Realty Company



Figure 8. 75 Map of Strathmoor.

Strathmoor was platted in 1920 by Hieatt Consolidated Realty Company.⁷⁴⁸ The area of this plat and a later addition now form the boundaries of a sixth-class city, Strathmoor Village. The neighborhood initially included the area between Taylorsville Rd, Bardstown Rd, Emerson Ave, and Kaelin's Subdivision (north of Lowell). In 1923, the Strathmoor Addition was platted which extended Lowell to connect with Hawthorne Ave.⁷⁴⁹ Streets in this addition were Kalorama (Winston) Ave, Villuva (Gladstone) Ave, and Tyler Ave. Prior to this time, the area was farmland associated with the Von Zedwitz estate, the Burdett children, and Harry Briscoe.⁷⁵⁰

Development of Strathmoor and Strathmoor Addition was part of a larger trend in Louisville and Jefferson County, the movement away from the center city into semi-rural suburban retreats,

⁷⁴⁸ Jefferson County Plat Book 2, 292.
⁷⁴⁹ Jefferson County Plat Book 4, 40-41.

⁷⁵⁰ Louisville Title Company, New Map of Louisville and Jefferson County, Kentucky. Compiled from Actual Surveys and Official Records (Louisville: Louisville Title Company, 1913), Sheet 42.

connected to the city by streetcar lines. In the case of these neighborhoods, the Louisville and Interurban (L&I) Electric Railway Service traversed Taylorville Rd and Bardstown Rd and provided transit for residents of this newly developing area. The L&I was established in 1903 and extended down Taylorsville Rd to Jeffersontown in 1904 and down Bardstown Road to Fern Creek in 1908. Interurban service was discontinued in 1932-33, due to a combination of factors, including increased automobile usage and state and local policies that favored the car over public transit.

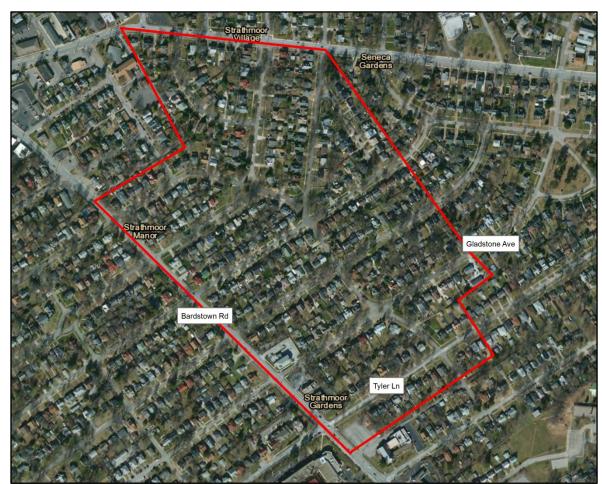


Figure 8. 76 Aerial view of Strathmoor.

Neither Strathmoor nor Strathmoor Addition developed housing very quickly. In spite of access to two major thoroughfares (Bardstown and Taylorsville Roads) and to two L&I Electric Streetcar lines, construction in the neighborhoods proceeded from the mid-1920s to the early 1960s, with a concentration from the 1920s-1950s. A 1928 aerial map of Jefferson County

shows spotty development in Strathmoor with a concentration on Lowell at Bardstown Road and along Strathmoor Blvd.⁷⁵¹

Strathmoor Addition features very few houses along Gladstone or Tyler Aves; housing density was greater on Winston Ave that year. The aerial photograph also documents the presence of the A.B. Dreisbach Greenhouse, begun in 1913, directly east of Strathmoor Addition between Gladstone and Tyler Avenues.



Figure 8. 77 Plat of Strathmoor.

This protracted period of development was not for lack of boosterism. The Hieatt Brothers placed a large Sunday advertisement in the real estate section of the *Courier-Journal* announcing

⁷⁵¹ W. Sidney Park and Glen H. Smith, *Aerial Photograph Map of Louisville, Kentucky*, Photographed April 5, 1928, Sheet E4.

Strathmoor in August 1920.⁷⁵² The byline, "From a Cornfield to a Highly Developed Home Community in One Year," noted the great advantages and modern situation found in Strathmoor. The ad continued by stating, "come out today and you will find it laid off in beautiful winding drives and boulevards---you will find a small army of men at work with teams and various kinds of machinery building the roads, making the 2 ½ miles of cement sidewalks, erecting the electric lighting standards, putting down water mains, etc...right now \$1,000 per day is being spent on Strathmoor, but this is the work that we promised and is necessary to make Strathmoor the beautiful garden spot it is destined to be."⁷⁵³ The ad draws attention to social status of the neighborhood's newest residents as well, suggesting that Louisville's "leading business and professional men and women" had already purchased home lots and were looking to buy more for investment purposes.

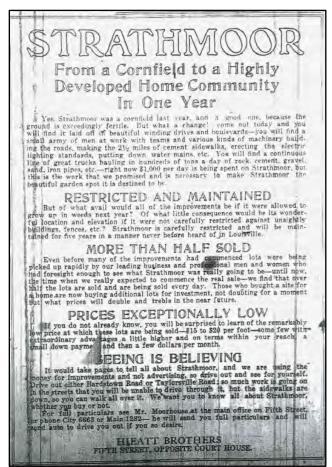


Figure 8. 78 1920 advertisement for Strathmoor.

754 Ibid.

⁷⁵² *Courier-Journal* (Louisville), 22 August, 1920, Section 4, 9. No doubt this advertisement ran for several Sundays.

⁷⁵³ Ibid.

Among the selling points, the community was to be "restricted and maintained" against unsightly buildings and fences.⁷⁵⁵ This synopsis does not begin to address the myriad of deed restrictions contained in early property transfers. One of the first property transfers was from Consolidated Realty Company to Katherine Everson in September 1920.⁷⁵⁶ Fourteen restrictions and an agreement were included in Ms. Everson's deed for lot 69 (2209 Strathmoor Blvd-JFSV-176). These legal prescriptions bear summary:

- a) All improvements are for private residential purposes only; one dwelling occupied by a single family per lot; the front wall shall be behind the building line, as shown on the plat.
- b) A residence's side walls should be four feet from the property line; cornices should not be more than 50 inches above grade level; no house shall use metal roofing.
- c) Residences on Strathmoor must have exterior walls of brick, brick veneer, tile, stone or stucco and shall not cost less than \$4,000; Residences on Tennyson, Whittier, Lowell, and Byron shall cost not less than \$4,000.
- d) All outbuildings should be constructed at rear of lot, under one roof, and not over one story in height; the primary residence must be built before the outbuilding.
- e) All fences must be wire or hedge, except the posts, and should be 25 feet back from the front building line; vegetable gardens must be ten feet from the front building line.
- f) Garages if connected to the primary residence should be built of the same materials and using the same stylistic vocabulary.
- g) Working plans and specifications must be approved by Consolidated Realty.
- h) No signs are permitted for a period of five years, except numbers and name plates.
- i) Utility poles, conduits, gas pipes, and etc shall be placed in the five foot easement on the rear of the lot.
- j) No person of African descent may purchase, rent, or occupy a property in Strathmoor.
- k) No stables shall be erected on the property; no goats, sheep, cattle, pigs, mules, or horses may be kept on site.
- 1) No trade or business can be held on the property, excluding dentists and doctors who maintain a home office.
- m) Front porches extending beyond the front wall and over the front building line cannot be enclosed more than 30 inches above the porch floor.
- n) The grade of the front yard at the front property line shall be level with the public walk, and shall slope uniformly upward from the walk to the building line; the yard grade shall be one foot higher than the public walk at this point.
- o) Finally, sixty percent of the lot owners were permitted to request that a sewer system be built and funded by property owners.

⁷⁵⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁵⁶ Jefferson County Deed Book 953, 491. On microfilm at the Jefferson County Archives.

Clearly, little was left to imagination when developing Strathmoor, including racial barriers that prevented African Americans from owning or living in the community. Deed restrictions, such as those detailed above, were fairly common in middle-to-upper class neighborhoods in the early twentieth century. Historian David Ames notes, "Early land developers maintained control over the development of their subdivisions through the use of deed restrictions. The placement of restrictions on the deed of sale ensured that land was developed according to the original intent; it also protected real estate values for both home owners and the subdivider [developer], who expected to sell improved lots over the course of many years. According to Marc Weiss, restrictions 'legitimized the idea that private owners should surrender some of their individual property rights for the common good' and became the 'principal vehicle by which subdividers and technicians tested and refined the methods of modern land use planning.' Restrictions were attached to the sale of land and considered binding for a specified period of time, after which they could be renewed or terminated."⁷⁵⁷ Deed restrictions were thought necessary to protect private property owners and land value prior to the inception of local planning and zoning commissions. Typically, racial restrictions were an essential part of deed restrictions that "protected" white middle and upper class property values.



Figure 8. 79 Sewer construction in Strathmoor Village, circa 1940.⁷⁵⁸

⁷⁵⁷ David Ames, "Historic Residential Suburbs: Guidelines for Evaluation and Documentation for the National Register of Historic Places," *National Register Bulletin*, 34-35.

⁷⁵⁸ Goodman-Paxton Photographic Collection, 1934-1942, Box 23, Item 2567. Online at: <u>http://kdl.kyvl.org/images/kukav/64m1/2567.jpg</u>

In July 1928, Strathmoor became a municipal corporation with 206 eligible voters, making it a sixth class city.⁷⁵⁹ Its formal incorporated name was Strathmoor Village. Shortly thereafter in June 1939, Louisville joined Strathmoor Village in application for WPA assistance to construct a sewer system.⁷⁶⁰ An adequate sewer system was apparently a serious difficulty in Strathmoor from the beginning, as noted in the restrictions above. The work appears to have been completed by 1940-41. Perhaps due to the sewer project and desire for a cohesive voting block, the Strathmoor Addition was incorporated as Strathmoor Gardens in 1944.⁷⁶¹ Though certainly related by age and development, Strathmoor Gardens was a separate entity until merging with Strathmoor Village in 1993.⁷⁶²

⁷⁵⁹ *Herald-Post* (Louisville), "Birdseye View of Strathmoor Village, State's Newest Municipal Corporation," 12 July, 1928.

⁷⁶⁰ Courier-Journal, "\$88,000 Strathmoor Village Sewer Project is Started," 20 June, 1939.

⁷⁶¹ Carl Kramer, *Louisville Survey East Report*, Prepared for the City of Louisville Community Development Cabinet, October 1979.

⁷⁶² Courier-Journal, "Strathmoor Village considers expanding," 31 May, 2001, B-2.

Property Types Found in Stathmoor

Strathmoor													
Type	Туре	Type	U	Α	Total								
А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	Ι	J	Κ			
37	43	17	51	63	47	9	6	2	2	3	4	7	291

There were 291 total dwellings surveyed within Strathmoor, of eleven types, including Bungalow (**Type A**), Cape Cod (**Type B**), Dutch Colonial (**Type C**), Minimal Traditional (**Type D**), Tudor Revival (**Type E**), Colonial Revival (**Type F**), Ranch (**Type G**), American Foursquare (**Type H**), Split-level (**Type I**), Mission/Spanish Revival (**Type J**), and Front Gable (**Type K**). There were four undetermined types and seven anomalies.

The majority of houses and commercial buildings (70 percent) in Strathmoor Village were constructed between 1920 and 1939 with 26 percent built from 1940 to 1960. The remainder were constructed in the past forty years. Of these buildings, three are commercial buildings associated with the neighborhood; all of which are located along the Bardstown Road corridor.

Buildings within Strathmoor Village are mostly one to one-and-a half story in height (69 percent) with no buildings over 2.5 stories tall. The most common exterior cladding is brick veneer (78 percent) with stone veneer as a distant second (14 percent). Other types of wall surfaces include stucco (3.8 percent), weatherboard (1.4 percent), and glazed block (.7 percent). Foundation walls are typically poured concrete (89 percent); a few walls are parged with stucco (.2 percent). Most houses utilize asphalt shingle as a roof sheathing (95 percent). Terra cotta tile (1.3 percent) and concrete tile (1.3 percent) cover a few roofs in the neighborhood, while slate, EPDM type roofing, and sheet asphalt can be found in very small quantities in the area. Original windows in general remain in situ (57.3 percent); these windows are mostly wood double-hung sash and a few metal casements and hopper windows. Replacement windows are typically made of vinyl or metal and appear to mimic the original light pattern, albeit with simulated divided light muntins.



Figure 8. 80 Streetscape view of 2200 block of Gladstone Ave, facing east.

Fifty percent of the housing stock have front porches, either full-width or partial. These houses are generally built in the 1920s and early 1930s and have elements of the Bungalow, Dutch Colonial Revival, or Craftsman style. Twenty percent of the domestic properties have a front unsheltered patio and 37 percent have a front stoop. Houses with an integral front patio were typically constructed in the late 1930s; architecturally they may use the Tudor Revival style/type. Residences with a front stoop are generally built in the 1940s and 1950s, and have characteristics of the Colonial Revival style/type.

Strathmoor Village was developed during the early automobile age and thus contains driveways and garages as an important part of the domestic landscape. Ninety-six percent of properties have their own (or shared) driveway that extends from the street to a garage, at the rear or to the side of the house. Only nine percent of properties do not have a garage. Of the properties with garages, nine percent are attached to the main house and use similar materials and architectural style, as specified in the deed restrictions. Of the detached garages, 48 percent have wood as an external cladding material, while the remainder use brick veneer (15 percent), stone veneer (2 percent), and concrete block (5.4 percent). Side entries exist in 26 percent of the houses with driveways. These entries are sometimes sheltered by a hood and allow for easy access into the house from the side drive.

Type A: Bungalow

The bungalow is defined by its circular floor plan. It typically has a side gable roof and either an integral or shed roof front porch usually extending across nearly the full width of the facade. Bungalows are 1.5 stories typically with a gable- or hipped-roof dormer on the front slope of the main roof and, often, a dormer on the rear slope as well. Many have bay or oriel windows in their gable ends. Bungalows often have a full width rear porch as well. Most had Craftsman style features originally; these included exposed rafter tails, wide eave overhangs, Craftsman porches, and divided light Craftsman wooden windows. Bungalows can also be oriented in front gable fashion; this orientation is more typical of a southern bungalow.

Strathmoor is 13 percent Type A.



Figure 8. 81 *Examples of Type A, located at 2252 Winston Avenue (above left) and 2648 Whittier Avenue (above right).*

Type B: Cape Cod

The Cape Cod house occurs in a number of variations within this subdivision. The Cape Cod is considered a plan; however, certain stylistic features have become associated. The basic version is a 1.5 story house with a central front door, steeply-pitched side gable roof, and three-bay-wide, two-pile-deep dimensions. Typically there is a gable end chimney and, often, there are gable roof dormers. The most common variation is a Tudor Revival style Cape Cod with a steeply-pitched, gable roof projecting entrance bay. An unusual variation found in this subdivision that has a lesser impact on the plan of the house is a Cape Cod with a steeply pitched main, side gable roof and a wide, shed roof dormer on the front slope of the main roof. There may be an attached, original sunroom at one gable end.

Strathmoor is 15 percent Type B.



Figure 8. 82 *Examples of Type B, located at 2203 Winston Avenue (above left) and 2326 Winston Avenue (above right).*

Type C: Dutch Colonial

The Dutch Colonial house is defined mainly by its gambrel roof and Colonial Revival style features. These houses are typically two full stories and may have dormers on the front and rear slope of their roofs. Most have central front entrances. There may be an attached, original, sunroom at one end of the house. Variations in Strathmoor include projecting, Tudor Revival style entrance bays on the façade.

Strathmoor is 6 percent Type C.



Figure 8. 83 *Examples of Type C, located at 2219 Winston Avenue (above left) and 2321 Winston Avenue (above right).*

Type D: Minimal Traditional

A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing. Some examples in Strathmoor have two front-projecting façade bays.

Strathmoor is 17 percent Type D.



Figure 8. 84 *Examples of Type D, located at 2303 Tyler Lane (above left) and 2301 Gladstone Avenue (above right).*

Type E: Tudor Revival

The Tudor Revival house is the most prevalent in Strathmoor and is defined mainly by its steeply-pitched, gable oriented rooflines. Most often, there are more than one of these and one is separated into a projecting bay containing the front entrance. Sometimes one of the roof slopes will extend down and across the façade. Arched window, porch, and door openings are typical. A tapering façade chimney with a large base as well as ornamental stone work is often present. False half-timbering is present on some examples in Strathmoor and some examples are multiple stories, have attached garages, or have a cantilevered bay.

Strathmoor is 22 percent Type E.



Figure 8. 85 Examples of Type E, located at 2207 Tyler Lane (above left) and 2228 Winston Avenue (above right).

Type F: Colonial Revival

The most common version of the Colonial Revival house within Strathmoor is a fairly symmetrical two story, brick veneer house with an end chimney, classical central front porch, and possibly quoins or other Colonial Revival or Neoclassical stylistic details. There are single story Colonial Revival houses in Strathmoor as well; these do not have the form of a Cape Cod and typically have more ornamentation.

Strathmoor is 16 percent Type F.



Figure 8. 86 Examples of Type F, located at 2229 Tyler Lane (above left) and 2211 Winston Avenue (above right).

Type G: Ranch

The ranch house is distinguished by its horizontality and sprawling plan. These houses are usually one story high and two rooms deep. Three- to five-bay-wide versions have been identified in the Hoock Subdivision; the three-bay-wide version was identified most often. Ranch houses in this subdivision have a variety of roof forms including hipped, gable-on-hip, and side gable. Some were built with attached garages and others lacked garages.

Strathmoor is 3 percent Type G.



Figure 8. 87 An example of Type G, located at 2220 Gladstone Avenue.

Type H: Foursquare

The McAlesters consider the American Foursquare or "Prairie Box" a sub-type of the Prairie Style house. The house usually has a square or rectangular plan, low-pitched hipped roof, and roughly symmetrical façade. These houses are typically two stories in height and often have full width, hipped roof front porches. Many have hipped roof dormers. In the Shadylawn Subdivision, the Foursquare house is mainly exhibited in four-plex (four units) apartment buildings. These typically have two front doors, one providing access to the units on the second story.

Strathmoor is 2 percent Type H.



Figure 8. 88 *Examples of Type H, located at 2634 Whittier Avenue (above left) and 2239 Lowell Avenue (above right).*

Type I: Split-Level

The split-level design was an evolution of the standard ranch house; it was influenced by Frank Lloyd Wright and his split Prairie houses. Many split-levels include a below-grade garage. The split-level has two or three short sets of interior stairs and three or four different levels. The fourth level is typically a basement beneath the mid-level floor. The front door opens into a formal living area at the mid-level floor; a short flight of stairs leads up to the bedrooms and another leads down to informal living area and garage. The mid-level floor contains the living room, dining room, and kitchen. A sub-type of the true split-level is the split-level/lower entry with its entrance on the garage level.

Strathmoor is 1 percent Type I.



Figure 8. 89 An example of Type I, located at 2531 Tennyson Avenue.

Type J: Mission/Spanish Revival

Mission style houses are rather uncommon in Strathmoor but typically are stucco or stone veneer with low-pitched, clay tile roofs emphasizing horizontality. They may have other Spanish Revival or Mission features such as arched openings, stucco siding, patios, or wrought iron balconies.

Strathmoor is 1 percent Type J.



Figure 8. 90 An example of Type J, located at 2225 Strathmoor Avenue.

Type K: Front Gable

The front gable house is defined, mainly, by its front gable roof, gable orientation, and long, narrow footprint. These houses, within the study area, typically have off-center, gable roof front porches; these porches sometimes project beyond integral front corner porches and sometimes not. Front gable houses in the study area are typically 1.5 stories with a window in the gable area of the façade and, often, with a secondary side entrance.

Strathmoor is 1 percent Type K.



Figure 8. 91 An example of Type K, located at 2303 Gladstone Avenue.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

The Strathmoor Village neighborhood⁷⁶³ is eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criteria A and C. The neighborhood successfully represents suburban community development in Jefferson County, Kentucky from 1920 to 1960. The community has seen very few changes and has had no additions or subtractions that significantly alter its character. The verdant park-like landscape has been preserved and both the buildings and the landscape have experienced minimal changes to design, materials, and workmanship. As an early-to-mid twentieth century automobile suburb, it retains integrity of location, setting, materials, workmanship, design, feeling, and association. There are 264 contributing resources, 20 noncontributing resources, and another seven resources that are undetermined. The undetermined resources need further research and possibly more intensive survey to accurately assess their National Register status.

Strathmoor retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. These homes retain original setbacks, sidewalks, driveways, and detached garages. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Strathmoor; these include aluminum, asbestos, perma-stone, synthetic stone, or vinyl siding. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Other common alterations include rear ell additions. Homes in Strathmoor have a medium level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain character-defining features such as porches, hoods, sidelights, dormers, and decorative brackets. Many retain original front doors. Aluminum awnings and non-operable shutters are often added later, but these are not considered to affect integrity.

⁷⁶³ In addition to being a neighborhood, Strathmoor Village is also a sixth class incorporated city.

Hoock (1924-1950s)

Louis/Mary Hoock (Wheeler Auction Corporation, Inc. "selling agents")



Figure 8. 92 Map of Hoock Subdivision.

During 1923 and 1924, Louis and Mary Hoock participated separately with Charles and Amelia Kurz and Nicholas and Annie Schmidt in the development of three adjacent subdivisions which included most of the area bounded by Tyler Lane, Tremont Drive, Dahlia Avenue and Bardstown Road.⁷⁶⁴ A 1924 Courier-Journal advertisement noted that Tyler Lane within "Hoock's Subdivision" was "one of the most desirable spots" along Bardstown Road. The ad also noted that the subdivision was "just outside the city limits" but with "city water, electricity available and excellent car service." Wheeler Auction Corporation, Inc. would auction the lots along Tyler Lane (now Tyler Avenue) on June 4 at 2 p.m.⁷⁶⁵

To the north of Hoock subdivision is the Briscoe subdivision and to the east is the Charles Kurz subdivision. South is the Lancashire and Eleanor Avenue subdivision. To its east is the large parcel owned by Assumption High School, St. Raphael the Archangel and St. Raphael's School. Beyond that to the east is Bardstown Road. Just outside the boundaries of Hoock subdivision at 2833 Tremont Avenue was, according to the current owner of this house, built around 1830 by an Episcopalian Bishop Smith. The house was once used as a music school for girls. Brick walls are approximately 16.5" thick. The farm once extended from Tyler Avenue to Gardiner

⁷⁶⁴ Kramer. Louisville Survey East Report, 101.

⁷⁶⁵ Courier-Journal, Louisville, Thursday Morning edition, May 22, 1924, p. 19.

Lane and would have encompassed the Hoock Subdivision also surveyed for this project as well as others.



Figure 8. 93 Aerial view of Hoock Subdivision.

Hoock, surveyed by Stonestreet & Ford, was approved on June 2, 1924. Most parcels are 40-50 feet wide and approximately 150 feet deep. There were originally 71 parcels. Subdivision streets were on a gridiron plan with lots being narrow and fairly regular. There were no curved corners or large corner lots. Streets met at right angles. At the rear of parcels was a continuous "easement for public utilities." Except for along Tyler Avenue and Lancashire, Hoock is without sidewalks. Houses retain driveways; many driveways for houses on interior streets retain drainage pipes beneath drains in the driveway itself. These carry water toward storm sewers. Storm sewer grates are located in the right-of-way.

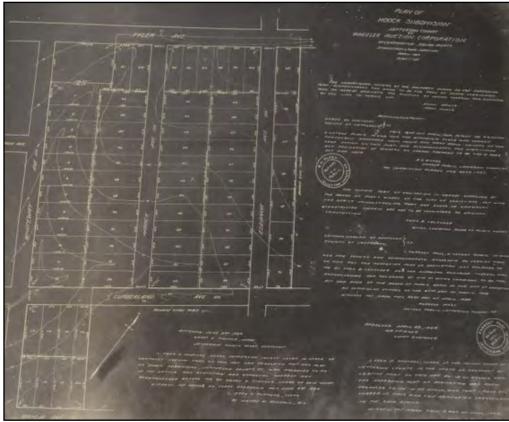


Figure 8. 94 Plat of Hoock Subdivision.

Property Types Found in Hoock Subdivision

Hoock										
Type A	Type B	Type C	Type D	Type E	Type F	U	Total			
(Bungalow)	(Cape	(Dutch	(Minimal	(Ranch)	(Tudor					
	Cod)	Colonial)	Traditional)		Revival)					
12	21	2	14	3	1	2	55			

Hoock subdivision includes fifty-five total houses of five house types including the Bungalow (**Type A**), Cape Cod (**Type B**), Dutch Colonial (**Type C**), Minimal Traditional (**Type D**), Ranch (**Type E**), and Tudor Revival (**Type F**). Two houses were of undetermined type. Most of the houses in the subdivision were Cape Cods, followed by Minimal Traditional houses, and then Bungalows.

Type A: Bungalow

The bungalow is defined by its circular floor plan. It typically has a side gable roof and either an integral or shed roof front porch usually extending across nearly the full width of the facade. Bungalows are 1.5 stories typically with a gable- or hipped-roof dormer on the front slope of the main roof and, often, a dormer on the rear slope as well. Many have bay or oriel windows in their gable ends. Bungalows often have a full width rear porch as well. Most had Craftsman style features originally; these included exposed rafter tails, wide eave overhangs, Craftsman porches, and divided light Craftsman wooden windows. Bungalows can also be oriented in front gable fashion; this orientation is more typical of a southern bungalow.

Hoock Subdivision is 22 percent Type A.



Figure 8. 95 An example of Type A, located at 2820 Hoock Avenue.

Type B: Cape Cod House

The Cape Cod house occurs in a number of variations within this subdivision. The Cape Cod is considered a plan; however, certain stylistic features have become associated. The basic version is a 1.5 story house with a central front door, steeply-pitched side gable roof, and three-bay-wide, two-pile-deep dimensions. Typically there is a gable end chimney and, often, there are gable roof dormers. The most common variation is a Tudor Revival style Cape Cod with a steeply-pitched, gable roof projecting entrance bay. An unusual variation found in this subdivision that has a lesser impact on the plan of the house is a Cape Cod with an original oriel window projecting from its façade.

Hoock Subdivision is 38 percent Type B.



Figure 8. 96 An example of Type B, located at 2821 Whiteway Avenue.

Type C: Dutch Colonial House

The Dutch Colonial house is defined mainly by its gambrel roof and Colonial Revival style features. These houses are typically two full stories and may have dormers on the front and rear slope of their roofs. Most have central front entrances. There may be an attached, original, sunroom at one end of the house.

Hoock Subdivision is 4 percent Type C.



Figure 8. 97 An example of Type C, located at 2826 Hoock Avenue.

Type D: Minimal Traditional House

A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is becoming more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced Ranch houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing.

Hoock Subdivision is 25 percent Type D



Figure 8. 98 An example of Type D, located at 2840 Eleanor Avenue.

Type E: Ranch House

The ranch house is distinguished by its horizontality and sprawling plan. These houses are usually one story high and two rooms deep. Three- to five-bay-wide versions have been identified in the Hoock Subdivision; the three-bay-wide version was identified most often. Ranch houses in this subdivision have a variety of roof forms including hipped, gable-on-hip, and side gable. Some were built with attached garages and others lacked garages.

Hoock Subdivision is 5 percent Type E.



Figure 8. 99 An example of Type E, located at 2822 Hoock Avenue.

Type F: Tudor Revival House

The Tudor Revival house is defined mainly by its steeply-pitched, gable oriented rooflines. Most often, there are more than one of these and one is separated into a projecting bay containing the front entrance. Sometimes one of the roof slopes will extend down and across the façade. Arched window, porch, and door openings are typical. A tapering façade chimney with a large base as well as ornamental stone work is often present.

Hoock Subdivision is 2 percent Type F.



Figure 8. 100 An example of Type F, located at 2821 Hoock Avenue.

These houses types indicate that Hoock began to develop in the 1920s and continued developing well into the 1940s and 1950s. Many of the Cape Cod houses in this subdivision had an oriel window projecting from their façade – this is an unusual feature. A number of parcels (east of Eleanor and south of "Cumberland" – now Lancashire) were not included in the final subdivision. The parcels that compose Hoock today appear to be unaltered, original parcels of the same shape and size as the ones that were platted. The house at 2820 Eleanor Avenue, according to its current owner, was the house the Hoocks actually lived in and was built in 1924. This owner also had a plat of the subdivision which he had found in the house. Houses along Whiteway Avenue are perhaps the most modest and least decorative, consisting mainly of Cape Cods and Minimal Traditional houses. This appears to be the latest street developed in the subdivision.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

The Hoock Subdivision is considered eligible for listing as a district in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to the broad pattern of suburban development at Louisville's metropolitan fringe in the early automobile age. The subdivision developed outside the city limits during a critical transportation transition period in the 1920s. It provides evidence of how developers of the time wisely sought to locate a subdivision with access to "excellent car service" which likely either meant interurban or streetcar service along Bardstown Road. The Hoock Subdivision may also be eligible under Criterion B for the contributions of its developers who developed other adjacent subdivisions. There is also the possibility of nominating Hoock thematically under a context examining the development of subdivisions retaining the historic home of the original landowner.

Hoock retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. These homes retain original setbacks, curbless streets, driveways, and detached garages. Sidewalks remain along Tyler Avenue. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Hoock; these include mainly the vinyl and aluminum siding of dormers. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Homes in Hoock have a medium level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain character-defining features such as porches, hoods, bay or oriel windows, door surrounds, sidelights, and dormers. Many retain original front doors. Most commonly altered or removed are smaller features such as hoods or brackets.

Wellingmoor (1939-1961)



Figure 8. 101 Map of Wellingmoor.

Wellingmoor was platted on more of a gridiron plan with 72 regular, rectangular parcels in blocks A-D originally. Its major street, Wellingmoor Avenue, extends beyond the subdivision boundaries. Streets meet one another at right angles rather than curves. Wellingmoor is bounded at the north by Brockton Lane (platted as Christina Avenue), at the east by Bon Aire Avenue, at the south by Goldsmith Lane, and at the west by Stratford Avenue.

Parcels within Wellingmoor bear little resemblance to the parcels on the official plat. The original plat showed parcels of 50 feet wide and 125-130 feet deep with a 30 foot setback or building line from Goldsmith and Wellingmoor and a 15 foot setback or building line from smaller streets Brockton and Drake. Public utility easements of 10 feet ran behind parcels. Where there were 72 extremely regular-sized platted parcels of small, rectangular size, today there are only 48 parcels. Parcels range from the original, narrow and long size to a wider and squarer parcel to accommodate ranch style development in the 1960s. Parcels were likely consolidated through the years. The parcels at the northwestern corner of Wellingmoor remain closest to their original formation and size. Based on extant buildings, Wellingmoor lay dormant for years after its official platting and its period of development is substantially later.



Figure 8. 102 Aerial view of Wellingmoor.

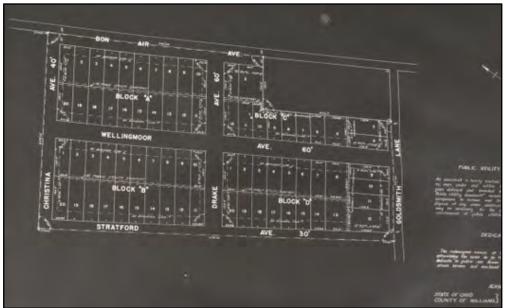


Figure 8. 103 Plat of Wellingmoor Subdivision.

Property Types Found in Wellingmoor

Wellingmoor has forty-eight houses, which includes two basic types: the Ranch (**Type A**) and the Massed Plan (**Type B**). There are thirty-eight **Type A** houses and five **Type B** houses. There are two houses of undetermined type and three houses considered anomalies including a Minimal Traditional, a Bi-Level Ranch, and a Cape Cod.

Ranch houses comprise 75 percent of the subdivision.



Figure 8. 104 An example of Type A, located at 3208 Wellingmoor Avenue.



Figure 8. 105 An example of Type B, located at 3216 Bon Air Avenue.

Many of the ranch houses in this subdivision appear to be prefabricated although further research would be needed to determine this. These houses have similar fenestration, form, and size. Typically, these houses are sided, at least partially, in brick veneer and have a central front door with two small, high windows on one side of the façade and a picture window or oriel window on the other. At least two of the ranch houses have an almost Tudor Revival influence with front-facing gable roofs on the front slope of the main roof directly above the front door. Garages, if present, are detached. The two story, brick veneer Colonial Revival house at 3237 Wellingmoor (Figure 8.106) appeared older and more substantial than the rest of the houses in the subdivision but did not appear to be an original farmhouse. The nearby house at 2612 Goldsmith Lane, however, did appear to be an original house (Figure 8.107).



Figure 8. 106 3237 Wellingmoor Avenue.



Figure 8. 107 Original house in the area at 2612 Goldsmith Lane.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

With further research, Wellingmoor is considered potentially eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to broad patterns of history – specifically as part of a Multiple Property Listing focusing on mid-twentieth century suburbanization in Louisville. It may also be significant under Criterion B for the contributions of its developer. Under Criterion C it could be considered eligible as part of a nomination focusing on the architectural characteristics of mid-century modern dwellings in Louisville. There is also the possibility of nominating Wellingmoor thematically under a context examining the development of subdivisions retaining the historic home of the original landowner.

Lacking further information on the developer, advertising strategies, whether many of the ranch houses in the subdivision are prefabricated (and what brands or models are present), Wellingmoor is considered ineligible for National Register listing as a district at this time.

Wellingmoor retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. The subdivision is still composed predominantly of traditional ranch houses, as it was originally and retains original setbacks and sidewalks, sections with curbs (both standard and rolled), and gutters. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing those with contemporary ranch homes was beyond our scope of work for this project. Integrity of **materials** is compromised by replacement windows. Cladding changes, in the form of vinyl and aluminum siding, are the most common alterations, but these are considered removable and affect integrity to a lesser degree. Integrity of **workmanship** is less applicable in Wellingmoor as most houses originally had little decorative detail and, in most cases, have remained unembellished. Most retain original fenestration and most veneered examples retain their original exterior material. Some retain decorative, diagonal, wooden braces beneath their eaves or window-walls. Car port additions, awning style front porches, and awnings above windows are also common additions but are removable and not considered to affect eligibility.

Although the entire Wellingmoor subdivision cannot be determined eligible at this time, the houses at **3218 and 3220 Bon Air Avenue** are considered eligible individually (Figures 8.108 and 8.109). These are extremely well-preserved examples of mid-century modern housing. Locals affectionately call the house at 3218 the "pie crust house" for its distinctive roofline. The brick veneer house has mid-century modern characteristics including tall, narrow fixed window openings on its facade, geometric features, concrete block screen wall, and zigzag roof (a type of butterfly roof). Roof soffits are metal-sided. Fenestration is W-W-W. The "front" door is actually in the southeastern elevation (left side) near the screen wall. Out front is an original, modern, metal lantern-style light.

The house at 3220 Bon Air Avenue is a textured brick veneer massed plan house with midcentury modern features including its hipped roof car port with concrete block screen wall and decorative metal supports. The car port is attached at the left side of the façade.



Figure 8. 108 The "pie-crust" house at 3218 Bon Air Avenue.



Figure 8. 109 House at 3220 Bon Air Avenue.

Buechel Terrace (1951-1953)

L.H. Calloway & Clifford Knopf, Developers



Figure 8. 110 Map of Buechel Terrace.

The Buechel Terrace Subdivision was platted beginning in 1950 by L.H. Calloway, President of the Buechel Development Corporation.⁷⁶⁶ Calloway later sold the developed land to Clifford Knopf, a local developer and Gunnison dealer with Town & Country Homes.⁷⁶⁷ Located along Bardstown Road, or U.S. 31 E, "outside" (south of) the Henry Watterson Expressway, or I-264, in the Louisville suburb of Buechel, Kentucky, the subdivision offers a unique perspective into the changing face of single-family housing in Louisville at mid-century. A rise in population, the beginning of suburbanization, and housing shortages in the early twentieth century presented a unique market for manufacturers. Prefabricated housing manufacturers were able to meet the demands of new industry and the burgeoning American dream of home ownership with efficient, affordable homes. Buechel Terrace is comprised, overwhelmingly, of prefabricated Gunnison homes.

⁷⁶⁶ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section One," 1950, Jefferson County Plat Book 10, p. 49, Louisville Metro Archives.

⁷⁶⁷ Gunnison Homes, Inc., "Town and Country Homes Project Planned on 160 Acres as Site for 500 New Gunnison Homes," *The Panel*, September-October 1950, vol. 1, no. 3, p. 2, private collection of Randy Shipp.



Figure 8. 111 Aerial view of Buechel Terrace.

Indiana-based Gunnison Homes began offering panelized prefabricated houses during the 1930s. The company had sold 5,000 prefab homes by the start of World War II; in 1944, the company was purchased by U.S. Steel. Fourteen basic models – one-story ranch type homes with side gable roofs – were offered by 1950.⁷⁶⁸ Knopf proceeded to build model Gunnison homes as well as advertise and sell homes in Buechel Terrace; Knopf had ten to fifteen employees at a time, including his own salespeople and builders.⁷⁶⁹ Buechel Terrace was the largest Gunnison Homes subdivision of its time.⁷⁷⁰

 ⁷⁶⁸ Cynthia E. Johnson, *House in a Box: Prefabricated Housing in the Jackson Purchase Cultural Landscape Region, 1900 to 1960*, ed. Rachel Kennedy (Frankfort: Kentucky Heritage Council, 2006), 56.
 ⁷⁶⁹ Clifford Knopf, Jr., interview by Jennifer Ryall. July 2010. Buechel, KY.

⁷⁷⁰ Gunnison Homes, Inc. "Town and Country Homes Project Planned on 160 Acres," p. 2.

Gunnison homes were constructed of pre-stressed 4' X 8' panels assembled on site and under roof within a day.⁷⁷¹ Homes came with steel casement windows, the American Kitchen with steel cabinets, and either "smooth paneled" or cedar shingle exterior material. Homes were sold by local Gunnison dealers; left- or right-hand plans were offered in two or three bedrooms.⁷⁷²

Buechel Terrace is composed of three sections; Section One was platted in 1950, Section Two in 1951, and Section Three in 1953. Character-defining features of Buechel Terrace include original setbacks and curbless streets. Paving of original gravel drives as well as the addition of sidewalks and detached garages occurred later. The trees in Buechel Terrace today are mostly 1950s replacements for the original trees bulldozed during development. At the northeast ends of Alpha Avenue and Bonnie Lane, on land that was never sold to the subdivision developer is Buechel Park. This subdivision is one of many developed during the housing boom directly influenced by General Electric's decision to build its Appliance Park in Buechel. The availability of low cost FHA mortgage loans for returning World War II veterans through the G.I. bill also helped fuel the housing boom in Buechel.

⁷⁷¹ Gunnison Homes, Inc., *The Gunnison Story*, 1951, pp. 8, 13, United States Steel Corporation Corporate Collection. ⁷⁷² Gunnison Homes, Inc., *Tomorrow's Living Today*, 1951, private collection of Randy Shipp.

Property Types Found in Buechel Terrace

Buechel Terrace Subdivision											
Section	Type A (Champion)	Type B (Coronado)	Type C (Catalina)	Type D (Deluxe)	Type E (Front Gable)	Type F (Ranch)	U	A	Total		
1	49	48	4	1	0	2	16	0	120		
2	9	90	14	0	2	7	67	1	190		
3	0	18	21	0	0	35	67	0	141		
Total	58	156	39	1	2	44	150	1	451		

Type A: The Champion The Champion was Gunnison's basic model and is tied with the Coronado model for the most common type in Buechel Terrace, section one. It came in five sizes and with three different façade fenestration patterns.



Figure 8. 112 Ad featuring the Champion in 1951 Tomorrow's Living Today (a Gunnison Publication)⁷⁷³

⁷⁷³ Gunnison Homes, Inc. "Tomorrow's Living Today," 1951 (Private Collection of Randy Shipp)



Figure 8. 113 *Examples of Type A, the Champion in Buechel Terrace: 212 Alpha (above-left) and 224 Bonnie (above-right).*

Type B: The Coronado

The Coronado was Gunnison's mid-range model and came in five sizes and with two façade fenestration patterns. This type can be identified by its wide eave overhang (often with decorative diagonal bracing), picture window or opening of this size, and absence of a full, front-projecting wing. Optional features included an 8' X 10' front porch, the "window bay" (a slightly projecting front gable façade bay containing the picture window), and the "window wall" instead of the picture window.



Figure 8. 114 Gunninson ad featuring the Cornado.



Figure 8. 115 Examples of Type B, the Coronado, at 116 Bonnie (above-left) and 215 Carey (above-right).

Type C: The Catalina

The Catalina was one of Gunnison's later, higher-end models. The Catalina came in three sizes, all of which had three bedrooms. This type can be identified by its large, front-projecting wing in addition to its wide eave overhang.



Figure 8. 116 Gunninson ad featuring the Catalina.



Figure 8. 117 Example of Type C, the Catalina, at 246 Granvil

Type D: The Deluxe

The Deluxe model is an anomaly in Buechel Terrace, section one; only one can be identified today. The Deluxe came in eight sizes. This type can be identified by its façade chimney (in addition to its normal, metal chimney-like stove pipe cover).

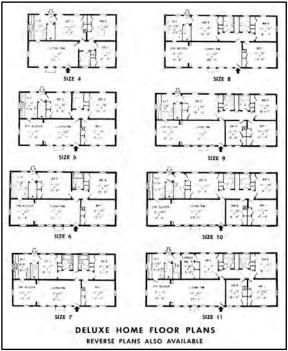


Figure 8. 118 Gunninson ad featuring floor plans of the Deluxe model.



Figure 8. 119 An example of Type D, the Deluxe, at 234 Bonnie Lane.

Type E: Front Gable House (traditional construction)

These are traditionally-constructed, gable oriented, frame homes built after the original period of construction for Buechel Terrace.



Figure 8. 120 201 Carey Avenue

Type F: Ranch House (traditional construction)

These are traditionally-constructed ranch homes built after the initial period of construction for Buechel Terrace. Typically, they are four bays wide with paired windows at one side of the façade. Roofs are either hipped or side gable.



Figure 8. 121 203 Carey Avenue

Buechel Terrace is composed of three sections; Section One was platted in 1950, Section Two in 1951, and Section Three in 1953. The plan of Section Two includes curving Granvil Drive and Carey Avenue. The majority of lots on straight streets are 150 feet deep; on curving streets lots are less standard and run anywhere from 125.92 to 352.80 feet deep.⁷⁷⁴ The plan of Section Three also includes a portion of curving Granvil Drive. The majority of lots on its straight streets are 150 feet deep and, on curving streets, anywhere from 154.46 to 338.48 feet deep.⁷⁷⁵

Section One

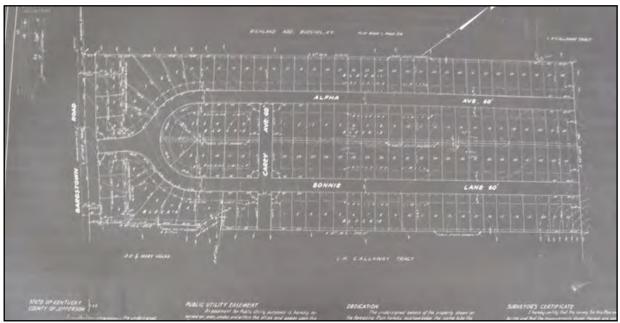


Figure 8. 122 The plat of Section One of Buechel Terrace.

Section One of Buechel Terrace, platted in 1950, was surveyed by Frank D. King. Lots originally had septic tanks, but sewer lines were extended to Buechel as G.E. was constructed. Average setback or "building limit" is forty feet and average lot size is sixty feet (wide) in all sections of the subdivision. Easements are located at the rear of the lots and are from ten to fifteen feet. Lot depths; however, vary considerably. The plan of Section One is fairly linear with one entrance street branching into two, straight, parallel streets. The majority of lots in Section One are 167.5

⁷⁷⁴ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section Two," 1951, Jefferson County Plat Book 10, p. 92, Louisville Metro Archives.

⁷⁷⁵ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section Three," 1953, Jefferson County Plat Book 11, p. 70, Louisville Metro Archives.

feet deep.⁷⁷⁶ Section One originally had 116 lots; lots fronting on Bardstown Road were platted as residential lots but held in reserve and originally sold as commercial lots to finance the development.⁷⁷⁷ Today, in Section One, there are approximately 112 single family residences as well as seven modern, commercial intrusions and one business located in an adaptively-reused home.⁷⁷⁸

In Section One of Buechel Terrace, an overwhelming majority of homes are identified as either Champion (**Type A**) or Coronado (**Type B**) model Gunnison homes; their numbers are almost equally balanced between the two. Only a few Catalina (type C) model Gunnison homes were identified in Section One. Section One is the only one in which a Deluxe (**Type D**) model Gunnison home has been identified.

⁷⁷⁶ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section One," 1950, Jefferson County Plat Book 10, p. 49, Louisville Metro Archives.

⁷⁷⁷ Clifford Knopf, Jr., interview by Jennifer Ryall. July 2010. Buechel, KY.

⁷⁷⁸ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section One," 1950, Jefferson County Plat Book 10, p. 49, Louisville Metro Archives.

Section Two



Figure 8. 123 Plat of Section Two of Buechel Terrace.

Section Two of Buechel Terrace, platted in 1951, was surveyed by a registered professional engineer (KY #496) of Rodgers & Rodgers, Inc. Engineers. Section Two originally had 188 lots; this included unnumbered "Parcel A" near Bardstown Road and a "Reserved" parcel located between Carey Avenue and Granvil Drive that eventually became the 232 Carey Avenue location of Iglesia Baptista Cooper Chapel. Parcels #5 and #43 are substantially larger than the others on the original plat; this was, apparently, due to drainage easements running through. Parcels #5 and #43 have since been subdivided. The large "Reserved" parcel was included on the plat out of necessity; apparently, the owner would not sell this piece of land to Knopf as part of Buechel Terrace.

Today, Section Two has approximately 189 single family residences and one commercial intrusion (Iglesia Baptista Cooper Chapel).⁷⁷⁹ Section Two contains an overwhelming number of

⁷⁷⁹ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section Two," 1951, Jefferson County Plat Book 10, p. 92, Louisville Metro Archives.

Coronado (**Type B**) model Gunnison homes. It is the only section in which gable oriented (**Type E**) Gunnison homes have been identified.

Section Three



Figure 8. 124 Plat of Section Three of Buechel Terrace.

Section Three of Buechel Terrace, platted in 1953, was surveyed by the same registered professional engineer (KY #496) that surveyed Section Two, though in 1953 he was with Rudy & Keal Civil Engineers.

Section Three has retained its original 141 lots.⁷⁸⁰ Parcels adjoining the creek in Sections Two and Three were originally considered unbuildable. Lots with rear property lines abutting the Southern Railway right-of-way may have also been impossible to build on originally due to noise issues. On these lots, we find the presence of later, brick veneer ranch houses and a few front gable, frame houses. In addition, a small number of houses were relocated to Buechel Terrace in the 1990s from a residential area near Standiford Field (now Louisville International Airport)

⁷⁸⁰ "Buechel Terrace Subdivision, Section Three," 1953, Jefferson County Plat Book 11, p. 70, Louisville Metro Archives.

due to noise issues when it expanded. These latter two houses included 212 and 214 Carey Avenue. The presence of these later houses now serves a valuable indicator of land originally considered unbuildable and, therefore, vacant historically.

In Section Three, no Champion (**Type A**) model Gunnison homes were identified – only the higher-end models. Of the three sections, Section Three contains the greatest number of Catalina (**Type C**) model Gunnison homes. In Section Three there are almost equal numbers of Catalina (**Type C**) and Coronado (**Type B**) Gunnison homes identified. Additionally, in both Sections Two and Three, more homes were identified as Catalina (**Type C**) models on Granvil Drive than on the other streets combined.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Houses in Buechel Terrace have, like any others, undergone change over time. Because these homes are, comparatively, of more recent construction, they need to retain a higher level of integrity to be considered eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP).

Buechel Terrace is considered eligible as a district under a Criterion A with a community planning and development area of significance. Listed as a district under Criterion A or as a multiple property nomination, the area of significance suggested for Buechel Terrace is community planning and development with a theme focusing on the subdivision as representative of low-cost residential development in Jefferson County during the post-World War II period. The author would place Buechel Terrace in context, comparing with similar contemporary Jefferson County subdivisions to identify its contribution to the low-cost residential development of the county. This approach, the strongest method of listing the Buechel Terrace subdivision, would allow the author of the nomination to focus on both architectural and landscape features identifying it as a low-cost, post-World War II subdivision.

Furthermore, Clifford Knopf built a substantial number of affordable, single family houses in Jefferson County in such subdivision as Buechel Terrace, Frederick Acres, and Klondike Acres. The contributions Knopf made as a Jefferson County developer, along with his tenures as president of the Home Builders Association of Louisville and Home Builders Association of Kentucky and position as national director of the National Association of Home Builders, make Knopf a significant figure in the development of Jefferson County and may make a dual Criterion A and Criterion B NRHP district listing possible. An NRHP multiple property listing, including evaluations of each of the related affordable housing subdivisions developed by Town & Country Homes would be a good first step toward a nomination.

Buechel Terrace may be eligible under a Criterion C nomination focusing on the post-World War II, prefabricated housing subdivision as a historic landscape. This type of nomination might focus on its retention of such character-defining landscape features as sixty foot lot widths, forty foot setbacks, public utility and telephone easements, driveways, trees contemporary in age with the subdivision, curvilinear streets and, obviously, prefabricated housing. It is also possible that in other prefabricated housing subdivisions street lights, sewers, curbs, and gutters may be absent. Drainage easements may be a common feature, indicating bodies of water bisecting subdivisions. These historic landscape features would then need to be compared to other post-World War II, prefabricated housing subdivision on either a regional or national level to develop a context.

Buechel Terrace retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. The first and second sections of this subdivision are still composed almost entirely of Gunnison homes, as they were originally. These homes retain their original setbacks, sidewalks, curbless streets, driveways, detached garages, and trees. The few intrusions into the subdivision face on

Bardstown Road or on the entrance street Buechel Terrace and are identified more strongly with the Bardstown Road corridor. Later houses brought in during the Standiford Field airport expansion and those built later on land considered unbuildable due to location along the Southern Railway right-of-way or the intermittent stream are grouped together and not scattered throughout. Their grouping, along with their brick veneer exterior material, makes these houses easily identifiable and indicates that they were later constructions. Their grouping on lots which were originally empty compromises the integrity of Buechel Terrace to a lesser degree. Actually, these houses serve as valuable indicators of land originally considered unbuildable in this and other subdivisions.

Integrity of **design** remains high in this Gunnison Homes subdivision. The lack of change can be explained by the structural nature of the stressed skin plywood panels; this meant that entire, bolted, structural panels needed to be removed to make changes. Access was obtained to several Gunnison Homes in this subdivision and the most common changes observed were rear, shed roof additions for family room, enclosed door openings originally connecting the kitchen and utility room, linoleum or wall-to-wall-carpet-covered original asphalt tile floors, and painted and/or drywalled original unpainted plywood panel wall surfaces. Room arrangements and floor plans had been little altered beyond these. Many houses retain original bathroom and kitchen cabinets and original bathroom tubs. All houses retained original stressed skin plywood panels. Integrity of materials is compromised by replacement windows in most homes and, occasionally, by large additions which project above or obscure original facades. Most houses have been sided in vinyl or aluminum; however, these particular exterior cladding alterations are considered removable. Original fenestration has been altered in only a few cases. Homes in Buechel Terrace have a medium level of integrity of workmanship. Most retain characterdefining metal flue pipe chimney surrounds, but in some cases these, along with features like diagonal wooden bracing beneath eaves, have been removed; casement windows have often been replaced.

Based on available information on the type of subdivision, the contributions of its developer Clifford Knopf, and the integrity of the subdivision, Buechel Terrace is considered eligible for listing on the National Register at this time.

Prototype Subdivisions

After examining 10 subdivisions from the time period of the study, a dozen other subdivisions across Louisville were chosen to test the theories worked out during the initial fieldwork and research. Six subdivisions were examined along the Dixie Highway Corridor, and three subdivisions along the Bardstown Road Corridor. An additional three subdivisions, selected from major transportation corridors across Jefferson County, including US 60 (Shelbyville Road), Taylorsville Road and Preston Highway, were also evaluated. Woodhill Valley, located off of US 42 (Brownsboro Road) and surveyed as part of the LSIORB project, was used for comparative purposes. The purpose of these "prototype" subdivisions was to assess the applicability of both the survey methodology and the evaluation criteria. The subdivisions along Dixie Highway are presented first, then those along Bardstown Road. The four subdivisions all date from the World War II and post-war period.

Most survey efforts identify the resource, and then, using an applicable context and known scholarship, assess its eligibility potential. More often than not, field workers end up using Criterion C as the only basis by which to judge the particular resource. As stated in Chapter 6, this can lead to a slippery slope of analysis, in which the best, the most unique, the clearly "highly-style" example receives the most attention, and subsequently, is the standard by which others are judged. Understanding the context in which the subdivision developed requires looking beyond the visual appearance of the neighborhood. The location of the subdivision, its proximity to either commercial areas or major transportation routes, and the effort with which it was promoted and sold all provide clues to the significance of the development.

Prototype Subdivisions in the Dixie Highway Study Corridor

Figure 8.125 provides an overview of the prototype subdivisions in the Dixie Highway Study Corridor. More detailed maps and aerial views are included in with the discussion of each subdivision.

- Buchhold Acres (1951-1960s)
- Raleigh Subdivision (1952-1960s)
- Kellsbury Acres (1950s)
- Roberta Subdivision (1940s)
- Parkview Garden (1954-1960s)
- Dixie Gardens (1953-1960s)

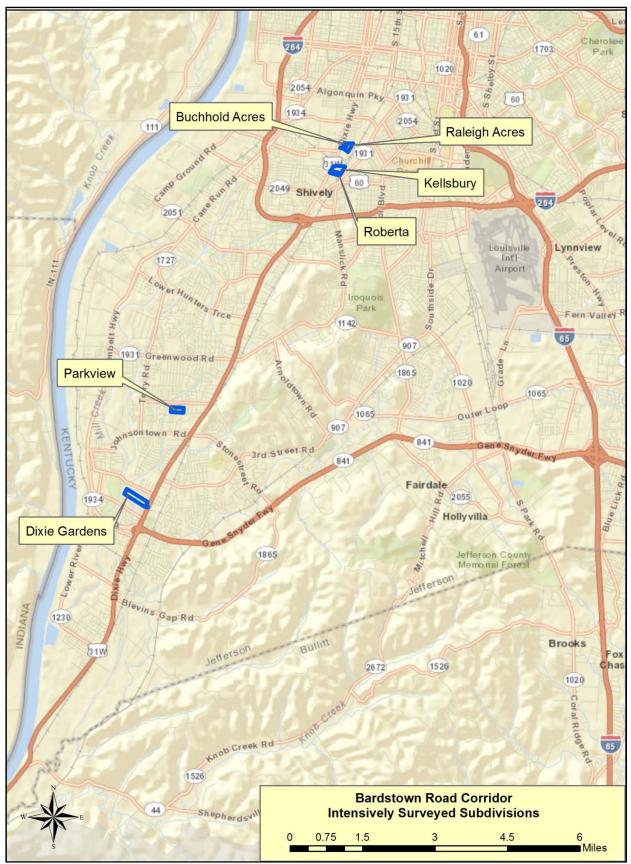


Figure 8. 125 Prototype subdivisions in the Dixie Highway Corridor.

Buchhold Acres

Rudolph F. and Lillian G. Buchhold



Figure 8. 126 Map of Buchhold Acres.

Buchhold Acres, located on the east side of Dixie Highway, north of Ralph Avenue, is a 15parcel development of brick-veneered homes platted in 1950. The subdivision is an example of the small-scale, owner-developed subdivision common along Dixie Highway prior to the boom years of the middle of the decade. Buchhold Acres was platted by its owners, Rudolph F. Buchhold and Lillian Buchhold, in 1950. Rudolph Buchhold worked in the tanning industry; in the 1925 Carron's Directory of Louisville, he is listed as a foreman at Excelsior Tanning. He lived on Bolling Avenue, north of Algonquin Parkway, at that time.

Garey Lane is the entrance road off of Dixie Highway into the subdivision, which was platted behind (east) of a row of seven lots fronting on Dixie. These parcels predate the development of Buchhold Acres and that of the adjoining subdivision, Raleigh Subdivision (for more discussion of Raleigh, see page 396). These parcels contain brick bungalows from the 1920s and 1930s, as well as a mid-twentieth century commercial structure.



Figure 8. 127 Aerial photo of Buchhold Acres and Raleigh Subdivision.

Prior to development, the nearly four-and-one-half acre site was part of a small farm owned by German immigrants. The 1913 Atlas of Louisville shows the area settled mostly by members of the Wurtele family. A two-story central cross gable frame house, likely the Wurtele farmhouse, is still on the south side of Buchhold Acres (Figure 8.128). The five-bay wide dwelling has undergone many modifications over the years, including the application of brick veneer to one elevation, and fenestration changes. It does appear, however, that the orientation toward Dixie Highway is original.



Figure 8. 128 Original Wurtele farmhouse.

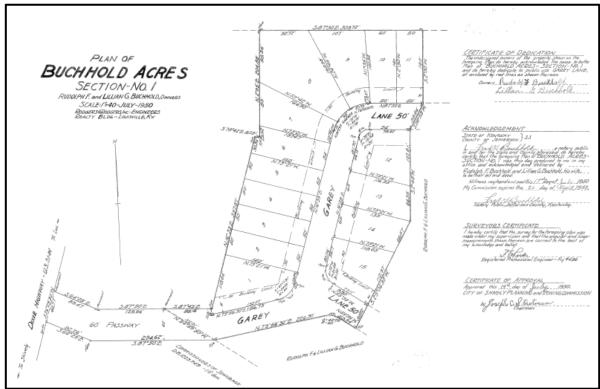


Figure 8. 129 Plat of Buchhold Acres.

Construction began in Buchhold Acres in 1951, with the construction of one dwelling, 3018 Garey Lane. There are no sidewalks or curbs. Each dwelling has a paved driveway, and most feature a detached, one-car garage to the rear of the house.



Figure 8. 130 Looking north down Garey Lane.



Figure 8. 131 One of the hipped roof ranches in Buchhold Acres.

With the exception of two houses (both a Minimal Traditional style), the subdivision consists of one-story, brick-veneered ranch houses on poured concrete foundations, with a range of between 800 to 1,000 square feet. The majority feature hipped, asphalt shingle roofs, with a three-bay wide façade and brick chimneys. Common alterations include enclosure of the side porch/breezeway, and replacement windows and doors.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Buchhold Acres is not considered eligible for listing in the NRHP at this time. Though the subdivision of truck farms along Dixie Highway is one of the important themes of suburban development in southwestern Jefferson County, and this parcel's association with that theme, the relative small scale of the development, combined with the platting of Raleigh Subdivision immediately behind the original development, detracts from Buchhold Acres' ability to fully convey its association with the theme of the homebuilder in post-war Louisville (Criterion A).

Although the subdivision appears to contain the original dwelling, which certainly helps chart its evolution from semi-rural truck farm to a 1950s, small-scale development along the growing and thriving artery of Dixie Highway, this alone is not enough to make the development significant, especially in light of the other subdivisions which more clearly illustrate this theme of growth. The integrity of the farmhouse has also been severely impacted. At this time, there is not enough information about the Buchholds to consider the development eligible under Criterion B. The 15 dwellings do not retain enough integrity to be eligible for listing under Criterion C.

Raleigh Subdivision

Trinity Homes, Inc. (David H Wilson, president)



Figure 8. 132 Map of Raleigh Acres.

Raleigh Subdivision, located on the east side of Dixie Highway, north of Ralph Avenue, was developed behind (east) of Buchhold Acres. Platted in 1952, the subdivision was platted by Trinity Corporation (David Wilson), the same company that developed Lynnview. There are two streets in the subdivision; Garey Lane leads from Dixie Highway (and is the main road in Buchhold Acres) and wraps around the subdivision, while Shoreham Lane connects the two sides of Garey Lane. The streets are only 50-feet wide, on the small side for developments of the period.

The 53-lot development has a curvilinear street pattern with one cul-de-sac in the southeast corner. The setback for all of the lots is 30 feet, which is also less than the standard 40-feet in most contemporary developments. The parcels are irregularly shaped; on Garey Lane at the bottom (south) of the plat and on the eastern size, every other lot is a different width, either 50 or 55 feet wide. All of those lots are 100 feet deep. The parcels on Shoreham Lane are plated to conform to the almost-triangular shape formed by the two roads.



Figure 8. 133 Aerial view of Raleigh Subdivision. Buchhold Acres is located immediately to the west (left in photo).

As it was being developed, Raleigh Subdivision was hailed for its "modern" look. The houses were designed by local architect E.W. Augustus, who also designed the houses in Lynnview. The houses incorporated "open planning, horizontal sliding windows, window walls, storage walls and color."⁷⁸¹ Architects and realtors at the time expressed caution about any development with "modern architecture," being as the Louisville market did not embrace any hint of modern architecture. Trinity Corporation President David Wilson remarked at the time, "There's no reason to build a modern house unless it's cheaper for the buyer, or unless you get a more efficient design for modern living."⁷⁸²

The subdivision, while very moderately priced, placed a strong emphasis on "design" in all of its promotional materials (Figure 8.135). In addition to the architecture, another interesting aspect of Raleigh Subdivision was its emphasis on color. The entire subdivision was "color-planned by W. Shrewsbury Pusey, color expert for the University for Illinois Small Homes Council. All colors, inside and out, are specially mixed."

There were three options available in Raleigh Subdivision, all well within the "minimum" house standard established by the FHA in the 1940s, though the development did not market itself to

 ⁷⁸¹ Grady Clay. "A New Shively Subdivision Will Stress the Modern Look." *The Courier-Journal*. May 11, 1952.
 ⁷⁸² Ibid.

GIs or as an FHA-approved subdivision. A two-bedroom house model with 815 square feet was priced at \$8,750; a two-bedroom model with expansion attic and 850 square feet on the first floor was \$10,75; and the three-bedroom model, with 1,025 square feet was also \$10,750.

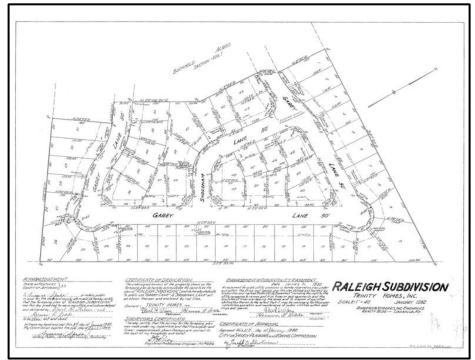


Figure 8. 134 Plat of Raleigh Subdivision.

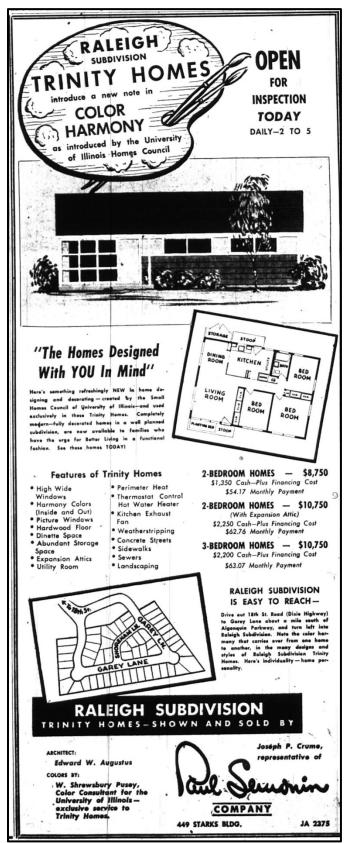


Figure 8. 135 A 1953 ad for Raleigh Subdivision.



Figure 8. 136 Streetscape view, Raleigh Subdivision.



Figure 8. 137 Streetscape view, showing curvilinear street pattern.



Figure 8. 138 House on Garey Lane that has been clad in brick veneer.



Figure 8. 139 Relatively unaltered dwelling in Raleigh Subdivision, at 3006 Garey Lane.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Raleigh Subdivision is potentially eligible for listing under Criterion C, for its use of design and color as a marketing point, and for the modern house styles that were aimed at the lower part of the housing market. The study did not locate any other subdivisions which were promoted this way, and the style of the homes is not comparable to other 1950s developments along Dixie Highway.

That being said, extensive additional research and survey would be needed to adequately make a case for this argument, because the subdivision does have some integrity issues. The overall condition of the neighborhood is not high, and several homes have been boarded up or appear abandoned. Inappropriate changes that obscure the original dwelling are apparent on several parcels.

Kellsbury Acres

Builders& Developers, Inc.



Figure 8. 140 Map of Kellsbury Acres.

Kellsbury Acres illustrates the predominant trend along Dixie Highway in the 1950s, as truck farms in Shively and further down Dixie Highway sold, and houses became their new crop. The estate of August Bachmann, Sr., sold his 19.1-acre tract, situated between Dixie Highway and Seventh Street Road, for \$50,000.00. Bachmann belonged to the German immigrant population that settled in the Shively area around the Civil War. The 1913 Atlas of Louisville show's Bachmann's farm, then shown as being 18.29 acres, surrounded by the other small tracts of German families (Figure 8.141).

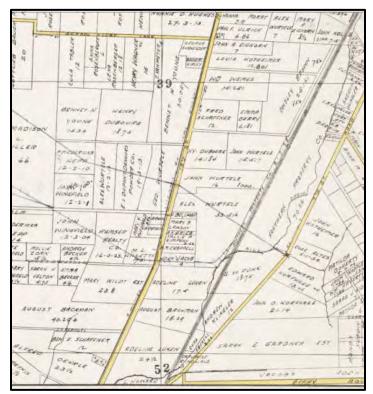


Figure 8. 141 *1913 Louisville Title map showing the farm of Augustus Bachmann, which would become Kellsbury Acres.*



Figure 8. 142 Aerial view of Kellsbury Acres.

The new subdivision was platted (Figure 8.143) in November 1951 by Builders-Developers, Inc. Fronting on Dixie Highway, the streets within the 81-house development include two east-west streets, Bachmann Drive and Chester Road, both of which run into Barkwood Road at the rear (east end) of the subdivision. The two small north-south streets are Kelland Way and Deorr Drive.



Figure 8. 143 Plat of Kellsbury Acres.

All 81 houses sit on lots sized 59 by 120 feet, with 26-foot streets, sidewalks, and when built, the houses all had city water, gas and septic tanks. Each house measures 36 by 24.5 feet, with a "living rooms, kitchen, two bedrooms and bath on the first floor, and open stairway to the unfinished second floor which has space for two bedrooms."⁷⁸³ The houses were priced at \$11,250, with a down-payment of \$2,500 plus closing costs. The subdivision shares some characteristics of other Dixie Highway developments inside the Watterson Expressway, including the inclusion of multi-family housing and commercial buildings. The Dixie Highway road frontage (548 feet in this case) was always slated for apartments and/or multi-family residential and commercial use. A two-story brick-veneered duplex, located on Bachmann Road near the intersection with Dixie Highway, was offered for sale in the November 22, 1953 edition of the *Courier-Journal* (Figures 8.144 and 8.145).

⁷⁸³ No author. "Another Shively Subdivision, Kellsbury Acres, Opens Today." The Courier-Journal.



Figure 8. 144 Ad for a duplex in Kellsbury Acres; extant resource seen below.



Figure 8. 145 Duplex featured in the above advertisment.

The original Bachmann family home, which fronted on the "east side of Seventh Street Road about 1.2 miles south of Algonquin Parkway" was slated to be remodeled and "converted into a six-unit apartment of colonial design. The original structure was a log house."⁷⁸⁴ It is not known whether or not this adaptive reuse of the Bachmann House took place, but the resource does not appear to be extant. Prior to the development of Kellsbury Acres, the 1950 Sanborn map shows a complex of buildings on the Bachmann parcel (Figure 8.146).

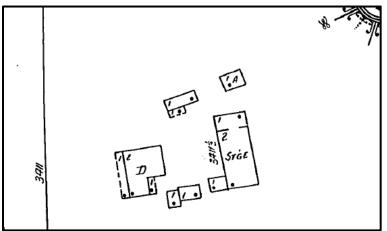


Figure 8. 146 Section from the 1951 Sanborn showing the buildings that predated the development of the subdivision. .

When the subdivision opened, each house was described as "half of each house front will be of brick or stone, and the remainder of conventional siding." Kellsbury Acres features one-and-one-half story, three bay wide, side-gable homes with several variations, including a straight side gable roof (Figure 8.149), a side cross-gable (Figure 8.150) and a side-gable with a slight extension on one side. The fenestration remains the same – two small, windows placed high on the wall to one side of the entry door, and then to the other side, a large, picture window. These types are concentrated on Bachmann Drive, Chester Road and Barkwood Road. The small cross streets of Kelland and Doerr features more traditional one-story brick veneered ranch houses with side-gable or hipped roofs.

⁷⁸⁴ Ibid.



Figure 8. 147 Looking west down Bachmann Drive.



Figure 8. 148 Examples of houses on Bachmann Drive.



Figure 8. 149 House with the "half of brick and half of frame" siding



Figure 8. 150 House retaining original shingles in gable.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Kellsbury Acres is considered eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A, for its association with an early phase of development along Dixie Highway (1951) and the role of the operative builder (Builders & Developers, Inc.). An additional context for Kellsbury Acres is its association with the Bachmann family, which needs additional research.

Kellsbury retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. These homes retain original setbacks, sidewalks, and relation to one another. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Other common alterations include rear ell additions, and aluminum or vinyl siding in the gable ends. Homes in Kellsbury have a medium level of integrity of **workmanship**. Many retain original front doors. Aluminum awnings and non-operable shutters are often added later, but these are not considered to affect integrity.

Roberta

Wessell family members



Figure 8. 151 Map of Roberta Subdivision.

The Roberta Subdivision is located on the east side of Dixie Highway, north of the intersection of Seventh Street Road and Dixie Highway. It contains one street, Theresa Avenue. The subdivision, platted in 1924, is a small - not quite seven acres - linear development of 42 parcels. Though platted in the 1920s, construction did not begin until after the Depression, and continued into the 1940s. It is an example of one of the early divisions of land along Dixie Highway. The lots on the north side are fairly regular in size, all 50 feet wide and 115 deep, while the lots on the south side are staggered moving toward the railroad, getting longer as they follow the property line.

The area along the railroad was quite industrial, including the Merrick Lumber Company, auto sales and repair shops and the Louisville Loose Leaf Tobacco warehouse. It appears that this subdivision was developed in the traditional process with builders constructing a house or two, then selling it, and the homebuyers (and renters) likely worked nearby. On the 1951 Sanborn, the neighborhood is completely built-up, while the land that would become Kellsbury Acres is still farmland (Figure 8.154).



Figure 8. 152 Aerial view of Roberta Subdivision.

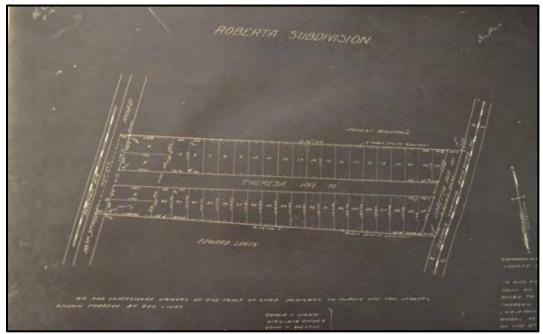


Figure 8. 153 Plat of Roberta Subdivision.

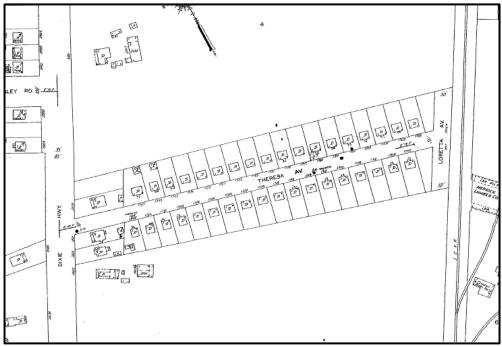


Figure 8. 154 Section of the 1951 Sanborne map of Louisville, showing Roberta Subdivision.

Most of the small, frame, one-story houses were built between the end of World War II and 1951. There are two types: a side-gable, three bay house, and a front-gable version, two bays wide. Most of the houses have a small, front-gable hood over the front door, and a central brick flue on the ridgeline. The houses rest on poured concrete foundations. A few have been clad in brick or perma-stone, and most have more recent siding, replacement windows and doors.



Figure 8. 155 Streetscape view of Roberta Subdivision.



Figure 8. 156 Looking west down Theresa Avenue, toward Dixie Highway.



Figure 8. 157 The front-gable type in Roberta Subdivision.



Figure 8. 158 The side-gable type in Roberta Subdivision.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance: Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Roberta Subdivision is not considered eligible for listing in the NRHP at this time.

Parkview Garden

Aaron & Sidney Chase (owners)

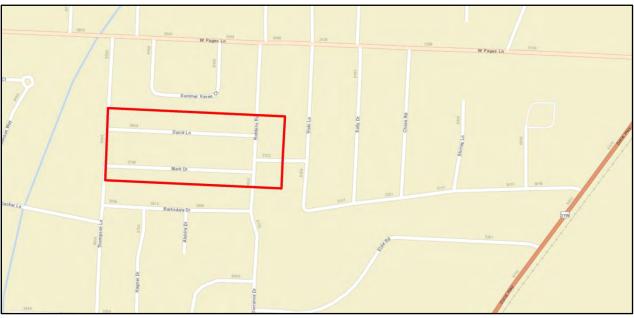


Figure 8. 159 Map of Parkview Garden.

Parkview Garden, located in the Dixie Highway Corridor, was platted in 1954 by its owners Aaron and Sidney Chase. The subdivision is located on the west side of Dixie Highway, between West Pages Lane and Johnsontown Road. The grid-iron subdivision consists of two main east-west streets, David Lane and Mark Dive, and two north-south cross streets, Robbins Road and Thompson Lane. The streets are all 60 feet wide. There are 59 lots in the subdivision, measuring 85 feet wide by 111 feet deep, with a 40-foot setback. There are no sidewalks, but a drainage culvert runs through the setback. Landscaping is minimal.



Figure 8. 160 Aerial view of Parkview Garden.

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Figure 8. 161 Plat of Parkview Garden.

Archival research did not produce any information about Parkview Garden, which was being built during one of the busiest periods in the post-war period along Dixie Highway. It was not a heavily-promoted development; being on the small side for the time, lots were likely sold via word of the mouth. The houses are all ranch house, either of brick or stone veneer, most with hipped roofs. A few of the houses have had "pop-top" additions, where a second story has been added, radically changing the look of the original dwelling.



Figure 8. 162 Streetscape view along Mark Drive.



Figure 8. 163 View of David Lane.



Figure 8. 164 Ranch house in Parkview Garden.



Figure 8. 165 Brick-veneered ranch house in Parkview Garden.



Figure 8. 166 *Example of a one-story ranch house with a second story* "popped" out of the roof.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Parkview Garden is not considered eligible for listing in the NRHP at this time. It does not appear to be a good example to illustrate any of the larger, contextual themes of suburban development along Dixie Highway, and its integrity has been severely impacted by unsympathetic alterations and changes over time.

Dixie Gardens

Sunset Hill Development Co. (Delbert and Duncan Paschal)



Figure 8. 167 Map of Dixie Gardens.

When Dixie Gardens was platted in 1953, it was the largest subdivision to date off of Dixie Highway. Described as being "ideally located in dynamic Dixie Highway" the subdivision represents one of the main themes of post-war residential suburban development in Louisville: a planned development, laid out by an operative builder.⁷⁸⁵ As an FHA-approved subdivision, Dixie Gardens had to abide by fairly strict design and layout guidelines.

The builder-developers behind Dixie Gardens, Delbert and Duncan Paschal, previously had built homes on the East side of Louisville, including Standiford Place (platted 1948), Indian Hills (1949), and Yorkshire Subdivision (platted 1950). These developments were typical of the construction of the time, with "long rows of houses costing from \$10,000 to \$13,000."⁷⁸⁶ The houses along Yorkshire Boulevard, for example, in the Yorkshire Subdivision, are all brick-

⁷⁸⁵ The Courier-Journal. June 21, 1953. Section 3, page 5.

⁷⁸⁶ Grady Clay. "New Dixie Gardens Subdivision is Something of an Accident." *The Courier-Journal*. June 16, 1952, section 7, page 7.

veneered Minimal Traditional or Cape Cod style, one-and-one-half story dwellings. These developments were much smaller than Dixie Gardens but were intended to be precursor to a more-expensive type of development. The struggle over the Paschal's attempts to climb the ladder of residential development inside the Watterson on Bardstown Road was discussed in Chapter 6 (see page 158). After their failed efforts to develop Sunset Hill, the Paschals sought more fruitful ground along the rapidly-growing Dixie Highway.



Figure 8. 168 Aerial view of Dixie Gardens.

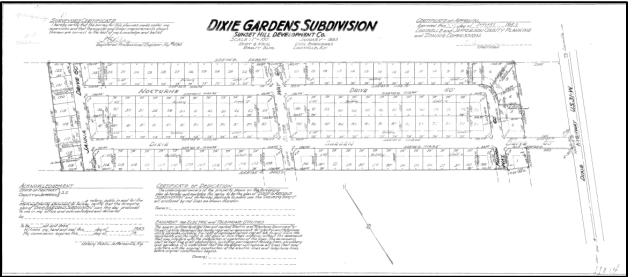


Figure 8. 169 Plat of Dixie Gardens, section 1.

These large-scale gridiron developments consisted of affordable homes, usually located off of a major transportation artery, combined with a shopping center development, and often close to schools and a bus line. Ideally located one-half mile south of Valley High School, on the west side of Dixie Highway, Section 1 of Dixie Gardens consists of Dixie Gardens Drive (which leads from Dixie Highway, past the shopping center, into the subdivision) and running parallel to it on the north is Nocturne Drive. Fashion Way, Blaze Way and Janna Drive are the three cross streets.

The development was aimed at the new homeowners of Louisville, with financing through the FHA and no down payment required. The subdivision features sidewalks, with drainage channels running parallel to the street, between the street and sidewalk. Promotional materials for Dixie Gardens advertised the subdivision's 24-foot wide blacktop streets, storm sewers, and 75-foot lots with blacktop driveways. The stone and brick veneer ranch houses ranged in price from \$13,000 to \$18,500, although a September 1954 ad (Figure 8.170) touts the price as between \$12,500 and \$14,750.



Figure 8. 170 Dixie Gardens ad in the September 19, 1954 edition of The Courier-Journal.



Figure 8. 171 Looking westward down Dixie Gardens Drive.

The houses are one-story, brick veneer ranch houses, either side-gable or hipped roof. The majority are four bays wide, with either an attached one-bay wide garage or a carport. Common alterations include replacement windows and doors, the enclosure of the attached garage (and conversion to family room), the addition of handicap-access ramps, and the addition of awnings.



Figure 8. 172 Hipped-roof and side-gable ranch houses on Dixie Gardens Drive.



Figure 8. 173 *A hipped-roof ranch with attached carport (and detached garage) on Dixie Gardens Drive.*

As a "planned development" the shopping center fronting on Dixie Highway was a component to the subdivision. In addition to commercial development, these parcels also include the Valley Station Church of Christ (Figure 8.174). The 1960s-era church is one of the few active establishments left in the shopping center, which has declined sharply since its original construction (Figure 8.175).



Figure 8. 174 Valley Station Church of Christ



Figure 8. 175 The remnants of the shopping center associated with Dixie Gardens.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

The Dixie Gardens Subdivision is eligible for listing under Criterion A for its association with the post-war housing boom along Dixie Highway, and the role of the Paschal Brothers, who illustrate the theme of community builders. When Dixie Gardens was platted in 1953, it was the largest subdivision to date off of Dixie Highway. As an FHA-approved subdivision, Dixie Gardens complied with the agency's guidelines and standards in providing an affordable development for veterans and other qualifying homebuyers.

Dixie Gardens retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. These homes retain original setbacks, sidewalks, curbless streets, driveways, and detached garages. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Dixie Gardens; the majority of these include aluminum and vinyl siding. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Other common alterations include rear ell additions, but as these houses were designed to be "expandable," this is not considered a negative change. Homes in Dixie Gardens have a medium level of integrity of **workmanship**. Many retain original front doors. Aluminum awnings and non-operable shutters are often added later, but these are not considered to affect integrity. Occasional enclosure of attached garages is not considered to detract from the integrity of the subdivision.

Prototype Subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Corridor

Figure 8.176 provides an overview of the prototype subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Study Corridor. More detailed maps and aerial views are included in with the discussion of each subdivision.

- Highgate Springs (1953-1960s)
- Young Acres (1954-1960s)
- Frederick Acres (1954-1960)

Prototype Subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Corridor

Figure 8.176 provides an overview of the prototype subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Study Corridor. More detailed maps and aerial views are included in with the discussion of each subdivision.

- Highgate Springs (1953-1960s)
- Young Acres (1954-1960s)
- Frederick Acres (1954-1960)



Figure 8. 176 Prototype Subdivisions in the Bardstown Road Corridor.

Highgate Springs

Crawford Homes, Inc.

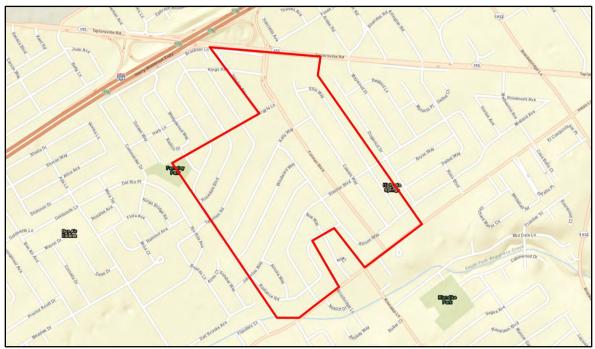


Figure 8. 177 Map of Highgate Springs.

One of the most controversial developments along the Bardstown Road corridor in the early 1950s was Highgate Springs. Located outside of the Watterson, between Bardstown Road and Taylorsville Road, the subdivision illustrates the theme of out-of-state development during Louisville's post-war housing boom. In June 1953, the 230-acre Henden Farm sold to the Kentucky subsidiary of the Louisiana-based Crawford Homes, Inc., for \$520,700.787

The Crawford Corporation had a "reputation for building modest, inexpensive homes" in Louisiana.⁷⁸⁸ Residents of existing subdivisions in the area protested that the development would "devalue the neighborhood."⁷⁸⁹ Homes were planned to range from \$12,500 to \$25,000, although most of those would fit into the \$14,500 to \$16,500 bracket. Home prices aside, it was the total in-house control to be exercised by Crawford that drew the most ire from the local construction and building community. The lumber for the houses would be precut and shipped to Louisville

⁷⁸⁷ Grady Clay. "Louisianans Planning 1,200-House Subdivision Here Meet Opposition." *The Courier-Journal*, June 21, 1953, section 3, page 14.
⁷⁸⁸ Kramer, "A History of Eastern Louisville," 138.

⁷⁸⁹ Ibid.

from Crawford's mills in Louisiana. Financing would also be handled by a subsidiary of Crawford, the Crawford Home Loan Corporation.



Figure 8. 178 Aerial view of Highgate Springs.

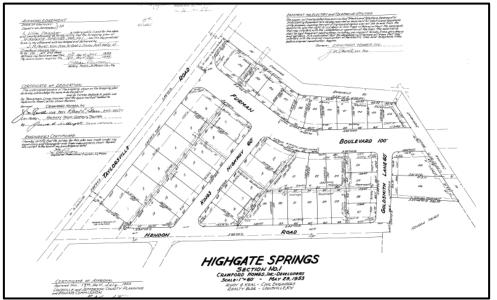


Figure 8. 179 Plat of Section One of Highgate Springs.

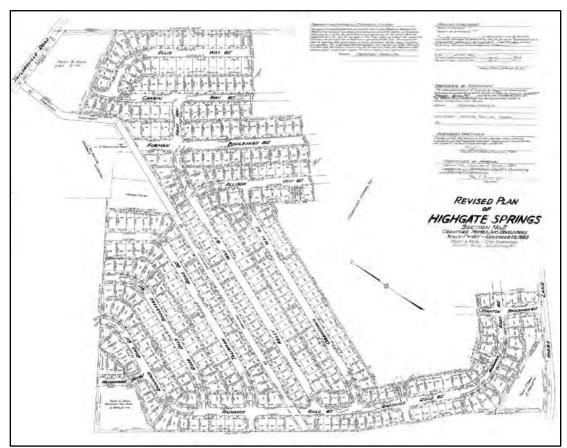


Figure 8. 180 Plat of Section Two of Highgate Springs.

Crawford, in an attempt to soothe the uproar, agreed "to a deed restriction which limited homes in the vicinity of Taylorsville Road and Hendon Lane to a minimum value of \$13,500." This restriction covered only nine lots, and the development moved forward, with ambitious plans to complete 30 homes by October of 1953, and the rest completed in just one year. The advertising blitz accompanying the heralded (and sometimes reviled) development was just as high-octane as the building plans. An ad for Highgate Springs appeared almost every Sunday in the *Courier-Journal's* Home, Business, Classified Section. One of the first three-quarter page ads featuring the development appeared right after the grand opening of Highgate Springs, and ran in the December 6, 1953 edition of the *Courier-Journal* (Figure 8.181).



Figure 8. 181 Large 1953 ad touting the opening of Highgate Springs.

Actual development of Highgate Springs, however, did not adhere to the developer's optimistic timeline, and grew very slowly. Despite this, this positive statement was issued by a Crawford executive in the fall of 1954:

We spent almost two years planning Highgate Springs before it was offered to the public. The experience of one of America's largest and oldest subdivision developers was behind it to bring to the prospective homeowners here the greatest possible permanent values in the properties they purchased. In addition, we decided to offer the ranch or contemporary style home because the popularity of this type of residence has grown far faster in the last few years than any other style offered in this country.⁷⁹⁰

Most of the lots in Highgate Springs ended up being sold to other developers; Crawford only ended up selling 170 homes in the subdivision. In January 1955, Crawford sold 85 acres to Breslin Construction Company for \$298,000. Breslin planned to develop 350 homes on the acreage. An additional 125 lots were sold to developer Irving Rose of Detroit in March 1955 for \$365,000.⁷⁹¹

Advertising for Highgate Springs reflected the anxiety at the Crawford Company prior to the 1955 sell-off. Whether it was over-saturation of the market, that Louisville was not (as company officials would later state) ready for a single development that size, or that the modern style of houses was an affront to the traditional sensibilities of homeowners in Jefferson County, the Crawford Company realized that its vaunted project was not performing as hoped. A 1954 ad (Figure 8.182 trumpets lower prices for GIs, all the while maintaining the "fun" of living in desirable Highgate Springs.

⁷⁹⁰ "Highgate Springs Developing Fast." *The Courier-Journal*. September 19, 1954.

⁷⁹¹ "Highgate Springs Lots are Sold for \$365,000." *The Courier-Journal*. March 19, 1955. Section 2, page 3.



Figure 8. 182 1954 ad in the Courier-Journal for Highgate Springs.

Even with the lots being sold off, the location of Highgate Springs was a draw. Developers of the sold lots continued to advertise heavily. Clifford Knopf, developer of Buechel Terrace, brought his prefabricated home selling savvy to Highgate Springs; in a full-page ad from the October 16, 1955 edition of the *Courier-Journal*, Knopf's Town and Country Homes used Santa Claus to lure prospective homeowners out to view US Steel Homes (Figure 8.183).



Figure 8. 183 1955 ad for a section within Highgate Springs, after Crawford sold most of the lots.

Three years later, in 1957, the fate of Crawford's Highgate Springs was a topic of discussion in the development community, especially at a time when residential homebuilding had slowed. The 1,200-home development, which caused such a stir in Louisville at the time, introduced houses "advanced in design, the most contemporary in style ever offered here in a large project."⁷⁹² But according to observers at the time, most of the large development ended up with very traditional style homes.

"He was years ahead of Louisville, but the times are about to catch up with his houses," said one real estate agent about Crawford in 1957. At that point, when the housing market was experiencing a cool-down from the building frenzy of 1955-1956, when recorded subdivision plats stood at 104 and 98 respectively, the Crawford homes in Highgate Springs were holding onto their value. Those homes were reselling at prices higher than in 1953.⁷⁹³



Figure 8. 184 Streetscape viw of Highgate Springs.

⁷⁹² National Homes Week Finds Buyer's Market in the Housing Field." *The Courier-Journal.*, September 22, 1957. Section 5, page 1. ⁷⁹³ Ibid.



Figure 8. 185 Frame ranch house in Highgate Springs.



Figure 8. 186 Brick-veneer ranch house in Highgate Springs.



Figure 8. 187 Front-gable facing ranch in Highgate Springs.



Figure 8. 188 A corner-lot ranch in Highgate Springs.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Highgate Springs is considered eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with the theme of post-war housing in eastern Louisville, and the role of the operative builder. Highgate Springs was the first-large scale subdivision in post-war Louisville to be developed by an out-of-town interest. Within this context, it is recommended that the potential boundaries of the district would encompass the original 170 parcels developed by Crawford.

Though decried in 1957 as being overly traditional, the homes in Highgate Springs, as seen through the lens of history, provide much more variety and style than many other large-scale 1950s developments. Further investigation and survey work may provide enough information to also nominate Highgate Springs under Criterion C.

Highgate Springs retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. The homes retain their original setbacks and generously-sized lots. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing those with contemporary ranch homes was beyond our scope of work for this project. However, the reconnaissance survey indicated a great variety of design within Highgate Springs. Integrity of **materials** is enhanced by the retention of almost all original exterior materials (either stone or brick veneer), but is compromised by replacement windows and modern front porch additions. Several attached garages have been converted for additional living space; in these cases, roll-up doors have been replaced by windows and surrounding space has sometimes been filled. Homes in Highgate Springs have a high level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain original facade openings and respective character-defining wide chimneys, front-facing gables, sprawling plans, decorative under-eave supports, or steeply pitched roofs.

Young Acres

Cornelius B. Young and Esther R. Young



Figure 8. 189 Map of Young Acres.

Young Acres is a small, owner-developed subdivision located off of the Bardstown Road Corridor, on the southeast side of Hikes Lane. It consists of one street, Youngwood Road; both the road and the subdivision take their names from the subdividing owners, Cornelius and Esther Young.

When platted in 1954, the subdivision contained only 21 platted lots; the 22nd lot contained an existing house and barn that presumably belonged to the Youngs. That lot has since been subdivided, and the subdivision contains 23 lots. The house and barn do not appear to be extant; a surface parking lot occupies the space today.

All of the lots, with the exception of the parent tract, were either 70 or 72 feet wide, and between 128 and 150 feet deep. The setback from the road was 40 feet. The subdivision has no sidewalks or curbs. The houses are a mixture of brick-veneered ranches and split-levels, constructed between 1955 and 1960.



Figure 8. 190 Aerial view of Young Acres.

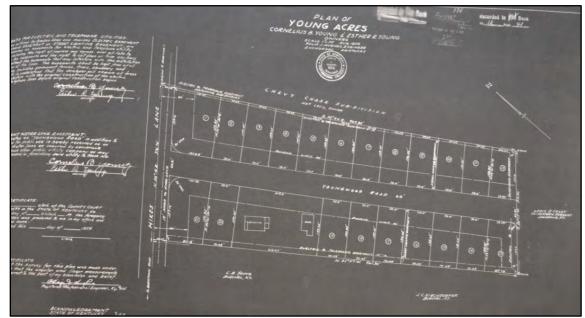


Figure 8. 191 Plat of Young Acres.



Figure 8. 192 Streetscape view of Young Acres.



Figure 8. 193 Ranch home in Young Acres.



Figure 8. 194 Split-level homes in Young Acres.

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Young Acres is not considered eligible for listing in the NRHP at this time.

Frederick Acres

Robert F. McMahan



Figure 8. 195 Map of Frederick Acres.

Frederick Acres, developed by Robert F. McMahan Sr. and Jr., is a small-scale Gunnison Home subdivision off of Bardstown Road in Buechel (Figure 8.195). Many of the homes in the development were constructed by Clifford Knopf, the builder of Buechel Terrace (see page 371 for more discussion of this development).

Platted in May 1954, the 38-parcel subdivision runs along Redding Road, on the west side of Breckenridge Lane. The subdivision is on the south side of Watterson Elementary, and bounded on the north by the larger Section Two of Frederick Acres, platted in June 1954 (Figure 8.198). It is useful to note that these two sections illustrate the two of the main trends of subdivision layout, that of the straight gridiron street pattern (Frederick Acres, Section 1) and then more of a curvilinear layout (Frederick Acres, Section 2).



Figure 8. 196 Aerial view of Frederick Acres.

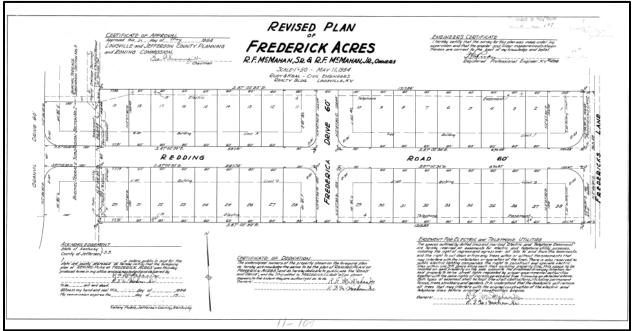


Figure 8. 197 Plat of Frederick Acres.

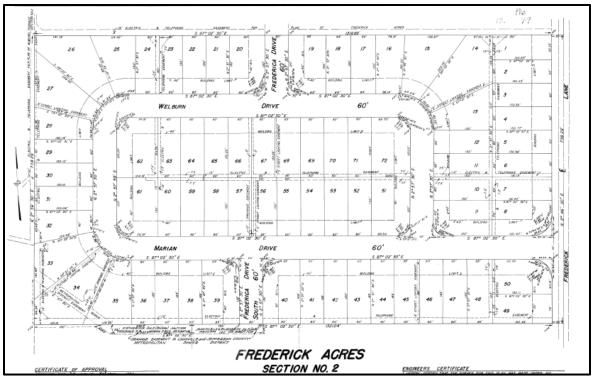


Figure 8. 198 Section 2 of Frederick Acres.



Figure 8. 199 A frame (vinyl –sided) Gunninson in Frederick Acres.



Figure 8. 200 A brick-veneered Gunnison in Frederick Acres.

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Frederick Acres is not considered eligible for listing in the NRHP at this time. Given its proximity to Buechel Terrace, and the many similarities of the two subdivisions, Buechel Terrace is considered a better example of the type.

Prototype Subdivisions in Other Parts of Jefferson County

Figure 8.201 provides an overview of the prototype subdivisions located along other major transportation corridors in Jefferson County. More detailed maps and aerial views are included in with the discussion of each subdivision.

Prototype Subdivision in St. Matthews:

• Eastmoor Acres (1950-1960)

Prototype Subdivision in the Taylorsville Road Corridor:

• Lincolnshire (1949-1960s)

Prototype Subdivision in the Preston Highway Corridor:

• Lynnview (1920; 1954-1960s)

Prototype Subdivision in the US 42 Highway Corridor:

• Woodhill Valley (1955-1970)



Figure 8. 1 Prototype Subdivisions in other parts of Jefferson County.

Eastmoor Acres

Robert W. and Maggie Marshall



Figure 8. 202 Map of Eastmoor Acres.

Eastmoor Acres, a post-war development in St. Matthews, is located on the north side of Shelbyville Road (US Highway 60), to the east of North Hubbards Lane and inside the Watterson Expressway. The subdivision is comprised of two sections; both sections are located on Marshall Drive, the main roadway of the development. The first section, which consists of 14.48 acres, was recorded in January 1950 in Plat and Subdivision Book 10, page 21. The owners were Robert W. and Maggie Marshall.

Section 1 extends north from Shelbyville Road, with 54 lots on either side of Marshall Drive, crosses Taggart Drive and ends at and five lots arranged at the north end of the section, through which Marshall Drive would eventually be extended. The streets in the development are 60 wide, and there are no sidewalks or curbs. The lots in section 1 all have a 40-foot setback, and range in size from 50 to 55 feet wide, and are 150 feet deep.



Figure 8. 203 Aerial view of Eastmoor Acres.

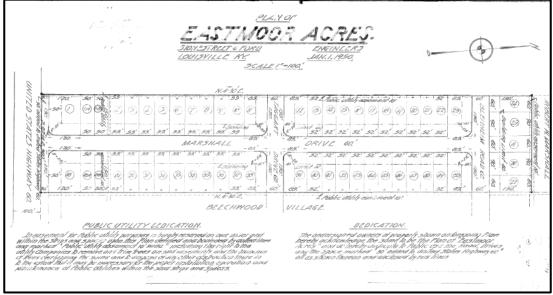


Figure 8. 204 Plat of section 1 of Eastmoor Acres.

Section 2, consisting of 4.39 acres, was platted and recorded in September 1954, consists of 17 lots on either side of Marshall Drive running from Blenheim Lane to a cul-de-sac. Although recorded as Eastmoor Acres Section 2 in Plat and Subdivision Book 12, page 40, this section is recorded on LOJIC a separate subdivision named Moorland.⁷⁹⁴ The lots in Section 2 have the same measurements as Section 1, with the exception of the five lots radiating out from the cul-de-sac.

The houses in Eastmoor Acres Section 1 and Section 2 are brick veneered, one-and-one-half story Minimal Traditional houses. Eastmoor Acres contains a multi-family housing component at the end of the subdivision (Section 1), at Shelbyville Road. Four brick-veneered apartment buildings are located on four slightly larger lots, 100-103 Marshall Drive.

⁷⁹⁴ Sample deeds examined for this development, however, do not show any mention of Mooreland, but instead reference Eastmoor Acres, Section 2.



Figure 8. 205 Streetscape view along Marshall Drive.



Figure 8. 206 Minimal traditional house on Marshall Drive.



Figure 8. 207 Another Minimal Traditional house on Marshall Drive.



Figure 8. 208 One of the apartment buildings in Eastmoor Acres.

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Eastmoor Acres is not considered individually eligible for listing in the NRHP, however, it would be eligible for listing as part of a larger post-war housing district in St. Matthews. This type of nomination would explore the development of St. Matthews, the effects of annexation, and categorize the types of post-war developments using the guidelines outlined in Chapter 6. Eastmoor Acres does convey many of the important characteristics of 1950s subdivisions in Louisville, and especially in the St. Matthews area, which catered to a certain level of homebuyer, as opposed to comparable subdivision in the Dixie Highway corridor or the Bardstown Road Corridor. Close to shopping, entertainment, schools, and churches, Eastmoor Acres incorporates multi-family apartment units on Shelbyville Road (US 60), which is an interesting element worthy of further research. Design-wise, the subdivision has a long single street, as well as a cul-de-sac, and mature trees in most of the front yards – trees likely planted at the time of platting. Its Colonial-themed brick-veneered dwellings speak to the preference of the middle-class homebuyer at the time.

Eastmoor Acres retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. These homes retain original setbacks, sidewalks, curbless streets, driveways, and detached garages. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Other common alterations include rear ell additions, and aluminum or vinyl siding in the gable ends. Homes in Eastmoor Acres have a medium level of integrity of **workmanship**. Many retain original front doors. Aluminum awnings and non-operable shutters are often added later, but these are not considered to affect integrity.

Lincolnshire

Roy F. McMahan Co.



Figure 8. 209 Map of Lincolnshire.

Lincolnshire, a curvilinear post-war subdivision located north of Taylorsville Road on Browns Lane, was platted and recorded on October 7, 1949. The developer was Roy F. McMahan, a professional developer very active in the Taylorsville Road area, and also the president of the Louisville Tool and Die Company. McMahan also developed Frederick Acres (see page 448), Yorkshire Subdivision, and Sunset Terrace, among other subdivisions. Lincolnshire is also a sixth-class city, having incorporated on September 28, 1953.

Lincolnshire is bounded by Browns Lane on the south, Edmonia Avenue on the west, Greathouse Shryrock Traditional Elementary School on the north, and Browns Lane again on the east. Canterbury Drive, which extends off of Browns Lane, curves through the development, ending at Pembroke Road, which runs between Edmonia Avenue and the northwest turn of Browns Lane.



Figure 8. 210 Aerial view of Lincolnshire.

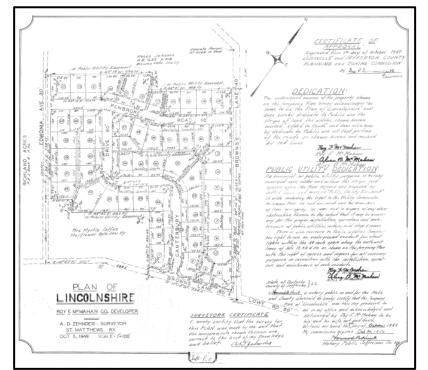


Figure 8. 211 Plat of Lincolnshire.

The subdivision, which covers 23.64 acres, consists of 56 irregularly shaped parcels. The setback is 40 feet, and the streets are 60 feet wide, with no curbs, though there are sidewalks. A 10-foot utility easement is located at the rear of the parcels that border the elementary school. Four lots face Edmonia Avenue, while the rest of the parcels face Canterbury, Browns Lane or Pembroke Road.

The houses are a mixture of ranches, Cape Cods and Minimal Traditionals, set back from the street on generously-sized lots, with ample landscaping.



Figure 8. 212 Looking south down Canterbury Drive.



Figure 8. 213 Two of the ranch houses in Lincolnshire.



Figure 8. 214 A Minimal Traditional house in Lincolnshire.



Figure 8. 215 A sprawling ranch house in Lincolnshire.

Based on the reconnaissance survey and overview of available archival materials, Lincolnshire is not considered eligible for listing in the NRHP at this time. However, additional research on Roy F. McMahan and the integrity level of his other developments may reveal enough information for the development of a Multiple Property Listing focusing on the suburban build-up of the Hike Lanes area, and the role of McMahan within that theme. In this case, Lincolnshire would be a contributing subdivision.

Lynnview

Gilmore Corporation, David H. Wilson (president)



Figure 8. 216 Map of Lynnview.

Lynnview, located at the corner of Preston Highway and Gilmore Lane, was originally platted in the 1920s (Figure 8.218), with "vast, irregularly shaped lots." Grady Clay commented in 1953 that the development would today be "considered a holy horror. FHA would turn up its nose and any landscape architect would go into a severe case of the shudders at it. Consequently, the whole tract has been re-platted, with 'curvilinear' streets and more shallow lots."⁷⁹⁵ The curvilinear nature is clearly expressed in the plat below of Section 1 (Figure 8.219), the revised plat of which was recorded in 1954, and the subsequent Sections 2 and 3 of the subdivision. Like Lincolnshire, Lynnview is both a subdivision and an incorporated city. Lynnview, now a fifth class city, incorporated on November 9, 1954.

⁷⁹⁵ Grady Clay. "Subdivisions Booms, Despite Wildcatting." *The Courier-Journal*. March 15, 1953, Section 6, page 17.



Figure 8. 217 Aerial view of Lynnview.

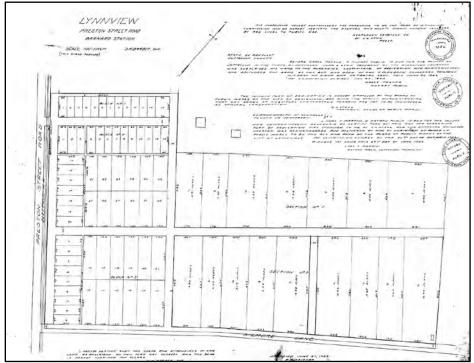


Figure 8. 218 The 1923 plat of Lynnview (Plat Book 4, page 65).

David H. Wilson, a Louisville builder, bought the 126-acre tract that would become Lynnview in the spring of 1950.⁷⁹⁶ The Evergreen Cemetery Company (the cemetery is located to the north of the subdivision) sold the tract for \$110,000. Wilson's development plans at the time included a five-acre shopping and parking center and a five-acre playground. The development, slated at the time to hold 575 single-family homes when built out, would be geared toward families making \$45 to \$50 weekly.⁷⁹⁷

Lynnview's path to approval was mired with pitfalls, most notably the lack of drainage. The developers appeared before the Planning and Zoning Commission more than four times between 1950 and 1952. In the spring of 1952, the proposed Lynnview subdivision was described as "one of the most controversial in the commission's 11-year history."⁷⁹⁸ The land, according the County Road Engineer J.B. McTamany, wasn't "suited for a subdivision on of this scale."⁷⁹⁹

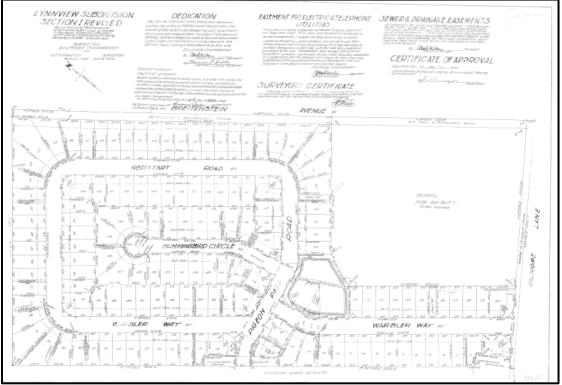


Figure 8. 219 Section 1 of Lynnview, 1954.

⁷⁹⁶ Trinity Corporation, one of Wilson's companies, was the developing interest in Lynnview.

⁷⁹⁷ "Builder Buys Preston Plat." *The Courier-Journal*. May 24, 1950.

 ⁷⁹⁸ "Subdivision Plans Again Rejected by Zoning Board." *The Courier-Journal*. March 21, 1952.
 ⁷⁹⁹ Ibid.



Figure 8. 220 Section 2 of Lynnview.

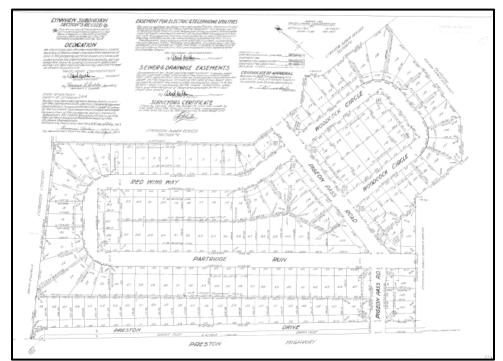


Figure 8. 221 Section 3 of Lynnview.

The magnitude of the problem was such that one of the proposed drainage lines in the subdivision would "have a fall of only eight inches in a distance of 1,350 feet."⁸⁰⁰ The subdivision was finally approved in June of 1952, though the developers continued to work on adequate drainage plans.

Grady Clay, Development Editor at the *Courier-Journal*, undertook a survey of new homeowners in the housing boom of the early 1950s.⁸⁰¹ His subdivision of focus was Lynnview. According to Clay's sample study, only 13 of the 103 families included in the survey had owned a home before their purchase in Lynnview. These families mainly hailed from the south, southwest, and south central parts of Louisville, where they had mostly been renters.

Trinity Corporation took pains to welcome these first-time homebuyers, producing a small booklet entitled "Your Key to Living in Lynnview" which was provided to each resident (Figure 8.222). The booklet, featuring drawings of hapless homeowners and their families dealing with all of the exciting aspects of owning a home, covers all of the elements of the newly constructed dwelling. The names and contact information for the plumber and electrician was even provided. The table of contents covers:

- Concrete
- Lumber and Millwork
- Doors and windows
- Condensation
- Plumbing Heating and Cooling
- Electrical Work
- Floors (hardwood and asphalt tile)
- Painting and Decorating
- Storage
- Roofing
- Grading, Grass, Planting
- Appliances
- Mortgage on Your home
- Home Tool Kit

⁸⁰⁰ Ibid.

⁸⁰¹ Grady Clay. "Subdivision Study Comes Up with 'Typical Home Buyer.'" *Courier-Journal*. November 22, 1953. Section 4, page 23.

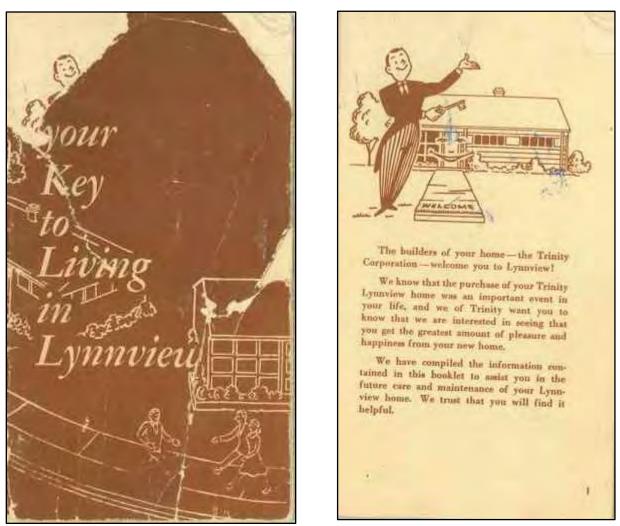


Figure 8. 222 The cover and front page of Lynnview's homeowner's manual.

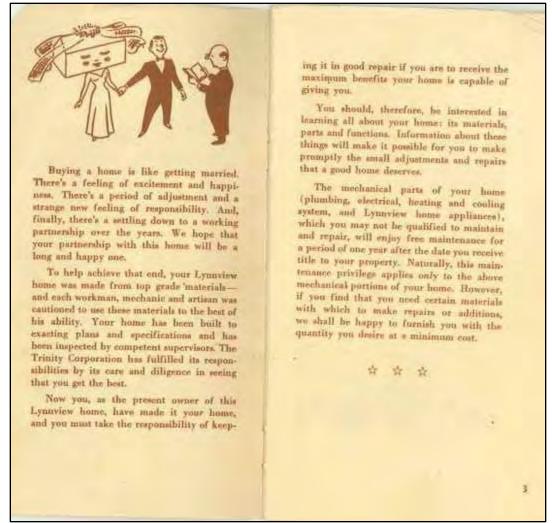


Figure 8. 223 Another set of pages from the homeowner's manual.

The median price of homes in Lynnview was \$10,300 and Clay's study showed that the typical buyer was married, with an annual salary of around \$4,200, with one child. Most of the homeowners worked in "industrial production and in distribution and sales" – so most were blue-collar, working class families. A very small percentage of his sample included residents working in the legal, ministry or medical fields. ⁸⁰²

Although these new homeowners perceived Lynnview as "moving out" from Louisville, and indeed, as part of the country – Clay shrewdly observed that any sense of rural life was bound to be fleeting. Lynnview, he noted, "is like many other new subdivisions around the outskirts of

⁸⁰² Ibid.

Louisville. Much if not all the open land immediately around it is either platted into subdivision lots, or is being held for development."⁸⁰³

Another interesting aspect to the development of Lynnview is the role of the professional architect in the design of the homes. At the same time that subdivisions like Buechel Terrace were being developed (and heavily promoted) with prefabricated homes, the advertising campaign for Lynnview stressed the individual nature of each home, and the fact that they were *not* prefabs. St. Matthews architect E. W. Augustus designed the homes in Lynnview; several models were offered; the two-bedroom and three-bedroom models were available in five different styles.



Figure 8. 224 Ad promoting the architect-designed homes of Lynnview.

⁸⁰³ Ibid.



Figure 8. 225 Streetscape view in Lynnview, showing curvilinear street pattern.



Figure 8. 226 Shingled ranch house in Lynnview.



Figure 8. 227 View of the two most common types in Lynnview– the side-gable ranch and the Minimal Traditional.



Figure 8. 228 Streetscape view in Lynnview.

Lynnview is considered eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion A under the theme of "Post-War Housing in Louisville, Kentucky and the Community Builder." Lynnview is a very interesting development that highlights the lengths that the community builder (David Wilson's Trinity Corporation) would go to in marketing, selling and then welcoming new homebuilders to its development. Additional research might provide enough information to also nominate Lynnview under Criterion B for its association with David Wilson, or it could be part of a Multiple Property nomination examining Wilson's post-war subdivisions in Louisville, which would also include Raleigh Acres. Another avenue of study would be the role of design and that of the architect E. W. Augustus in the development of Lynnview.

Lynnview retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. The homes retain their original setbacks and generously-sized lots. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing those with contemporary ranch homes was beyond our scope of work for this project. However, the reconnaissance survey indicated a great variety of design within Lynnview. Integrity of **materials** is enhanced by the retention of almost all original exterior materials but is compromised by replacement windows and modern front porch additions. Several attached garages have been converted for additional living space; in these cases, roll-up doors have been replaced by windows and surrounding space has sometimes been filled. Homes in Lynnview have a high level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain original facade openings and respective character-defining wide chimneys, front-facing gables, sprawling plans, decorative under-eave supports, or steeply pitched roofs.

Woodhill Valley Subdivision, US Highway 42

Beginning in 1955, the Woodhill Valley Road Subdivision was developed, though US 42 was still just a two-lane road. Edwin Sproul, a real estate agent in Louisville, purchased the land in 1953 and the first houses were built in 1955. Woodhill Valley was not an approved subdivision plat; all of the deeds call out the property boundaries in metes and bounds.

Most of the lots are at least one and one-half acres, and the properties on the west side of Woodhill Valley Road back up to a 10-acre park, owned and maintained by the neighborhood. The houses are a mixture of ranches, split levels and Mid-century moderns – including a 1959 Norman Sweet house. The layout of the subdivision centers on the curvilinear Woodhill Valley Road. Most of the dwellings maintain a similar setback from the road, typically in the middle of the lot. Each parcel features extensive landscaping.

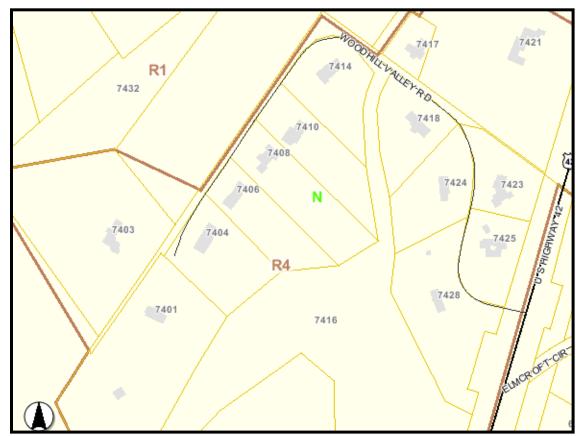


Figure 8. 229 LOJIC map showing Woodhill Valley.



Figure 8. 230 1954 ad for Woodhill Valley in the Courier-Journal.



Figure 8. 231 7414 Woodhill Valley Road (JF-2061).



Figure 8. 232 *Circa 1959 Norman Sweet-designed house at 7425 Woodhill Valley Road (JF-1004).*

Although Woodhill Valley fits into the time period of the study, and was developed after World War II, it is entirely different from the subdivisions examined in the study corridors. Just as the ad in Figure 8.225 proclaims, the entire character of Woodhill Valley is "different" and "incomparable" within the context of post-war housing as presented in this report. Stylistically and economically, Woodhill Valley falls into its own category. Many of the houses were designed by well-known Louisville architects, and sites on large, secluded lots. The proximity to nature and the removal from town appealed to a, if not wealthy, at least upper middle-class homeowner.

Woodhill Valley is considered eligible for listing in the NRHP under Criterion C for its selection of domestic architecture reflecting the strong, mid-century modern bent of the designers. When this development was first evaluated for the Section 106 work of the LSIORB project, most of the dwellings had not yet reached 50 years of age. In the time since the completion of that work, the houses have almost all reached that mark. The collection of mid-century styles within a natural setting is an interesting development choice, one that could potentially be explored under a Criterion A nomination.

Woodhill Valley retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. The homes retain their original setbacks and generously-sized lots. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing those with contemporary ranch homes was beyond our scope of work for this project. Integrity of **materials** is enhanced by the retention of almost all original exterior materials but is compromised by replacement windows and modern front porch additions. Homes in Woodhill Valley have a high level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain original facade openings and respective character-defining wide chimneys, front-facing gables, sprawling plans, decorative under-eave supports, or steeply pitched roofs.

Chapter 9. Archaeological Potential

Metro Louisville contains rich archaeological resources, representing a wide variety of time periods and cultures. They occur in many settings and have been documented in every part of the Metro. However, because of the intense development that has and continues to take place in the metro area, many archaeological sites and resources have been destroyed or are threatened. These resources should be considered during any preservation planning effort. Although nearly 1,000 archaeological sites have been documented, they represent only a fraction of the resources that may be present in Metro Louisville. So, while an emphasis should be put on protecting known sites, equally important is consideration of unknown resources yet to be discovered. This section will provide an overview of some of the important archaeological sites that have been documented and delineate property types and settings that have the potential to contain archaeological resources. This information will help in the evaluation of properties for their archaeological potential.

Overview of Archaeological Research in Metro Louisville

Prehistoric Archaeology

Human activity has taken place in the area known as Metro Louisville for nearly 10,000 years, the remains of which have been documented archaeologically throughout thearea. The period of human occupation from first Native American occupation up to the initial settlement of Kentucky by Euro-Americans in 1750 is considered to be the prehistoric time period. This section provides an overview of some of the more significant prehistoric archaeological sites investigated in the area.

Many significant prehistoric archaeological remains have been documented along the Ohio River floodplain and terraces from northeastern to southwestern Jefferson County, including the intensely developed urban area. Although Louisville's urban core have been intensely developed over the last 200 years, research has documented that downtown was extensively occupied in prehistoric times and included large mounds (Bader 2003b). Furthermore, significant archaeological sites have been investigated in the area. Archaeological deposits, including intact pits, house remains, and burials from the Archaic, Woodland, and Late Prehistoric periods have been documented on Shippingport Island (15Jf702) (Bader and French 2004). Excavations at the Point Neighborhood (15Jf592-15Jf599) included burials and middens, dated primarily to the Archaic and Woodland periods (McKelway 1995). In the same area, a significant Mississippian period site was documented at Eva Bandman Park (15Jf668) and included pits, burials, and midden (Pollack 2009).

Other important archaeological sites investigated along the Ohio River demonstrate the extensive prehistoric occupation of the Ohio River lowland. The Habich site (15Jf550) in Northeastern Jefferson County at the confluence of Harrods Creek and the Ohio River contained an intensive Archaic period occupation. Numerous features were identified including burials, hearths, and storage pits (Granger et al. 1992).

Four major sites were identified in southwestern Jefferson County along the Ohio River as part of a Corps of Engineer's floodwall project (Collins 1979). The Longworth-Gick site (15Jf243), Rosenberger site (15Jf18), Villiers site (15Jf110), and Spadie site (15Jf14) produced significant archaeological remains from the Archaic and Woodland periods (Figure 9.1). Stratified occupation layers, middens, hearths, pits, and burials were documented. An Archaic period shell mound was investigated at the Hornung Shell Mound site (15Jf60) at the confluence of Pond Creek and the Salt River near the Ohio River (Janzen 1971).



Figure 9.1 *A View of the Rosenberger Site (15Jf18) along the Ohio River in Southwestern Jefferson County.*

The Arrowhead Farm site (15Jf237) is a multicomponent Woodland/Archaic site located on an Ohio River terrace just south of Louisville's urban area, which included intact pit features (Mocas 1976). The Zorn Avenue Village site (15Jf250) located on a high bluff overlooking the Ohio River just northeast of downtown Louisville contained intact features associated with an extensive Woodland period occupation (Matthews 1958; Mocas 1988). Similar deposits

associated with a Woodland occupation also were documented at the Hunting Creek site (15Jf268) located on an Ohio River bluff in northeastern Jefferson County (Mocas 1992).

Several significant Archaic occupations were investigated in central Jefferson County at or near the airport formally a large swamp known as big pond. The KYANG site (15Jf267) located along a spring at the airport contained intact features, including pits and burials (Bader and Granger 1989). The Lone Hill (15Jf10) and Minor's Lane site (15Jf36) were located at the southern edge of the airport on knolls (now destroyed) and contained intact burials and pit features (Burnett 1963; Granger 1988). Similar archaeological deposits were excavated at the Outer Loop site (15Jf674) located just southeast of the airport (Kreinbrink 2008).

Two important sites were investigated in caves/rockshelters located in a hilly karst area of southeastern Jefferson County along Pennsylvania Run Creek. The McNeely Lake site (15Jf200) contained intact stratigraphy representing Archaic, Woodland, and Ft. Ancient components (Granger 1988; Soule et al. 1970). Intact strata and features associated with the Archaic period were investigated at the Durrett site (15Jf201) (Granger 1988).

Important prehistoric sites have also been investigated along Jefferson County's major upland waterways that drain the central and eastern portions of the county, such as Beargrass Creek and Floyd's Fork. Hundreds of small sites have been documented on the ridgetops and knolls and floodplains along these streams and the springs and tributaries that flow into them. These sites represent small campsites associated mainly with the Archaic and Woodland periods and have been important to the study of prehistoric settlement patterns (Granger 1988). Examples of these include 36 sites documented along the Middle Fork of Beargrass Creek at Oxmoor (Granger 1976; 1988; Stottman and Stahlgren 2012) and 166 sites identified along Floyd's Fork (Stevens 2009).

Historical Archaeology

Historical archaeology in Jefferson County has largely focused on farmsteads, plantations, and urban neighborhoods. Several important historic period farmstead and plantation sites have been investigated archaeologically in Jefferson County. Extensive excavations have been conducted at Locust Grove (15Jf541), Farmington (15Jf574), Riverside, the Farnsley-Moremen Landing (15Jf531), and Johnson-Bates (15Jf538). Most of these projects have focused on locating and interpreting outbuildings. At Locust Grove, the springhouse (Granger and Mocas 1972), three slave cabins (Young 1995), a barn, and an agricultural building (DiBlasi 1997) were excavated. A kitchen (McBride and Bellhorn 1992) and a slave cabin (Slider 1998) were excavated at Farmington. A detached kitchen, wash house, barn, and slave houses were excavated at Riverside, the Farnsley-Moremen Landing (Figure 2) (Stottman and Watts-Roy 2000; Stottman and Prybylski 2005). At the Johnson-Bates farmstead an extensive investigation of several outbuildings was conducted (O'Malley 1987). Extensive excavations were conducted at the Yager-Ward Farmstead (15Jf781 along the Gene Snyder Freeway in the Eastern part of the Metro, including research of slave houses (Wetzel et al. 2012). Limited excavations have taken

place at several other historic sites in the county including Blackacre (15Jf681) (Stottman 2000a), Oxmoor (15Jf647) (Young 1997), Stonybrook (15Jf676) (Stallings and Ross-Stallings 1999), the Conrad/Dravo farmstead (15Jf638) (Bader 1997), the Vulcan Rudy slave house (15Jf685) (Stottman 2001), and the Hall-Standiford tenant house (15Jf571) (Stottman et al. 1992).

Urban archaeology projects conducted in Louisville have encompassed a variety of sites and features. Neighborhoods were the focus of extensive projects conducted in Highland Park (15Jf607-15Jf623) (Stottman and Granger 1993) and in the Russell Neighborhood (15Jf600-15Jf606 and 15Jf624-15Jf626) (Stottman and Watts-Roy 1995). A sample of house lots was investigated during each of those projects. These studies documented a variety of features including privies and cisterns.



Figure 9. 2 Archaeologists Excavate the Remains of a Nineteenth Century Building at Riverside, the Farnsley-Moremen Landing.

Investigations at the Point Neighborhood along the Ohio River in eastern Louisville revealed intact nineteenth century urban deposits (Esarey 1992; McKelway 1995). Eight city blocks (15Jf592-15Jf599) were examined in the Point Neighborhood, which was occupied from the late 1700s to late 1800s. Features identified included privies, wells, cisterns, foundations, walkways, fence posts, trash pits and the remains of a pottery.

Excavations in Portland Wharf Park uncovered remains of the original town of Portland northwest of Louisville's central business district, including building foundations, privies, cisterns, sidewalks, street paving, and intact strata from the nineteenth century (Stottman and Prybylski 2004). Across the canal from Portland, extensive historic period deposits associated with the town of Shippingport have been identified. They consisted of early to mid-nineteenth century building foundations and privies (Bader and French 2004). Smaller urban project included the excavation a privy in Louisville's Parkland neighborhood (Stottman et al. 1991).

Several attempts in the 1980s to locate intact archaeological deposits in Louisville's central commercial district met with little success (Granger 1983 and 1986; Otto and Granger 1982). At that time, it was thought that most evidence of Louisville's earliest settlement and waterfront/commercial district have been destroyed by years of development. However, archaeological investigations at the Convention Center site (15Jf646) identified intact features such as privies and a cesspool (Stottman 1995; 2000b). Also work at the Muhammad Ali Center site on Louisville's riverfront identified several early wood-lined privies and a privy associated with a mid to late nineteenth century pharmacy (Bader 2003a). Analysis of materials recovered from these sites generated new insights into Louisville's earliest residential and commercial expansion from the mid to late 1800s. These projects demonstrate that complex nature of urban sites and the varying degree to which archaeological resources can be preserved in these contexts.

Industrial and religious sites also have been investigated. Excavations at the Thomas Pottery (15Jf599) (Esarey 1992; McKelway 1995) and the Lewis Pottery (15Jf658) (Stradling and Stradling 2001) have provided a glimpse of the nineteenth century pottery industry. On the outskirts of Louisville, the investigation of Ward's Mill located in Cherokee Park generated more insights into core/periphery economic relationships in the Louisville area (Granger 1984). Extensive excavations conducted underneath the Cathedral of the Assumption in central Louisville produced important information about life at the church in the mid-1800s (Mansberger 1990; 1995).

Archaeological Property Types and Research Topics

Based on the archaeological excavations conducted in Metro Louisville over the last thirty years, property types were developed to frame the archaeological research potential of the county with an emphasis on the particular study areas. A wide variety of archaeological property types do and/or could exist within Metro Louisville. In this section the archaeological property types developed are defined and potential research topics are discussed. The types that are or could be present within Metro Louisville include:

Residential

Agricultural

Industrial Commercial Institutional Military Transportation Cemeteries

Residential

Residential properties primarily function as places where people lived. They are characterized by the presence of dwellings and associated domestic activities. Prehistoric period residential sites include open habitation sites and caves and rockshelters, which include the remains of dwellings, food processing and preparation, and craft production. They are usually located on high ground, such as ridges or terraces near water sources (Figure 3). Historic residential sites are characterized by a main dwelling and associated domestic support buildings, such as small sheds, carriage houses, stables, kitchen, and slave/servant quarters. They are typically associated with urban lots found within existing urban neighborhoods and areas that were once part of an urban neighborhood or on lots in rural areas that serve strictly a residential purpose.

Residential properties tend to produce a large amount of artifacts and features. Prehistoric residential sites can contain the remains of dwelling structures, particularly in open habitations, such as post holes, wall trenches, floors, hearths, storage pits, and wall daub. These sites as well as caves and rockshelters are associated with domestic activities evidenced by presence of trash middens, hearths, storage pits, and debris from craft and tool production.



Figure 9. 3*A Prehistoric House Basin at the Spadie III Site (15Jf54)* Located off of the Greenbelt Highway.

Artifact assemblages recovered from historic house lots contain a large amount of domestic artifacts similar to those found at agricultural complexes. Features associated with house lots, include building foundations, cellars, postholes, trash pits/dumps, privies, wells, and cisterns. These data can contribute to research themes developed in this survey related to architecture, community planning and development, and ethnic heritage and social history in general. Archaeological data can be examined to better understand the development of and changes to residential architecture and lot organization over time, as well as changes to neighborhoods and communities in general (McBride and McBride 2009:1033). Many of these communities and neighborhoods have distinct ethnic characteristics and populations, which also can be examined archaeologically.

These themes can relate to research topics and questions that are of interest to archaeologists (McBride and McBride 2009). Residential sites provide substantial data for examining consumerism and exchange with regards to socio-economic status, class, ethnicity, race, gender, transportation networks, as archaeological data can provide insight into individual household's participation in consumerism (McBride and McBride 2009:1030-1032). Faunal and floral remains recovered from archaeological deposits can provide information about foodways of these residents (p. 1036).

Agricultural

Agricultural properties primarily function as farms, where the production of agricultural goods, such as crops and livestock are the main focus. These properties often do have residential

components (See Residential archaeological property type), which are only a portion of their function. Agricultural properties consist mainly of historic farmsteads and plantations and their associated lands and structures. The focal point of these sites is usually the main residential house, which is often accompanied by various outbuildings including kitchens, smokehouses, slave quarters, icehouses, and other work buildings that form the domestic complex. Agricultural outbuildings such as, barns, sheds, corn cribs, and granaries were located much further from the house.

In general, artifact assemblages recovered from these types of sites contain large quantities of domestic artifacts, including items related to food preparation, storage, and service. Faunal remains, ceramic tablewares, teawares and storage containers, and glass cups, stemware and bottles are examples of domestic artifacts recovered from agricultural complexes. Other artifacts present at these types of sites include personal possessions, personal care and hygiene, clothing, sewing, and entertainment related items. Examples of these types of items, include smoking pipes, coins, combs, toothbrushes, buttons, pins, game pieces, marbles, and doll parts. Domestic artifacts are usually concentrated around the primary residence, nearby support buildings, and associated residences.

Within an agricultural complex, artifact assemblages associated with other types of buildings and artifact areas, such as barns, sheds, work/storage buildings, and storehouses exhibit a more restricted range of artifact types. For example, one would expect to find high concentrations of agricultural equipment, tools, and machinery at agricultural buildings, such as barns, sheds and work buildings, and large amounts of storage containers, such as crocks and jars, at springhouses, dairies, and icehouses. Large quantities of faunal remains would be expected to be found at buildings and spaces used for meat processing, such as meat houses or kitchen yards. Features associated with agricultural complexes include building foundations, cellars, postholes, trash pits/dumps, privies, wells, and cisterns.

Agricultural properties tie into the architectural themes developed and a variety of archaeological research topics and questions (McBride and McBride 2009:1040). Archaeological data recovered from agricultural sites can contribute to a better understanding of farm architecture and layout and the location of farms with regards to transportation. Archaeological data can be used to examine the structure of agriculture economies and the distribution of wealth on the rural landscape. It also can be used to examine differences between urban and rural contexts with regards to ethnicity, race, class, and refuse deposition patterns (McBride and McBride 2009:1040-1042).

Industrial

Industrial property types are associated with the extraction, production, and distribution of commodities during the historic period. The remains of historic industrial sites can be found

throughout Metro Louisville, including in and near the sample study areas. Industry was an important part of the development of Louisville's economy during the nineteenth century. Louisville was the site of many industries since the early nineteenth century, such as potteries, distilleries, glassworks, meat packing, lumber yards, milling, brick making, warehousing, shipyards, and a variety of manufacturing industries many of which were located within the study area. Industries associated with agricultural operations were particularly common in the study area during the nineteenth century. Mills were the most predominant type of these industries in rural areas. However, brick clamps, kilns, and other brick-manufacturing site, also were associated with farms and plantations (Figure 9.4).



Figure 9. 4 A kiln from the Lewis Pottery (15Jf658) uncovered beneath a downtown parking lot.

Artifact assemblages from these properties are dominated by architecture artifacts associated with industry buildings and industrial-related artifact types, such as millstones, tools, equipment, and machine parts as well as fuel (coal, coke, and charcoal) and raw materials (ore) used for production and the by-products (slag) of the manufacturing process. Also, artifacts associated with products can be found, such as wasters from potteries or glassworks. Features associated with industrial sites, include millraces, reservoirs, large cisterns, building foundations, and footers for machinery or equipment.

Research themes and topics that can be addressed using the archaeological data include changes to industrial architecture, layout, variations in the types of industry, and their relationship to transportation networks over time (McBride and McBride 2009:1034). Also, how industries relate to and are integrated into residential areas and their roles in urban neighborhoods as related to class and ethnicity of workers can be examined.

Commercial

Commercial properties function as places where a variety of historic period economic activities took place associated with the sale of goods and services. They are most often associated with sites or buildings, such as general stores, grocery stores, hardware stores, drug stores, taverns, hotels, restaurants/cafés, banks, doctor's offices, law offices, and stores that sold a variety of specialty products. Some commercial sites, such as a general store with an attached living quarter, hotels, and taverns, have residential components (See Residential archaeological property type). Commercial sites are similar to house lots, but usually have fewer associated outbuildings.

Although commercial properties may often contain artifacts similar to residential properties, artifact assemblages associated with the former property type, contain fewer domestic artifacts. But some types of domestic artifacts occur with greater frequency at these types of sites then at residential sites. For instance, one would expect to recover more service related artifacts like platters or soup tureens and institutional service wares from a hotel, and larger amounts of mugs, tankards, and smoking pipes from a tavern than from a house lot. Other commercial properties are characterized by a more restricted range of artifacts. For example, the remains of a drugstore would produce higher concentrations of pharmaceutical bottles relative to residential sites. Features associated with commercial sites, include building foundations, cellars, privies, and trash pits/dumps.

Archaeological data can contribute to a better understanding of the architecture and lot structure of commercial sites and how these sites are associated with and relate to residential sites within neighborhoods. Artifacts recovered from these sites can also provide information about changes in commercial activities over time, such as the separation of home and work and the migration of such activities away from neighborhood contexts as transportation technology changes (McBride and McBride 2009: 1044)

Institutional

Institutional properties have an educational, government, religious, or service function, such as historic schools, courthouses, firehouses, churches, and hospitals. Schools, colleges, and libraries are good examples of education related institutional sites. Schools vary in size and function. In rural contexts most schools and libraries tend to be of the one-room variety. Some schools, such as high schools can be multi-room or multi-building education facilities. Though most schools represent primary and secondary public educational facilities, others include military, religious, and boarding schools.

Government related institutional sites may be buildings or public spaces that have a function in or are related to the government. Good examples of government buildings are courthouses, post offices, jails, firehouses, and public works. Government spaces consist of town or public squares and include public recreational spaces, such as parks. Religious institutional sites represent buildings or properties associated with organized religion. Good examples of religious buildings are churches used for worship; offices used for business and administration; and living quarters, such as rectories, parsonages, convents, and orphanages. Other institutional properties could include buildings or properties associated with hospitals, orphanages, asylums, retirement homes, and prehistoric mound sites.

Prehistoric mounds have been interpreted to have institutional functions related to religion, power, and status as collective works of architecture. Prehistoric Native American mounds once existed throughout Metro Louisville, even in downtown (Figure 9.5). The mounds were most likely constructed from 1,000 B.C. to 1600 A.D. and used primarily for ceremonial purposes, but also as a burial ground. Most of these were destroyed during the nineteenth century to fill in ponds and swamps that once dominated the Louisville landscape. Mounds often represent some of the only prehistoric architectural remains still visible on the landscape. Archaeological examination of these structures can contribute to a better understanding of ceremonial, political, and religious structure, as well as community organization (Pollack 2009). Mounds could be considered institutional properties and they primarily consist of the earthen structure, sometimes architectural remains, such as post holes, and perhaps some stone tools or ritualistic objects.

Artifact assemblages recovered from institutional sites generally would have greater quantities of specialty artifacts related to the type of institution or a higher frequency of particular artifacts more likely to be associated with a particular type of institution in addition to artifacts that would commonly be found at residential sites. Education properties would contain greater quantities of writing utensils, inkbottles, and slate boards as well as children's toys, such as marbles, doll parts, and jacks than residence/house lot sites.

Since government related institutions are often frequented by large numbers of people, one would expect to find larger amounts of personal items, such as smoking pipes, coins, badges, combs, and pocketknives than at other types of sites, such as residence/house lots. Clothing and furnishing artifacts, such as buttons, cuff links, lamp parts and spittoons also are frequently

found at government sites. Other artifacts commonly found at government properties, include inkbottles, pens, and pencils.



Figure 9.5 A Prehistoric mound preserved on a suburban lot in the Southerland Subdivision off of Brownsboro Road.

Religious institutions contain artifacts that are representative of a specific religion or were used in religious activities. Good examples of these types of artifacts are rosaries, crucifixes, pendants, stained glass pieces, glass votive candle holders, and other types of artifacts with iconic symbols. Other institutions may also have specific artifact assemblages, such as hospitals, which are more likely to contain artifacts including medical equipment, medicine containers, syringes, bedpans, etc.

Features associated with institutional sites, include building foundations, cellars, postholes, privies, wells, cisterns, trash pits, and landfills or dumps.

This data can be used to examine a variety of research themes and topics, particularly the historical architectural composition and layout of institutions and their relationship to surrounding neighborhoods or other site types, as they change over time. What affect do services and transportation networks have on their location and development (McBride and McBride 2009: 1032-1033, 1044)? Archaeological data can be examined to understand ethnic, class, gender, and religious differences amongst institutions over time.

Military

These property types are associated with the training, housing and equipping of soldiers, defense, and battles. They usually consist of facilities and spaces. Military facilities, include forts, stations, encampments, and depots, and often contain a variety of buildings, such as armories, hospitals, living quarters, mess halls, latrines, offices, storage facilities, and work buildings. They also may consist of earthworks, trenches, revetment lines, and other types of fortifications. Military spaces consist of battlefields, training areas, parade grounds, and maneuver fields.

The Metro Louisville area has been the site of military related activities during its history. Early frontier forts and stations are the military sites most likely to be present in the area. Forts and stations were constructed in Metro Louisville as settlements became more established at the founding of Louisville, such as Fort Nelson downtown along the Ohio River and a variety of stations along Beargrass Creek. During the Civil War, a series of fortifications, forts, and batteries were established around Louisville to defend the city in case of attack. Remnants of these defenses could be present in areas between downtown and the Watterson Expressway.

The remnants of Camp Zachary Taylor a World War I era training camp once occupied a large amount of land along the Watterson Expressway and Poplar Level Road. Remnants of camp buildings are still standing, trash dumps have been uncovered in suburban neighborhoods, and archaeological resources are located in local parks (Figure 9.6).



Figure 9.6 The Former Camp Taylor Motor Transport Building located in Joe Creason Park.

In general, these property types contain large amounts of military-related items, such as buttons, buckles, bullets, and gun parts. Artifact assemblages from military residences or encampments often contain large amounts of domestic and architectural-related materials. Features associated with military sites, include building foundations, cellars, privies, wells, trash pits or dumps, earthworks, and trenches.

The archaeological data from military type properties can provide information about the construction of fortifications that are known to have existed in Metro Louisville, but little is known about their architecture and layout. Archaeology also can provide information about encampments and a variety of associated topics such as, health, sanitation, ethnicity, race, and foodways; as such sites from at least three periods of military history are known to have existed in Louisville (McBride and McBride 2009:1047, 1049; Yater 1989).

Transportation

Transportation was important to the founding of Louisville, as the city owes much of its past to shipping on the Ohio River, railroads, and a good road network. Transportation sites are localities associated with the movement of people and/or goods. Transportation sites can be associated with roads, turnpikes, boat landings, wharves, bridges, railway lines, train stations, interurban lines and facilities, toll houses, and airports.

Transportation properties usually contain small quantities of artifacts. Objects recovered from these types of sites, include railroad spikes and rails, railroad equipment (tools, locomotive parts, and switching/signal parts), horseshoes, wagon/buggy parts, and nautical equipment (mooring rings, chains, and capstans). Features associated with transportation sites, include pavement, road cuts/beds, fence lines, building foundations, bridge abutments, docks, and wharves. Roads and streetscape elements can also be archaeological features. Historic street surfaces and stone curbing are still found throughout the Metro Louisville area. However, some of Louisville's historic streets have been buried or covered over, particularly alleys. Other streetscape features such as stairs, walls, and sidewalks could also be found.

As transportation networks and technology play important roles in the research themes and topics related to other site types, the archaeological remains of these sites can provide information about the history and development of transportation modes and how they have changed over time.

Cemeteries

Cemeteries are places for the burial of the dead. They range from small family burial plots to large community burial grounds. There are cemeteries located in all parts of the Metro Louisville. Many are well known and easily identified as a cemetery. However, there are a large number of cemeteries that for one reason or another have been lost or are not easily identifiable. Prehistoric cemeteries are perhaps the most difficult to identify. They can date back 10,000 years and were often not marked in any way, although they are occasionally associated with mounds. Most historic cemeteries were well marked with gravestones, walls, and fences, but over time they too can disappear from the landscape. Unknown cemeteries can be found in any part of Metro Louisville area. Cemeteries are characterized archaeologically by headstones, footstones, monuments, crypts, mausoleums, fences, walls, graves, coffins, caskets, grave goods, and human remains (Figure 9.7).

Archaeological data from cemeteries can provide a substantial amount of information regarding demographics, health, status, religion, families, and communities. These topics can be examined through the layout and organization of graves and associated markers, DNA studies, grave goods, and human remains can be examined.



Figure 9.7 *Headstone and grave shafts identified at The William Pope Jr. Family Cemetery (15Jf811) in the Lauderdale Subdivision off of Bardstown Road.*

Evaluation of Archaeological Potential

In this section a general assessment of Metro Louisville's archaeological potential will be presented. The potential of a property to preserve or contain archaeological resources is largely dependent on its setting, use, and developmental history. In order to assess the archaeological potential of Metro Louisville, setting/use types were developed. These types are defined below. The archaeological context presented in a previous section for Metro Louisville and specific recorded sites archaeological sites were used to illustrate the archaeological potential of a particular setting/use type. Based on this archaeological context, the archaeological potential of the sample study areas discussed in the architecture section and/or similar areas was assessed, using examples of properties within or near the study areas by setting/use type to illustrate potential.

Setting/Use Types

A review of archaeological sites in the study areas and Metro Louisville as a whole demonstrates that a variety of prehistoric and historic archaeological deposits is present within a variety of settings and land use types. Based on the settings in which sites have been documented, it is possible to define setting and land use types in which intact archaeological deposits are and can be preserved. In order to assess the archaeological potential of the study areas, an examination of the setting/use types within Metro Louisville will be necessary. The setting/use types are defined and discussed below.

The most ubiquitous setting/land use in which archaeological sites have been documented is a cultivated field or pasture. It is not unexpected that archaeological deposits are often well preserved in the fields and pastures of undeveloped land in Metro Louisville. In settings and land uses where limited development has taken place or that protect land from extensive development, the preservation of archaeological deposits is likely. In addition to farm fields and pastures, parks, large residential yards, and undeveloped woodlands have high potential for preserving archaeological deposits.

Although settings or land uses where development is limited or non-existent is optimal for preserving archaeological deposits, settings and land uses where development, sometimes extensive development, has taken place can also preserve some archaeological deposits, as well as create them. Thus, archaeological sites have been documented in some unlikely settings, such as parking lots, urban and suburban residential yards, former industrial or commercial sites, and associated with roads and streets.

The setting/land use types used to assess the potential of archaeological resources in or near the sample study areas are defined below.

Farm Fields/Historic Farms

Farm fields/historic farms include a variety of undeveloped land associated with farming, such as cultivated fields, pastures, large yard spaces, gardens, etc. Most of the archaeological sites recorded in Metro Louisville were recorded in farm fields, although many of the sites have since been developed. Farms historically tend to have experienced little to no development, thus protecting archaeological deposits. However, the farms themselves are also archaeological sites. Because of intense development in Metro Louisville over the last thirty years, large farms are becoming rare.

Large parcels of undeveloped land are certainly the best setting for preserving archaeological deposits, particularly those from the prehistoric period. Prehistoric sites such as lithic scatters, camps and villages, burial grounds, and mounds are often preserved in farm settings (Collins 1979; Granger et al. 1992; Mocas 1988). Historic period plantations and farmsteads often contained historic homes and outbuildings that are associated with rich deposits from the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Figure 8) (O'Malley 1987; Stottman and Watt-Roy 2000; Stottman and Prybylski 2005; Young 1997). In particular, historic farm sites can included artifact middens, privies, cisterns, wells, and the remains of former outbuildings, such as kitchens, spring houses, ice houses, smoke houses, slave houses, tenant houses, etc.



Figure 9.8 Archaeologists uncover part of a building foundation at the Christian Log House Site (15Jf776) located at Oxmoor Farm.

Since the focus of the sample study areas is on resources at or beyond the Watterson Expressway, these areas are likely to be located near farm fields or historic farm remnants. The further from the urban core of Metro Louisville, the more likely this setting type is to be present. Although large farms more than 200 acres are fairly rare in Metro Louisville, many smaller farms are present along outer reaches of the main roads associated with the study areas, including Bardstown Road (31E), Shelbyville Road (U.S. 60), and Dixie Highway (31W). Several operating farms and historic farm remnants can still be seen along these roads, as well as others such as Brownsboro Road (U.S. 42) and Taylorsville Road (State Road 155). While fairly rare some operating farms and historic farm remnants are still present closer to the urban core along the Watterson Expressway, such as Oxmoor Farm, which contains numerous documented archaeological sites (Granger 1976; Stottman and Stahlgren 2012).

Parks

As with farm fields, parks tend to be a setting/land use in which archaeological deposits are documented, because they often include large parcels of land where little development has taken place, thus preserving archaeological deposits. Large suburban parks and forest preserves often contain prehistoric archaeological deposits, because they tend to be larger parcels of land and the parks usually have not experience much intense park related development, such as playgrounds, athletic fields, shelters, restrooms, parking areas, etc. (Stottman 2008a).

Urban parks tend to be smaller and contain more intense park related development. Furthermore, these parks often consist of reclaimed land from other urban uses, such as residential, commercial, or industrial purposes (McKelway 1995; Stottman and Prybylski 2004). However, both prehistoric and historic period archaeological sites have been documented in urban parks (Granger and Stottman 1992).

Parks within established neighborhoods and suburban parks also have high archaeological potential, as most were developed from former farms. Large parks such as Cherokee, Seneca, and Iroquois parks have archaeological potential, representing preserved land within residential development (Stottman and Granger 1992). Large parks further out in the suburbs contain archaeological sites, such as the recently developed Floyd's Fork Parklands and Louisville Loop initiatives (Stevens 2009). Parks associated with or near sample study areas could have archaeological potential, for example Sun Valley Park off of Dixie Highway, Des Pres Park near Lincolnshire, and Buechel Park near Buechel Terrace along Bardstown Road. Parks such as Joe Creason and George Rogers Clark located off Poplar Level Road contain archaeological resources associated with early historic settlement, historic plantations/farmsteads, the World War I era Camp Zachary Taylor, and prehistoric Native Americans (Figure 6) (Granger and Stottman 1992; Stottman 2008a; Stottman and Henry 2007).

Woodlands

Undeveloped woodland settings are much like farm fields, in that they tend to be large parcels of land that have experienced little to no development. In fact much of the private woodlands in the county were likely cultivated fields or pastures at one time, but have since been reclaimed as woodland once farming ceased. Regardless, these sites are likely to preserve prehistoric and historic archaeological sites. As with farm fields, woodlands are most likely to be present in areas further away from the urban core. The largest woodland is the Jefferson County Memorial Forest in the southern portion of the Metro, where archaeological sites have been documented (Bader 2009; Stottman 2006). However, woodlands are also present along the main roads associated with the study areas, particularly Dixie Highway, Preston Highway around the former "Wet Woods" area, Brownsboro Road near Prospect, and Bardstown Road near Fern Creek.

Cemeteries

Cemeteries as a setting preserve archaeological deposits mainly as large parcels of protected or undeveloped land. Although some archaeological deposits such as prehistoric or historic site not related to the function of a cemetery can be preserved, it is the burials that are most often the archaeological deposits that are preserved and of interest to archaeologists (DiBlasi and Urban 1993).

Cemeteries are located near some of the sample study areas and include large public cemeteries and those for small families. Large cemeteries near the study areas include Bethany Cemetery located along Dixie Highway and Evergreen Cemetery is located adjacent to Lynnview on Preston Highway. Small family cemeteries have been documented along Bardstown Road in the Lauderdale subdivision (Figure 7) and near Strathmoor Manor and near Dixie Highway (Figure 9.9) (Stottman 2008b; 2012).



Figure 9.9 The Lewis-Sanders Family Cemetery located off of Dixie Highway.

Urban Lots

Urban lots are often the setting for archaeological deposits associated with historic period residences and businesses. The continuity of an urban lot in a historic neighborhood preserves historic period archaeological deposits associated with its function as a residence or business. Although they are generally small, the yard spaces within this setting will contain intact sheet middens, outbuilding features, privies, cisterns, wells, and cellars. Numerous historic urban

houselot sites have been recorded in Metro Louisville, mainly within historic neighborhoods (Stottman 1995a; Stottman and Granger 1993; Stottman and Watts-Roy 1995; Stottman et al. 1991). Although prehistoric sites have been documented in association with a historic neighborhood (Esarey 1992), rarely does this setting preserve these types of archaeological deposits, but they do occur. A significant intact Woodland period site has been investigated at the Custer site (15Jf732) located on an urban lot in the Portland neighborhood (Anne Bader personal communication 2007).

Suburban Lots

Suburban lots are generally not a setting that preserves archaeological deposits, unless they were associated with a historic residence or other historic buildings. This setting tends to consist of larger parcels of land than the urban house lots, sometimes encompassing several acres, but most often ranging from ¹/₄ acre to one acre in size. Although this setting can consist of large open spaces, the process of modern residential development is very destructive to archaeological deposits, as typically the land is stripped of topsoil before houses are built. Occasionally archaeological sites can be preserved on suburban lots when prehistoric mounds or historic residences are preserved as part of the development. These preserved sections of a development can become intact pockets of archaeological deposits associated with the remnants of former plantations, farmsteads, or prehistoric mounds (Cloutier 1973; McBride and Bellhorn 1992; Slider 1998; Stottman 2001; 2004).



Figure 9. 10 *The Samuel Bray House (15Jf795), now the Bashford Manor Bed and Breakfast located on a suburban lot near Buechel.*

Despite the destructive nature of modern residential development some archaeological deposits associated with the former farms that existed prior the development can be preserved in residential yards, in particular deep historic features such as wells, cisterns, privies, and cellars. However, examples of such intact features are rare. Cemeteries could very well be present on suburban lots, such as the case in the Lauderdale subdivision along Bardstown Road (Stottman 2012). Also, it is likely that a cemetery once associated with Farmington Plantation (15Jf574) is present within the Strathmoor Gardens subdivision along Bardstown Road.



Figure 9. 11 The rear yard of the Samuel Bray House showing adjacent suburban lots.

Furthermore, as the first suburban lots developed in Louisville become historic themselves there may be an opportunity for archaeology to play a role in their study as a residential site type (See residential archaeology site type). Archaeological resources associated with the development of suburban communities could be preserved and present on suburban lots. Archaeology could help document modifications to suburban houses and outbuildings, such as additions, sheds, garages, and landscaping as the needs and desires of suburbanites changed over time.

Estates

Estate settings are similar to suburban lots, but they consist of much larger parcels of land and are often historic in their own right. Because the estate lots are quite large they have not been intensively developed which can preserve archaeological deposits, increasing the potential for prehistoric and historic deposits to be preserved. Also, the estates themselves are often created from historic plantations or farmsteads, as either the nucleus or as a parceled out section of the property, thus deposits from these former functions can be preserved within an estate (Horner and Stottman 2008). Some estates date to the late nineteenth to early twentieth century and may contain intact archaeological deposits associated with the estate itself, such as trash middens, privies, wells, cisterns, outbuilding remains, landscape features (walls, paths, fences, etc.). Estate settings are most common along the Brownsboro Road corridor in the Metro.

Parking Lots

While the intense development that has taken place within the central business district and downtown area was thought to have destroyed most archaeological deposits, archaeologists have found that certain urban settings can preserve deposits. Parking lots tend to preserve archaeological deposits, particularly if it has functioned as such for an extended amount of time. A parking lot can preserve deposits associated with historic period residences, commercial lots, and industrial sites. Deep features such as privies, wells, cisterns, cellars, and building and industrial foundations are commonly found beneath parking lots (Bader 2003a; Stottman 1995b, 2000). Often parking lots can prevent other types of development that are more destructive to archaeological deposits, such as the construction of buildings with large basements from taking place. Thus, they can act as means of preserving archaeological deposits, in particular historic period development prior to the construction of a parking lot most often destroys prehistoric deposits.

While archaeological sites documented in parking lot settings have occurred exclusively within urban areas, the propensity for suburban development to have expansive parking lots indicates that they too may contain intact archaeological resources. However, as with urban areas, the archaeological potential is higher for suburban parking lots where intensive historic or prehistoric occupation took place prior and deep features are present.

Commercial/Industrial

Much like parking lots, large commercial or industrial settings can preserve archaeological deposits, because they often encompass a large parcel of land, which undergo varying degrees of development enabling some existing archaeological deposits to be preserved. The remains of historic period residential, commercial, and industrial sites can be preserved in such settings, particularly in historic neighborhoods. In some cases, prehistoric archaeological deposits can be preserved within commercial or industrial settings/land uses (Bader and French 2004).

Although archaeological sites within a commercial/industrial setting have been most often documented in urban areas, at least one archaeological site has been documented in a suburban area associated with sample study areas. For example, worker housing has been documented archaeologically at the Kosmos Cement Company located along Dixie Highway in Kosmosdale (Figure 9.12) (Stottman 2008c). The Valley View subdivision sample study area was developed as worker housing for the cement factory.



Figure 9. 12*The remains of a water cistern found at the Kosmosdale North Village Site (15Jf713).*

Transportation

Prehistoric and historic archaeological deposits have been known to be preserved beneath or adjacent to roads and streets. Some roadways require a large amount of fill to be used during construction, which can in some cases preserve archaeological sites and some roads are constructed without an extreme amount of excavation, thus preserving a site beneath the road. However, these cases are generally rare and road construction, in general typically destroys archaeological resources. However, in some cases roadways can preserve elements of previous historic streets and roads, such as paving, curbing, and rail lines (Stottman and Prybylski 2004; Faberson 2008). Roads also include right of ways and areas that are adjacent that are generally protected from development. These areas can create narrow strips of preserved deposits that escaped disturbance during the road construction itself and can contain remnants of intact archaeological resources (Granger 1996).

Since airports or airfields encompass large amounts of land, some of which have not experienced much disturbance, they can contain both prehistoric and historic archaeological sites (Stottman et al 1992). Both Louisville International Airport (Standiford Field) and Bowman Field are located near sample study areas. Bowman Field was Louisville's first airport established in the 1920s and may be an archaeological site in its own right in addition to preserving sites. As air travel was developed nearly 100 years ago, this setting can also contain archaeological resources related the development and use of airports. In particular archaeology could help document changes to the layout and use of structures over time, as technology changed.

Institutional

Institutions, such as hospitals, religious and school campuses, and government facilities often contain large amounts of land that can preserve both prehistoric and historic archaeological sites, including those associated with the institution. Archaeological sites have been documented at such settings within Metro Louisville (Stottman 1998). Located near sample study areas along Dixie Highway, the former Waverly Hills Sanatorium may have archaeological resources preserved on its grounds both from previously existing deposits and its historic use as a hospital.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the archaeological context and the assessment of archaeological potential of setting/land use types within Metro Louisville, it was demonstrated that archaeological resources are present and/or have the potential to be present in a variety of settings/land uses, even in areas where intense development has occurred historically. These archaeological resources have the potential to contribute to research themes and topics discussed in this report and provide additional data to a better understanding of prehistory and history. Archaeological resources present in or near the sample study areas also can contribute to the significance of historic properties and their National Register of Historic Places status.

The assessment of archaeological setting/land use types in the project areas demonstrated that archaeological resources can be present at any of the types. Although the urban lot and farm field/historic farm setting types are likely to have the most potential throughout Metro Louisville, archaeological sites have been documented in all of the setting/land use types. Thus, it can be concluded that these two setting types have the most potential to produce archaeological resources. However, significant archaeological resource can be present within any of the setting/land use types discussed. This conclusion suggests that archaeological resources can be present anywhere and that it would be difficult to discount any particular type with regards to archaeological potential. Thus, each property should be evaluated individually for archaeological potential using the information provided here.

The potential of properties to contain archaeological resources largely depends on two basic factors, the use of the property for human activity and the amount of disturbance that has occurred at the property over time. Properties that were the locations of prehistoric and historic human activity and have experienced little to no disturbance or alterations will have the highest archaeological potential. Thus, the farm field/historic farm setting/land use types have the highest archaeological potential and indeed most of the archaeological sites identified within Metro Louisville were found within this setting type. However, the assessment of archaeological resources in the study area also indicates that archaeological potential is dependent upon when disturbances and alterations occurred at properties. Disturbances such as the development of a neighborhood can be very destructive to preexisting archaeological resources, but also can create archaeological resources, thus historic disturbance can in itself be a significant archaeological resource, which is why urban lot setting/land use types have high archaeological potential.

While generalizations about archaeological potential can be made based on archaeological setting/land use type in that farm field/historic farm and urban lot settings have high archaeological potential, other setting types cannot be ruled out as having no archaeological potential. Thus, it is recommended that properties be evaluated for archaeological potential individually based on their historical context regarding research topics and themes, development, and existing conditions. While archaeological survey techniques are the most effective way to determine archaeological potential, it is not always practical or available for use. However,

evaluations also can be made by examining the historical context of properties and examination of current conditions. Provided below are examples of how properties within particular setting/land use types and archaeological site types can be evaluated within the sample study areas.

Because the sample study areas are primarily located outside of the urban core, urban lots are not a prominent setting. However, some of the study area or areas nearby do exhibit urban lot qualities, particularly in areas located inside the Watterson Expressway or that were developed earlier during suburban development. For example Algonquin Place, which is located in an urban area where Dixie Highway exits downtown. Although this area was developed in the 1920s, it was a high density residential area much like its older urban residential counterparts and is likely to contain archaeological resources from its period of occupation and possibly previous historic uses. It is possible that historic farm or prehistoric sites could be partially preserved.

Although the urban environment has been subject to substantial alteration over time, these areas do have a substantial amount of archival resources, such as detailed historic maps, to help examine the development history of properties. A series of atlas maps, Sanborn fire insurance maps, and modern aerial photography that show structures and their functions since 1876 can be used to examine the properties. Part of the focus of the examination will be on locating relatively undeveloped or limited development of particular properties over time, which will be most conducive to preserving prehistoric or early historic archaeological resources. The other part of the focus will be on examining an urban neighborhood for limited alterations, which will best preserve archaeological resources associated with urban lots. In both cases, the goal is to locate properties that have experience the least amount of disturbance. For example a larger house lot that has not experienced substantial change over time based on maps.

Some portions of the suburban areas further from the urban core can contain some urban lots, such as older development in smaller cities, such as Shively, St. Matthews, Jeffersontown, and Middletown. These suburban communities have some urban style lots, as they were initially founded prior to modern suburban development. These lots would have potential similar to those found in the urban core.

Through an examination of the historic maps it is possible to identify areas that have experience little disturbance or alteration during the development of residential communities, which could preserve early historic or prehistoric archaeological resources. Examples of such areas include mainly parks associated with the sample study areas, for example Algonquin Park, which shows as consistent open undeveloped land on historic maps and which is relatively undeveloped presently.

Properties in farm field, estate, or suburban lot settings further from the urban core or not associated with towns or cities can be evaluated much like the urban lots. Properties should be examined first foremost based on the amount of disturbance that has taken place over time.

Historic maps and modern aerial photography can be used to examine historic and modern development for properties. Also, informants can be key to locating properties where artifacts have been found or documenting disturbances to properties over time. Properties that have large relatively undeveloped or unaltered land have the most potential for containing intact archaeological resources. Properties with documented early historic period occupation such as, plantations and farms identified on early maps in combination with relatively undisturbed land have high archaeological potential. For example, there are many properties along the major arteries from Louisville into the suburbs that contain remnants of historic farms/plantations or farm fields, such as the Dr. R. J. Siebold House (Jf152) along Bardstown Road in Fern Creek (Figure 13), The Kennedy-Hunsinger Farm (Jf221) on Taylorsville Road, Oxmoor Farm/Christian Log House (Jf313; 15Jf647; 15Jf776) off of Shelbyville Road (Figure 8), and the McCallum House and Farm (Jf831) off of Dixie Highway. These farms and many like them contain extant and or the archaeological remains of outbuildings that formed the core of nineteenth century plantations and farmsteads. The remnants of historic farms and plantations have been preserved as lots within or adjacent to suburban developments such as Farmington Plantation (15Jf574) along Bardstown Road within the Strathmoor Gardens subdivision near a sample study area, Locust Grove historic home (15Jf541) and the Taylor-Herr House off of Brownsboro Road in the Windy Hills subdivision, and the Samuel Bray House (Bashford Manor) (15Jf795) within the Bon Air subdivision off Bardstown Road near Buechel (Figures 10 and 11). There are many more examples of these types of settings that have high potential for archaeological resources throughout Metro Louisville. Thus, the existing farm fields/historic and farm remnants have high potential for containing archaeological deposits.

The evaluation of properties for archaeological potential also should take the historic and topographic context into consideration. Again historic maps can provide information about plantations and farmsteads on properties that are no longer extant, which in concert with high probability site types will have potential to contain historic period archaeological resources. An examination of a property's topography and geography can provide information about the probability of containing prehistoric archaeological deposits. Upland or floodplain terrace topography in close proximity to water generally contains prehistoric archaeological sites. Thus, farm fields or parks on terraces along the Ohio River and flat ridges or knolls near creeks and springs have high potential to contain prehistoric archaeological sites.



Figure 9. 13 The Dr. R.J. Siebold House and Farm (Jf152) located off of Bardstown Road in Fern Creek has high historical and prehistoric archaeological potential.

Properties, where a substantial amount of development has taken place, such as modern commercial, residential, and industrial developments have lower archaeological potential, as do interstate and road contexts. Furthermore, suburban lots generally will have low archaeological potential, unless a suburban lot contains the remnants of historic plantations or farmsteads or prehistoric mounds, which then have high archaeological potential (Figures 5, 9, 10, and 11). However, each property should be evaluated based on its individual development history and historical and geographical context.

Given that the sample study areas are entirely suburban lots which are now coming under consideration for historic significance, the question of how archaeology may be able to contribute to a better understanding of the development patterns, culture, and technology associated with mid-twentieth century suburbanization should be considered. While it is generally accepted that suburban development of this period and later is detrimental to the preservation of archaeological resources, we have yet to consider the archaeological products of that process.

Recommendations for Future Research

While this report presents a synthesis of the archaeological work conducted and sites identified within and near the study area and illustrates its potential for containing more archaeological sites that contribute to a variety of research topics, it is clear that this potential has only been minimally realized. Most of the archaeological work throughout Metro Louisville has been survey in nature with the goal of identifying sites from the prehistoric to early twentieth century. While there has been some extensive research of some important and significant sites, perhaps more than other areas of the state, there is the need for more intensive work to connect previous work to larger research themes and cultural history. For example, a substantial amount of archaeological work has been done at multiple historic slave sites in Metro Louisville and there is an opportunity to develop a much broader study of this topic to better understand community wide slave culture (Figure 9.14) (Lori C. Stahlgren, personal communication 2012). Efforts should be made to expand and update research of Archaic and Woodland prehistoric settlement patterns (Granger 1988). Further research is needed to locate sites and more fully investigate significant Late Prehistoric sites in Metro Louisville to examine the Falls area's role along the boundary of Mississippian and Ft. Ancient cultures (Bader and French 2004). Additional research at historic farms could help further develop a better understanding of agricultural transitions from plantations and farmsteads in the nineteenth century to truck and dairy farms in the early twentieth century. The extensive work in urban neighborhoods can be combined with yet to be conducted work in later suburbs to better understand development processes, the shifts in demographics and socioeconomics, and the role of technology in this process. Future research also should expand on the research conducted in the urban area concerning consumerism and sanitation and expand to include rural and suburban sites (Stottman 1996; 2000b). Work should continue and be expanded concerning Louisville's industrial development from the early nineteenth to mid twentieth centuries, as it has been determined that the area played a key role in the development of the American pottery industry (Stradling and Stradling 2001; Anne Bader personal communication 2012).

It is clear that there are many settings and property types in which archaeological resources can be found in Metro Louisville, including in and around the sample study areas. The identification of additional archaeological sites and more work at significant sites are essential for future research development.

Recommendations for future research in Metro Louisville must begin with the acknowledgement of archaeological resources amidst the constant developmental pressures that threaten archaeological sites within Metro Louisville, particularly in suburban areas exemplified by the sample study areas. This report has demonstrated that there is great archaeological potential in Metro Louisville, but it will take a greater acknowledgment of archaeological resources and their contribution to research amongst all levels of government and the public to identify, investigate, and preserve them. While there are requirements for consideration of archaeological resources at the Federal level of government, much of the developmental pressures affecting the study area are initiated at the state and local level.



Figure 9. 14*A spoon with a scratched "X" on the handle found during excavation of a slave house at Locust Grove (15Jf541). Similar marked objects have been found at Farmington (15Jf574) and Riverside (15Jf531), which suggest a previously unknown connection amongst enslaved African-Americans in the Louisville Area.*

While there have been some inroads to a greater acknowledgement of archaeological resources within the local development process, a much wider and concerted effort should be undertaken to educate those that participate within the process and requirements concerning archaeological resources. This document represents the beginning of such an effort by providing the tools necessary to begin identifying areas of high probability and developing research topics pertinent to state and local history. Thus, it should be seen within the development process as a planning document for requiring future surveys and salvage efforts in affected areas.

These efforts should also seek to tie archaeological data to research concerning extant architectural resources. As demonstrated in this report, archaeological resources are often found in association with extant historic buildings and contexts. They have great potential to contribute to the significance of historic buildings and properties and to provide information about the development of properties over time and to the research topics of architectural historians, such as the process of suburbanization exemplified by the sample study areas. Archaeological resources also can provide data concerning architectural research topics when extant buildings are not present or when gaps occur in the architectural data.

Furthermore, all of these efforts require public education not only about the importance of archaeological resources to understanding the past, but also of its process. Through archaeology there is tremendous potential for making the past and the processes used to research it accessible and tangible to the public (Stahlgren and Stottman 2007). Thus, an investment in the identification, investigation, and preservation of archaeological and architectural resources in the study area is not a one-way street that only benefits researchers, but can provide benefits to the general public and the development process. Through public and educational archaeology programs archaeological and architectural resources can be extended to a broader sense of ownership and stewardship in which all forms of the public are stakeholders in our shared past and how it is used in the present.

Chapter 10. Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Work

The post-war suburb changed the way Americans lived, worked, and played, and reshaped the cultural landscape of cities across the country. The very qualities advocated by the Federal Housing Administration that allowed the post-war housing crisis to be addressed, and enabled a new type of developer to take center stage in residential construction, are also the traits that render post-war housing difficult to appreciate and value. Neighborhoods with long streets, punctuated by similarly massed houses with close design characteristics, are spread out all across Jefferson County, linked by an impressive system of surface roadways that made the mass development possible.

This study revealed a few concrete themes in Louisville's post-war housing blitz. Size and scale of houses, as well as overall layout and landscaping of the subdivision, are key to understanding the intended market for post-war developments. Likewise, the street pattern identifies whether the developer was aiming for an upper-middle class buyer or a less-affluent consumer. The majority of the post-World War II subdivisions off of Dixie Highway conform to a straight street pattern, laid out in an unimaginative gridiron. The gridiron, too, though is observed in developments in the Bardstown Road Corridor, such as Hoock, and in St. Matthews. Though the gridiron lacked the atmospheric qualities of the curving, looping and winding streets that developers like William F. Randolph popularized, and built with great frequency in the Bardstown Road Corridor, it was a much more affordable option. Constructing streets that conformed to the rolling topography and emphasized the nuances of the natural landscape impacted the financial bottom line of the development, resulting in high priced lots and houses.

Most of the houses in the study area, especially the ranch houses, were built to be functional – simple, cheap, easy to build forms to house people, because the real issue was that there wasn't enough supply to meet the demand. These are not high-style examples of the ranch style, which makes the application of NRHP Criterion C even more problematic than it can be when not assessing post-war housing. The design of these homes was rooted in their adaptability to building constraints and the environment, and for their ability to be easily expandable. Hench, ranches with forms that could easily accommodate an "L" shaped addition were popular in Louisville, as were Minimal Traditional style houses or Cape Cods with "expansion attics."

Dixie Highway and Bardstown Road proved to be perfect comparisons. Unfortunately, Dixie Highway has never enjoyed the prosperity of Bardstown Road, even during the nineteenth century. Commercial development along Dixie appears to have stagnated around 1970, and though new commercial (big box stores) ventures have located there, the streetscape is disjointed and uneven. Bardstown Road, on the other hand, especially outside the Watterson, has been continually built, rebuilt and remodeled.

The work in establishing a context and framework for understanding the significance of the postwar residential expansion in Louisville within the larger structure of twentieth century housing development has only just begun, but hopefully this study highlights some areas of Louisville that have heretofore been relegated to the background of history. The following text highlights (non-prioritized) recommendations for future efforts in the area.

- Very little NRHP and survey work has been conducted in southwestern Jefferson County (see Figure 2.2). Louisville Metro should investigate listing some of the proposed districts contained within the plethora of HUD-funded reports (discussed in Chapter 2) from the 1990s. Most of these are in West Louisville.
- This study focused primarily on single family homes from 1920-1970. A study of multifamily housing should be developed.



Figure 10. 11949 ad for Lynn Acres.

- Education and interpretation efforts are essential to build on public awareness created • during survey efforts. Most Louisville residents were very receptive to the idea of a "Twentieth Century Survey" and intuitively understood why the post-war period was significant within the history of Louisville. Several of the neighborhoods included in the study are located in areas of Louisville that traditionally do not receive a lot of positive attention from local government. These residents were, by and large, homeowners with a great deal of pride and investment in their home and surrounding community. It is unlikely, however, that these residents would attend a public meeting or respond to other outreach efforts such as direct mail or surveys. Although this study did not allow for a true or a history initiative, it is through an undertaking like that the public in many areas could be best reached. Preservation is local; in a city like Louisville, with fiercely independent neighborhoods and municipalities, local goes even deeper than just the city/county level. Without public education, the resources are known only to a few experts and neighborhood residents and attempts at preservation are likely to be misunderstood. The preservation planning process of survey, evaluation/nomination, and protection, works best when education encompasses all phases within this sequence.
- A state-level context needs to be completed for twentieth century residential housing developments.
- Although this study focused on the residential development associated with the post-war period in Louisville, there are many other post-war building types worthy of further research and study. Schools, public and institutional buildings, commercial buildings and religious architecture all are note-worthy for their design and their close relationship with the expanding suburbs of Jefferson County after 1945.
- The St. Matthews Area is a natural choice for future study, context development and NRHP nominations, given its phenomenal growth (and number of subdivisions) between 1920 and 1970.

Themes for Future Research:

Architects for Future Thematic Research

Norman Sweet

Stratton Hammond

Fred H. Elswick

Herbert E. Redmon

T. Avery Chadwick

W.S. Arrasmith

Arnold Judd - Contemporary Homes - houses on Sprite Road

E.W. Augustus

Louisville firm of Crowfoot, Wishmeyer, Arrasmith and Elsmith

Edd Gregg

Industrial suburbanization

Kosmosdale (Dixie Highway, three miles north of the Salt River), Kosmos Cement Company founded in 1904. Subdivisions: Valley Station and Valley Village.

Rubbertown (western Jefferson County)

GE Appliance Park (Bardstown Road Corridor)

Ford Motor Company's Louisville Assembly Plant (Southwestern Parkway, 1925-1955)

Fern Valley-Grade Lane Assembly Plant (1955-1969)

Bluegrass Research and Industrial Park (developed by L. Leroy Highbaugh, Jr)

Government

Transportation

Education, medicine or government

Social History

Commercial

Shopping Centers of the Post-War Suburbs

Developers of Interest

William F. Randolph & Wakefield-Davis Realty Company, 1920-1940

Randolph was a prolific developer before and during the World Wars, but very little archival material on him was uncovered during this study. Largely responsible for the abandonment of the gridiron in middle-to-upper-middle class developments in the Bardstown Road Corridor and

in St. Matthews, Randolph's contributions to the streetcar and early automobile suburbs need a closer look.

Aberdeen Subdivision (off Norris Place and Douglass Boulevard, platted 1923)

Shadylawn

Fairlawn Subdivision (between Lexington Rd and Frankfort Ave)

Beaumont (bounded by Taylorsville Rd, Bon Air Avenue, Rubble Road and line between Curran Rd and Dartmouth Avenue)

Lauderdale Subdivision I & II (the Dean-Bishop House, NR listed, is at the center of Lauderale II, platted 1923)

Cherokee Park in Nashville, TN

Clarence C. Hieatt – builder/developer, Consolidated Realty Company

Clarence C. Hieatt developed more than 70 subdivisions over his long career.

Avondale

Cherokee Village

Strathmoor

C. Robert Peter - Grandview Realty Company

Sunnydale

Parkway Village (between Clark's Lane and Audubon Park on the east side of Preston Highway)

Roselawn Subdivision, 1956 (south of Hikes Lane)

Klondike Manor, platted in 1958 (south of Hikes Lane)

L. Leroy Highbaugh, Sr and L. Leroy Highbaugh, Jr.

Brookhaven, seven sections platted between 1953 and 1960

Algonquin Place

Lynn Acres

Wyandotte Subdivision

Merlyn Acres Subdivision (Auburndale)



Figure 10. 2 Ad for Highbaugh's Wyandotte Subdivision.

Roy F. McMahan, Sr.

A professional developer and president of Louisville Tool and Die Company, McMahan entered the development game in 1946, buying the former Eberle farm on the north side of Taylorsville road, east of Breckinridge Lane. *Courier-Journal* Development editor Grady Clay, who charted the dizzying pace of post-war development in the 1950s, described McMahan as the "sparkplug of development in Hikes Point." ⁸⁰⁴ In 1950, McMahan platted Lincolnshire and Yorkshire subdivisions.

(as Reviera Park Syndicate, Inc.) Klondike Park

Fern Creek Gardens (Section 3)

Hill Creek Park (1960)

Hurstbourne Park

Delbert and Duncan Paschal – builder/developers

Yorkshire Homes, Inc.

Yorkshire Subdivision (1950, off of Taylorsville Road)

Sunset Hill Development Company

Dixie Gardens (off of Dixie Highway)

David Wilson (also president of Associated Home Builders of Louisville in 1950s) Lynnview

Trinity Park

Raleigh Subdivision (as Trinity Homes Inc)

G.T. Terry, Commonwealth Realty Company

Robert J. Thieneman

Mostly worked in the 1960s, although he did some building in Valley View Subdivision.

Edwin R. Montgomery

Forest Ridge Subdivision

Sanders Park Subdivision

⁸⁰⁴ Kramer, A History of Eastern Louisville,141.

Clifford Knopf

Knopf built several large subdivisions in Louisville besides Buechel Terrace; however, these houses were not as economical. Knopf's choice of prefabricated housing brands changed from Gunnison Homes, a subsidiary of U.S. Steel, to U.S. Steel Homes to Richmond Homes.⁸⁰⁵ Knopf was the agent for Town and Country Homes, Inc., and was a sales genius. His promotions included not only print advertising, but model homes, and even demonstrations on the site of the subdivision

Buechel Terrace Homes in Frederick Acres Homes in Highgate Springs Galaxie Estates Highland Hills



Figure 10. 3 One of Clifford Knopf's "promotions" in Highland Hills.

Subdivisions Recommended for Future Study

• Whipps Mill Village (prefabricated homes)



Figure 10. 4 Map of Whipps Mill Village.



Figure 10. 5 Early 1950s ad for Whipps Mill Village.

• A scattering of 1920s subdivisions are located outside of the Watterson, including Avondale and Melbourne Heights (Bardstown Road Corrdidor, outside of the Watterson).



Figure 10. 6 Map showing Avondale and Melbourne Heights.

• Watterson City – a post-war residential and commercial development.

Chapter 11. Survey Index

Type A=Cape Cod Type B= Minimal Traditional Type C= Front Gable U= Undetermined Street # Street Type 2543 Algonquin Parkway А В 2600 Algonquin Parkway A 2601 Algonquin Parkway В 2602 Algonquin Parkway В 2603 Algonquin Parkway В 2604 Algonquin Parkway 2605 Algonquin Parkway В A 2606 Algonquin Parkway 2607 Algonquin Parkway А В 2608 Algonquin Parkway В 2609 Algonquin Parkway В 2610 Algonquin Parkway A 2611 Algonquin Parkway 2612 Algonquin Parkway A 2613 Algonquin Parkway В В 2614 Algonquin Parkway 2615 Algonquin Parkway А A 2616 Algonquin Parkway В 2617 Algonquin Parkway A 2618 Algonquin Parkway В 2619 Algonquin Parkway 2620 Algonquin Parkway В 2621 Algonquin Parkway A A 2622 Algonquin Parkway 2623 Algonquin Parkway А В 2624 Algonquin Parkway A 2625 Algonquin Parkway В 2626 Algonquin Parkway A 2627 Algonquin Parkway С 2628 Algonquin Parkway 2629 Algonquin Parkway А A 2630 Algonquin Parkway 2631 Algonquin Parkway А С 2632 Algonquin Parkway A 2633 Algonquin Parkway A 2634 Algonquin Parkway А 2635 Algonquin Parkway С 2636 Algonquin Parkway 2637 Algonquin Parkway А A 2638 Algonquin Parkway А 2639 Algonquin Parkway

Algonquin Place, Section 1 (JFSW-02)

Street #	Street	Туре
2640	Algonquin Parkway	С
2641	Algonquin Parkway	A
2642	Algonquin Parkway	A
2643	Algonquin Parkway	А
2644	Algonquin Parkway	С
2645	Algonquin Parkway	A
2646	Algonquin Parkway	А
2647	Algonquin Parkway	А
2648	Algonquin Parkway	A
2649	Algonquin Parkway	Α
-	Algonquin Parkway	Α
	Algonquin Parkway	A
	Burwell Avenue	anomaly
	Cypress Street	С
	Cypress Street	С
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	С
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	В
	Cypress Street	B
	Cypress Street	U
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	B
	Cypress Street	B
	Cypress Street	B
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street Cypress Street	B B
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	C
	Cypress Street	В
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	A
	Cypress Street	<u>с</u>
	Cypress Street	A
	S. 25th Street	A
	S. 25th Street	A
1020		~

Dixie Highway Corridor Algonquin Place, Section 1 (JFSW-02)

Street #	Street	Туре
1622	S. 25th Street	A
1624	S. 25th Street	A
1626	S. 25th Street	A
1628	S. 25th Street	anomaly
1630	S. 25th Street	В
1702	S. 25th Street	anomaly; orig house

Type A= Cape Cod Type B= Minimal Traditional Type D= Dutch Colonial			
Street #	Street	Туре	
1700	Cypress Street	A	
1702	Cypress Street	В	
1704	Cypress Street	В	
1708	Cypress Street	В	
1710	Cypress Street	В	
1804	Cypress Street	В	
1810	Cypress Street	В	
1812	Cypress Street	В	
1814	Cypress Street	А	
1824	Cypress Street	D	
1826	Cypress Street	В	
1832	Cypress Street	A	
1836	Cypress Street	В	
1850	Cypress Street	В	
1852	Cypress Street	A	

Г

Type A= Cape Cod Type B= Minimal Traditional Type C= Front Gable U=Undetermined		
	Street	Type
	Beech Street	Туре С
	Beech Street	В
	Beech Street	A
	Beech Street	A
	Beech Street	В
	Beech Street	С
	Beech Street	U
	Beech Street	С
1817	Beech Street	A
2606	Conestoga Avenue	A
	Conestoga Avenue	С
2609	Conestoga Avenue	В
	Conestoga Avenue	U
	Conestoga Avenue	В
2612	Conestoga Avenue	С
2613	Conestoga Avenue	С
2614	Conestoga Avenue	С
2615	Conestoga Avenue	А
2616	Conestoga Avenue	A
2617	Conestoga Avenue	С
2700	Conestoga Avenue	С
2701	Conestoga Avenue	A
2702	Conestoga Avenue	A
2703	Conestoga Avenue	C
2704	Conestoga Avenue	С
2705	Conestoga Avenue	C
2706	Conestoga Avenue	A
2707	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	В
	Conestoga Avenue	A
	Conestoga Avenue	A
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	В
	Conestoga Avenue	B
	Conestoga Avenue	C
	Conestoga Avenue	C
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	В
	Conestoga Avenue	A
2802	Conestoga Avenue	A

Algonquin Place, Section 3 (JFSW-04)

		_
Street #	Street	Туре
2803	Conestoga Avenue	А
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	A
		C
	Conestoga Avenue	
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	А
2809	Conestoga Avenue	С
2810	Conestoga Avenue	С
2811	Conestoga Avenue	С
2812	Conestoga Avenue	А
	Conestoga Avenue	А
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	В
		C
	Conestoga Avenue	
	Conestoga Avenue	C
	Conestoga Avenue	A
	Conestoga Avenue	В
2904	Conestoga Avenue	В
2905	Conestoga Avenue	В
2906	Conestoga Avenue	С
2907	Conestoga Avenue	А
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	С
	Conestoga Avenue	В
	Conestoga Avenue	C
	Conestoga Avenue	C
	Conestoga Avenue	B
	Conestoga Avenue	A
	Conestoga Avenue	A
2601	Narragansett Drive	A
2603	Narragansett Drive	С
2605	Narragansett Drive	А
2607	Narragansett Drive	A
2609	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	A
2613	-	A
	Narragansett Drive	C
	Narragansett Drive	A
	U	
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	C
	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	С
2706	Narragansett Drive	А
2707	Narragansett Drive	А
	Narragansett Drive	A
	. –	1

Algonquin Place, Section 3 (JFSW-04)

<u>.</u>	.	-
	Street	Туре
2709	Narragansett Drive	В
2710	Narragansett Drive	С
2711	Narragansett Drive	С
2712	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	с
	Narragansett Drive	В
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	C
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	С
2802	Narragansett Drive	A
2803	Narragansett Drive	В
2804	Narragansett Drive	С
2805	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	В
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	C
	Narragansett Drive	В
	-	
	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	В
2815	Narragansett Drive	A
2816	Narragansett Drive	А
2817	Narragansett Drive	С
2901	Narragansett Drive	С
2903	Narragansett Drive	A
	Narragansett Drive	С
	Narragansett Drive	B
	Narragansett Drive	C
	Narragansett Drive	C
	Narragansett Drive	A
		A
	Narragansett Drive	
	Wyandotte Avenue	C
	Wyandotte Avenue	A
	Wyandotte Avenue	С
	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2701	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2702	Wyandotte Avenue	b
2703	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2704	Wyandotte Avenue	С
	, Wyandotte Avenue	с
	Wyandotte Avenue	C
	Wyandotte Avenue	C
2707	wyunuolle Avenue	

Algonquin Place, Section 3 (JFSW-04)

Street #	Street	Туре
2708	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2709	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2710	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2711	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2712	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2713	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2714	Wyandotte Avenue	Α
2715	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2716	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2717	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2800	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2801	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2802	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2803	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2804	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2805	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2806	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2807	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2808	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2809	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2810	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2811	Wyandotte Avenue	Α
2812	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2813	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2814	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2815	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2816	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2817	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2900	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2902	Wyandotte Avenue	С
2904	Wyandotte Avenue	A
2906	Wyandotte Avenue	В
2908	Wyandotte Avenue	U
2910	Wyandotte Avenue	В

TYpe A= Cape Cod Type C= Front Gable

Street #	Street	Туре
	Algonquin Parkway	C
	Algonquin Parkway	A
2719	Algonquin Parkway	A
2721	Algonquin Parkway	A
2723	Algonquin Parkway	A
2725	Algonquin Parkway	A
2727	Algonquin Parkway	A
1800	Beech Street	A
1802	Beech Street	A
	Beech Street	A
1806	Beech Street	A
1808	Beech Street	С
1810	Beech Street	A
1812	Beech Street	A
1814	Beech Street	A
	Beech Street	A
	Beech Street	С
	Beech Street	С
-	Beech Street	A
	Beech Street	A
	Wenatchee Place	С
1801	Wenatchee Place	A
-	Wenatchee Place	A
	Wenatchee Place	A
1815	Wenatchee Place	A

Algonquin Place, Section 4 (JFSW-05)

Street #	Street	Туре
1816	Wenatchee Place	A
1817	Wenatchee Place	С
1818	Wenatchee Place	С
3004	Wyandotte Avenue	А
3006	Wyandotte Avenue	A
3008	Wyandotte Avenue	А
3010	Wyandotte Avenue	А
3012	Wyandotte Avenue	A
3014	Wyandotte Avenue	С
3016	Wyandotte Avenue	A
3018	Wyandotte Avenue	A
3020	Wyandotte Avenue	А
3022	Wyandotte Avenue	A
3024	Wyandotte Avenue	А
3028	Wyandotte Avenue	А
3032	Wyandotte Avenue	A
3034	Wyandotte Avenue	A

	Cape Cod Front Gable	
.,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		
Street #	Street	Туре
2700	Algonquin Parkway	С
2702	Algonquin Parkway	A
2704	Algonquin Parkway	А
2706	Algonquin Parkway	А
2708	Algonquin Parkway	А
2710	Algonquin Parkway	A
2712	Algonquin Parkway	А
2714	Algonquin Parkway	Α
	Algonquin Parkway	Α
	Algonquin Parkway	С
	Algonquin Parkway	A
	Algonquin Parkway	C
	Linwood Avenue	C
	Linwood Avenue	c
	Linwood Avenue	A
	Linwood Avenue	A
3013	Linwood Avenue	A
	Linwood Avenue	A
3015	Linwood Avenue	A
	Linwood Avenue	A
3017	Linwood Avenue	Α
3018	Linwood Avenue	A
3019	Linwood Avenue	А
3020	Linwood Avenue	A
3021	Linwood Avenue	А
3023	Linwood Avenue	А
3025	Linwood Avenue	Α

Algonquin Place, Section 5 (JFSW-06)

Street #	Street	Туре
3027	Linwood Avenue	А
3029	Linwood Avenue	А
3031	Linwood Avenue	А
3033	Linwood Avenue	А
3035	Linwood Avenue	С
3000	Penway Avenue	С
3001	Penway Avenue	А
3002	Penway Avenue	А
3003	Penway Avenue	А
3004	Penway Avenue	А
3005	Penway Avenue	А
3006	Penway Avenue	А
3007	Penway Avenue	А
3008	Penway Avenue	А
3009	Penway Avenue	А
3010	Penway Avenue	А
3011	Penway Avenue	А
3012	Penway Avenue	А
	Penway Avenue	А
3014	Penway Avenue	А
-	Penway Avenue	С
	Penway Avenue	А
	Penway Avenue	A
	Penway Avenue	A
	Penway Avenue	С
	Penway Avenue	А
	Penway Avenue	A
	Penway Avenue	A
	Penway Avenue	А
	Penway Avenue	A
	Penway Avenue	A
	S. 30th Street	Α
	S. 30th Street	Α
	S. 30th Street	A
1937	S. 30th Street	A

Algonquin Place, Section 5 (JFSW-06)

Street #	Street	Туре
1939	S. 30th Street	А
1941	S. 30th Street	А

Type A= C	•				
	Type C= Front Gable				
Type E= R	Type E= Ranch				
Street #	Street	Туре			
1910	Beech Street	A			
1912	Beech Street	А			
1913	Beech Street	A			
1914	Beech Street	A			
1915	Beech Street	A			
1916	Beech Street	А			
1917	Beech Street	А			
1918	Beech Street	А			
1919	Beech Street	A			
1920	Beech Street	А			
1921	Beech Street	А			
1922	Beech Street	A			
1923	Beech Street	E			
1924	Beech Street	A			
1925	Beech Street	E			
1926	Beech Street	A			
1928	Beech Street	A			
1929	Beech Street	anomaly; older bungalow			
1930	Beech Street	A			
1931	Beech Street	E			
1932	Beech Street	A			
1933	Beech Street	E			
	Beech Street	A			
	Beech Street	A			
	Beech Street	A			
1937	Beech Street	C			
	Beech Street	A			
	Beech Street	A			
	Cypress Street	A			
	Cypress Street	E			
	Cypress Street	A			
	Cypress Street	C			
	Cypress Street	A			
	Cypress Street	A			
	Cypress Street	A			
	Cypress Street	C			
	Cypress Street	A			
	Dixdale Avenue	C			
	Dixdale Avenue	C			
	Dixdale Avenue	A			
	Dixdale Avenue	A			
2606	Dixdale Avenue	A			

Dixie Highway Corridor Algonquin Place, Section 7 (JFSW-07)

Street #	Street	Туре
2607	Dixdale Avenue	A
2609	Dixdale Avenue	Α
2611	Dixdale Avenue	Α
2613	Dixdale Avenue	A
2615	Dixdale Avenue	С
2617	Dixdale Avenue	A
2618	Dixdale Avenue	A
2619	Dixdale Avenue	A
2620	Dixdale Avenue	A
2621	Dixdale Avenue	A
2622	Dixdale Avenue	A
2623	Dixdale Avenue	А
2624	Dixdale Avenue	А
2625	Dixdale Avenue	А
2626	Dixdale Avenue	A
2627	Dixdale Avenue	Α
2628	Dixdale Avenue	A
2629	Dixdale Avenue	Α
2630	Dixdale Avenue	Α
2631	Dixdale Avenue	A
2632	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue	Α
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue	Α
	Dixdale Avenue	Α
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue	C
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue Dixdale Avenue	A A
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Dixdale Avenue	A
	Olive Street	C
	Olive Street	A
1720		~

Dixie Highway Corridor Algonquin Place, Section 7 (JFSW-07)

Street #	Street	Туре
	Olive Street	E
		C
	Olive Street	
	Olive Street	A
	Olive Street	С
	Olive Street	A
2618	Olive Street	A
2620	Olive Street	A
2622	Olive Street	A
2623	Olive Street	Α
2624	Olive Street	Α
2625	Olive Street	Α
2626	Olive Street	Α
2627	Olive Street	А
2629	Olive Street	A
2630	Olive Street	A
2631	Olive Street	A
2632	Olive Street	A
2633	Olive Street	A
2634	Olive Street	A
2635	Olive Street	A
2636	Olive Street	A
2637	Olive Street	Α
2638	Olive Street	Α
2639	Olive Street	Α
2640	Olive Street	A
2641	Olive Street	A
2642	Olive Street	A
2643	Olive Street	A
2644	Olive Street	Α
2645	Olive Street	A
2647	Olive Street	A
2648	Olive Street	A
2649	Olive Street	A
2650	Olive Street	A
2654	Olive Street	A
1918	S. 28th Street	С
1920	S. 28th Street	A
	S. 28th Street	С
1923	S. 28th Street	A
	S. 28th Street	E
	S. 28th Street	A
	S. 28th Street	A
	S. 28th Street	A
	S. 28th Street	E
	S. 28th Street	E
	S. 28th Street	A
1004		

Dixie Highway Corridor Algonquin Place, Section 7 (JFSW-07)

Street #	Street	Туре
1936	S. 28th Street	С
1938	S. 28th Street	A
1940	S. 28th Street	A
1941	S. 28th Street	A
1942	S. 28th Street	С

Dixie Highway Corridor Algonquin Place, Section 8 (JFSW-08)

Type A= Cape Cod
Type B= Minimal Traditional
Type E= Ranch

Street #	Street	Туре
3301	Algonquin Parkway	E
3303	Algonquin Parkway	E
3305	Algonquin Parkway	E
3309	Algonquin Parkway	E
3311	Algonquin Parkway	E
3313	Algonquin Parkway	В
3317	Algonquin Parkway	E
3319	Algonquin Parkway	E
3321	Algonquin Parkway	E
3323	Algonquin Parkway	E
3325	Algonquin Parkway	E
3327	Algonquin Parkway	E
3329	Algonquin Parkway	E
3433	Algonquin Parkway	A
3101	Wilson Avenue	E
3103	Wilson Avenue	E
3105	Wilson Avenue	E
3107	Wilson Avenue	E
3109	Wilson Avenue	E
3111	Wilson Avenue	E
3113	Wilson Avenue	E

Dixie Highway Corridor Algonquin Place, Section 8 Revised (JFSW-09)

Type E= Ranch			
Street #	Street	Туре	
3300	Pacific Court	E	
3301	Pacific Court	E	
3303	Pacific Court	E	
3305	Pacific Court	E	
3306	Pacific Court	E	
3307	Pacific Court	E	
3309	Pacific Court	E	
3311	Pacific Court	E	
3312	Pacific Court	E	
3313	Pacific Court	E	
3314	Pacific Court	E	
3315	Pacific Court	E	
3317	Pacific Court	E	
3318	Pacific Court	E	
3319	Pacific Court	E	

Type A= Ranch			
Street #	Street	Туре	
9616	Dixie Highway	anomaly; modern intrusion	
9702	Dixie Highway	A	
9704	Dixie Highway	anomaly	
	Dixie Highway	А	
	Dixie Highway	А	
	Dixie Highway	Α	
	Dixie Highway	Α	
	Dixie Highway	Α	
	Fiesta Way	A	
	Fiesta Way	A	
	Fiesta Way	Α	
	Fiesta Way	A	
	Fiesta Way	anomaly	
	Ponder Lane	Α	
	Ponder Lane	A	
	Ponder Lane Ponder Lane	A	
	Ponder Lane	A	
	Ponder Lane	A	
	Ponder Lane	A	
9312	Ponder Lane	Α	

De Nada Gates (JF-021)

Street #	Street	Туре
9314	Ponder Lane	A
9315	Ponder Lane	A
9316	Ponder Lane	A
9317	Ponder Lane	A
9318	Ponder Lane	A
9320	Ponder Lane	A
9322	Ponder Lane	A
9326	Ponder Lane	A
9328	Ponder Lane	A
9329	Ponder Lane	A
9330	Ponder Lane	A
5304	Velle Vista	A
5305	Velle Vista	A
5306	Velle Vista	А
5307	Velle Vista	A
5309	Velle Vista	А
5311	Velle Vista	A
5313	Velle Vista	A
5314	Velle Vista	Α
5315	Velle Vista	Α
5316	Velle Vista	Α
5317	Velle Vista	A
5319	Velle Vista	А
5320	Velle Vista	Α
9300	Hacienda Drive	А
9301	Hacienda Drive	А
9303	Hacienda Drive	А
9305	Hacienda Drive	Α
9306	Hacienda Drive	A
9307	Hacienda Drive	A
9308	Hacienda Drive	A
9309	Hacienda Drive	A
9310	Hacienda Drive	A
9311	Hacienda Drive	A
9312	Hacienda Drive	A
9313	Hacienda Drive	A

-				1
Type A= B	ungalow			
Type B= C	ape Cod			
Type C= D	utch Coloni	al		
Type D= N	/linimal Trac	litional		
Type E= T	udor Reviva	I		
	ront Gable			
Type G= R				
U= Undet				
C:+- #	Church H	Chucat	T	
Site #	Street #	Street	Type F	
JF-2164		Allston Avenue		
JF-2165		Allston Avenue	E	
JF-2166		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2167		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2168		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2169	1806	Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2170	1807	Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2171	1808	Allston Avenue	E	
JF-2172	1809	Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2173	1810	Allston Avenue	U	
JF-2174	1811	Allston Avenue	G	
JF-2175	1812	Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2176		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2177		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2178		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2179		Allston Avenue	F	
JF-2180		Allston Avenue	F	
JF-2180		Allston Avenue	F	
JF-2181		Allston Avenue	F	
JF-2182		Allston Avenue	B	
JF-2185 JF-2184				
		Allston Avenue	B	
JF-2185		Allston Avenue	B	
JF-2186		Allston Avenue	G	
JF-2187		Allston Avenue	G	
JF-2188		Allston Avenue	В	
JF-2189		Allston Avenue	A	
JF-2190		Allston Avenue	В	
JF-2191	2103	Allston Avenue	В	
JF-2192	2104	Allston Avenue	F	
JF-2193	2105	Allston Avenue	В	
JF-2194	2106	Allston Avenue	В	
JF-2195	2107	Allston Avenue	В	
JF-2196	2108	Allston Avenue	F	
JF-2197		Allston Avenue	D	
JF-2198		Allston Avenue	B	
JF-2199		Allston Avenue	B	
JF-2200		Allston Avenue	B	
JF-2200 JF-2201		Allston Avenue	B	
16-5501	2113	AIISTOILAVEILUE	D	

Site #	Street #	Street	Туре
JF-2202		Allston Avenue	E
JF-2202		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2203		Allston Avenue	B
JF-2204 JF-2205		Allston Avenue	anomaly (original house)
JF-2205 JF-2206			B
		Allston Avenue	
JF-2207		Allston Avenue	B
JF-2208		Allston Avenue	В
JF-2209		Allston Avenue	D
JF-2210		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2211		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2212		Allston Avenue	D
JF-2213	2125	Allston Avenue	В
JF-2214	2126	Allston Avenue	Α
JF-2215	2300	Allston Avenue	D
JF-2216	2301	Allston Avenue	D
JF-2217	2302	Allston Avenue	F
JF-2218	2303	Allston Avenue	В
JF-2219	2304	Allston Avenue	F
JF-2220	2305	Allston Avenue	D
JF-2221	2306	Allston Avenue	В
JF-2222	2307	Allston Avenue	В
JF-2223	2308	Allston Avenue	F
JF-2224		Allston Avenue	С
JF-2225		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2226		Allston Avenue	В
JF-2227		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2228		Allston Avenue	В
JF-2229		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2230		Allston Avenue	D
JF-2231		Allston Avenue	F
JF-2231		Allston Avenue	A
JF-2232 JF-2233		Dixie Highway	anomaly; Ref'd Ed Building
JF-2233 JF-2234		Oregon Avenue	E
JF-2234 JF-2235		Oregon Avenue	
JF-2235 JF-2236		Oregon Avenue	anomaly F
JF-2237		Oregon Avenue	Α
JF-2238		Oregon Avenue	E
JF-2239		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2240		Oregon Avenue	C
JF-2241		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2242		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2243		Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2244		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2245		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2246		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2247	1817	Oregon Avenue	А

Site #	Street #	Street	Туре
JF-2248		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2248		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2249 JF-2250		-	
		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2251		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2252		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2253		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2254		Oregon Avenue	C
JF-2255		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2256	1826	Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2257	1827	Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2258	1828	Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2259	1829	Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2260	2100	Oregon Avenue	С
JF-2261	2101	Oregon Avenue	А
JF-2262		Oregon Avenue	Α
JF-2263		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2264		Oregon Avenue	Α
JF-2265		Oregon Avenue	E
JF-2266		Oregon Avenue	anomaly
JF-2267		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2268		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2269		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2209 JF-2270		Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2271		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2272		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2273		Oregon Avenue	E
JF-2274		Oregon Avenue	F
JF-2275		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2276		Oregon Avenue	F
JF-2277		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2278	2118	Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2279	2119	Oregon Avenue	В
JF-2280	2120	Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2281	2121	Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2282	2122	Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2283	2123	Oregon Avenue	В
JF-2284	2124	Oregon Avenue	F
JF-2285		Oregon Avenue	В
JF-2286		Oregon Avenue	В
JF-2287		Oregon Avenue	E
JF-2288		Oregon Avenue	 A
JF-2289		Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2290		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2291		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2291 JF-2292		-	
		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2293	2305	Oregon Avenue	F

Site #	Street #	Street	Туре
JF-2294		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2295		Oregon Avenue	E
JF-2296		Oregon Avenue	В
JF-2290 JF-2297		Oregon Avenue	C
JF-2298		Oregon Avenue	G
JF-2299		Oregon Avenue	A
JF-2300		Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2301		Oregon Avenue	D
JF-2302		Oregon Avenue	F
JF-2303		Oregon Avenue	F
JF-2304		Oregon Avenue	C
JF-2305		Oregon Avenue	F
JF-2306	1801	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2307	1803	Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2308	1805	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2309	1807	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2310	1809	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2311	1811	Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2312	1813	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2313	1814	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2314	1815	Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2315	1816	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2316	1817	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2317		Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2318		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2319		Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2320		Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2321		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2322		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2323		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2324		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2325		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2326		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2320		Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2327		Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2328		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2329 JF-2330		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
			F
JF-2331		Ratcliffe Avenue	-
JF-2332		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2333		Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2334		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2335		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2336		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2337		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2338		Ratcliffe Avenue	B
JF-2339	2118	Ratcliffe Avenue	D

Site #	Street #	Street	Туре
JF-2340	2119	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2341	2120	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2342	2121	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2343	2122	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2344	2123	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2345	2124	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2346	2125	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2347	2126	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2348	2127	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2349	2300	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2350	2301	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2351	2302	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2352	2303	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2353	2304	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2354	2305	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2355	2306	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2356	2307	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2357	2308	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2358	2309	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2359	2310	Ratcliffe Avenue	D
JF-2360	2311	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2361	2312	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2362	2313	Ratcliffe Avenue	В
JF-2365	2314	Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2366	2315	Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2367	2316	Ratcliffe Avenue	F
JF-2368	2317	Ratcliffe Avenue	G

Valley View, Section 1 (JF-014)

Type A= Minimal Traditional				
Type B= Ranch				
Type C= Cape Cod				
U= Unde	etermined			
		_		
Street #	Street	Туре		
	North Drive	A		
	North Drive	В		
	North Drive	A		
	North Drive	В		
	North Drive	В		
	North Drive	В		
	North Drive	С		
	North Drive	A		
6411	North Drive	U (original house)		
6412	North Drive	С		
6413	North Drive	В		
6414	North Drive	В		
6415	North Drive	В		
6416	North Drive	A		
6417	North Drive	В		
6418	North Drive	В		
6419	North Drive	В		
6420	North Drive	В		
6421	North Drive	В		
6422	North Drive	В		
6405	South Drive	A		
6406	South Drive	В		
6408	South Drive	В		
6409	South Drive	В		
6410	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	В		
	South Drive	B		
	South Drive	B		
	South Drive	B		
0424		טן		

Valley View, Section 2 (JF-014)

Type A= Minimal Traditional Type B= Ranch Type D= Bi-level Ranch			
.,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			
Street #	Street	Туре	
6500	North Drive	В	
	North Drive	В	
6502	North Drive	В	
	North Drive	В	
6504	North Drive	В	
6505	North Drive	В	
6506	North Drive	В	
	North Drive	В	
6508	North Drive	В	
6509	North Drive	В	
6510	North Drive	В	
6511	North Drive	В	
6512	North Drive	В	
6513	North Drive	В	
6514	North Drive	В	
6515	North Drive	В	
6517	North Drive	В	
6600-6602	North Drive	В	
6601	North Drive	В	
6603	North Drive	В	
6604	North Drive	В	
6605	North Drive	В	
6606	North Drive	А	
6607	North Drive	В	
6608	North Drive	В	
6609	North Drive	D	
6610	North Drive	В	
6612	North Drive	В	
6613-6615	North Drive	В	
6617	North Drive	В	
6701	North Drive	В	
6600	South Drive	В	
6601	South Drive	В	
6602	South Drive	В	
6603	South Drive	В	
6604	South Drive	В	
6605	South Drive	A	
6606	South Drive	В	
6607	South Drive	В	
6608	South Drive	В	
6609	South Drive	В	
6610	South Drive	В	

Valley View, Section 2 (JF-014)

Street #	Street	Туре
6611	South Drive	В
6612	South Drive	В
6613	South Drive	В
6614	South Drive	В
6616	South Drive	В
6618	South Drive	В
6620	South Drive	D
6624	South Drive	В
6626	South Drive	В

Woodmere Heights Subdivision *Dixie Highway Corridor* Type A= Ranch House

Site # JF-022 (Group form)	Street #	Street	Туре
	1916	Nelson Avenue	А
	1918	Nelson Avenue	А
	1920	Nelson Avenue	А
	1921	Nelson Avenue	А
	1922	Nelson Avenue	А
	1923	Nelson Avenue	А
	1924	Nelson Avenue	А
		Nelson Avenue	А
	1926	Nelson Avenue	А
		Nelson Avenue	А
	1928	Nelson Avenue	А
	1929	Nelson Avenue	А
		Nelson Avenue	А
	2000	Nelson Avenue	Α
		Nelson Avenue	А
	2006	Nelson Avenue	А
		Nelson Avenue	А
		Nelson Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Woodmere Avenue	A
		Youngland Avenue	A
	1922	Youngland Avenue	A

Woodmere Heights Subdivision Dixie Highway Corridor

Site # JF-022 (Group form)	Street #	Street	Туре
	1923	Youngland Avenue	А
	1924	Youngland Avenue	А
	1925	Youngland Avenue	A
	1926	Youngland Avenue	A
	1927	Youngland Avenue	А
	1928	Youngland Avenue	A
	1929	Youngland Avenue	A
	1930	Youngland Avenue	A
	2000	Youngland Avenue	A
	2001	Youngland Avenue	A
	2002	Youngland Avenue	A
	2003	Youngland Avenue	A
	2004	Youngland Avenue	A
	2005	Youngland Avenue	A
	2006	Youngland Avenue	A
	2007	Youngland Avenue	A
	2008	Youngland Avenue	A
	2009	Youngland Avenue	A
	2010	Youngland Avenue	A
	2011	Youngland Avenue	A
	2012	Youngland Avenue	А
	2013	Youngland Avenue	А
	2014	Youngland Avenue	А
	2015	Youngland Avenue	А

Type A= Ranch House

Shadylawn (JFEH-03)

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Type A= Cape Cod Type B= Bungalow Type C= American Foursquare Type D= Gunnison Type E= Minimal Traditional						
Type F= Tu	dor Revival					
	utch Colonial					
	U= Undetermined					
Street #	Street	Туре				
1619	Deer Lane	D				
1621	Deer Lane	D				
1623	Deer Lane	A				
1625	Deer Lane	В				
1627	Deer Lane	В				
1629	Deer Lane	В				
1631	Deer Lane	В				
1700	Deer Lane	В				
1701	Deer Lane	E				
1705	Deer Lane	В				
1710	Deer Lane	В				
1714	Deer Lane	В				
1718	Deer Lane	В				
1722	Deer Lane	В				
1723	Deer Lane	В				
1725	Deer Lane	В				
1726	Deer Lane	В				
	Deer Lane	В				
	Deer Lane	A				
	Deer Lane	В				
	Deer Lane	В				
	Deer Lane	G				
	Deer Lane	В				
	Deer Lane	G				
	Deer Lane	В				
	Deer Lane	B				
	Deer Lane	C				
	Deer Lane	B				
	Deer Lane	B				
	Deer Lane	B				
	Deerwood Avenue	E				
	Deerwood Avenue	A				
	Deerwood Avenue	E				
	Deerwood Avenue	B				
	Deerwood Avenue	B				
	Deerwood Avenue	B				
	Deerwood Avenue	anomaly				
1613	Deerwood Avenue	В				

Shadylawn (JFEH-03)

Street #	Street	Туре
	Deerwood Avenue	B
	Deerwood Avenue	A
	Deerwood Avenue	F
	Deerwood Avenue	B
	Deerwood Avenue	C
	Deerwood Avenue	B
	Deerwood Avenue	
	Deerwood Avenue	C B
	Deerwood Avenue	B
	Deerwood Avenue	C
	Deerwood Avenue	B
	Deerwood Avenue	B
	Deerwood Avenue	C
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Deerwood Avenue	F
-	Deerwood Avenue	G
	Deerwood Avenue	C
	Deerwood Avenue	G
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Deerwood Avenue	G
	Deerwood Avenue	В
	Newburg Road	В
	Norris Place	В
	Norris Place	В
	Norris Place	А
	Norris Place	А
	Shady Lane	А
1608	Shady Lane	E
1610	Shady Lane	А
1612	Shady Lane	В
1614	Shady Lane	В
1618	Shady Lane	В
1620	Shady Lane	В
1622	Shady Lane	В
1624	Shady Lane	В

Shadylawn (JFEH-03)

Street #	Street	Туре
1700	Shady Lane	В
1704	Shady Lane	В
1708	Shady Lane	В
1712	Shady Lane	В
1716	Shady Lane	В
1720	Shady Lane	В
1724	Shady Lane	В
1728	Shady Lane	В
1732	Shady Lane	В
1736	Shady Lane	В
1740	Shady Lane	В
1744	Shady Lane	В
1748	Shady Lane	В
1752	Shady Lane	В

Bardstown Road Corridor Shadylawn Subdivision (JFEH-04)

Type A= Cape Cod Type B= Bungalow Type C= American Foursquare U= Undetermined				
Street #	Street	Туре		
1620	Deer Lane	anomaly		
1622	Deer Lane	А		
1624	Deer Lane	A		
1626	Deer Lane	A		
1628	Deer Lane	A		
1630	Deer Lane	A		
1632	Deer Lane	A		
1634	Deer Lane	С		
1636	Deer Lane	С		
1701	Newburg Road	anomaly		
1727	Newburg Road	A		
1729	Newburg Road	В		
1731	Newburg Road	В		
1733	Newburg Road	U		

Type A= Bungalow
Type B= Cape Cod
Type C= Dutch Colonial
Type D= Minimal Traditional
Type E= Tudor Revival
Type F= Colonial Revival
Type G= Ranch
Type H= American Foursquare
Type I= Split-level
Type J= Mission/Spanish Revival
Type K= Front Gable
U= Undetermined

C= Contributing NC= Noncontributing

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-32	2801	Bardstown Road	anomaly; commercial	С
JFSV-33	2811	Bardstown Road	anomaly; commercial	NC
JFSV-34	2815	Bardstown Road	anomaly; commercial	С
JFSV-72	2735	Bardstown Road	anomaly; mod bank	NC
JFSV-97	2727	Bardstown Road	F	С
JFSV-230	2615	Byron Avenue	E	С
JFSV-231	2617	Byron Avenue	F	С
JFSV-232	2619	Byron Avenue	F	С
JFSV-233	2621	Byron Avenue	В	С
JFSV-234	2623	Byron Avenue	В	NC
JFSV-235	2629	Byron Avenue	В	С
JFSV-291	2632	Byron Avenue	В	С
JFSV-236	2633	Byron Avenue	E	С
JFSV-290	2634	Byron Avenue	A	С
JFSV-237	2635	Byron Avenue	В	С
JFSV-289	2636	Byron Avenue	E	С
JFSV-238	2637	Byron Avenue	В	С
JFSV-239	2639	Byron Avenue	D	С
JFSV-240	2641	Byron Avenue	D	С
JFSV-288	2642	Byron Avenue	F	С
JFSV-138	2200	Emerson Avenue	В	С
JFSV-137	2201	Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-139	2202	Emerson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-136	2205	Emerson Avenue	F	С
JFSV-140	2208	Emerson Avenue	D	C
JFSV-141	2210	Emerson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-135	2211	Emerson Avenue	F	C
JFSV-134	2217	Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-133	2221	Emerson Avenue	A	С
JFSV-142	2222	Emerson Avenue	A	С
JFSV-132	2225	Emerson Avenue	A	С
JFSV-143	2226	Emerson Avenue	F	С
JFSV-131	2227	Emerson Avenue	D	С
JFSV-144	2228	Emerson Avenue	D	С

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-145		Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-130		Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-130		Emerson Avenue	В	C
JFSV-125		Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-140		Emerson Avenue	D	C
JFSV-128 JFSV-147				
		Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-127		Emerson Avenue	F	C
JFSV-148		Emerson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-126		Emerson Avenue	C	C
JFSV-149		Emerson Avenue	F	C
JFSV-150		Emerson Avenue	E	NC
JFSV-151		Emerson Avenue	A	С
JFSV-152		Emerson Avenue	D	С
JFSV-125		Emerson Avenue	В	С
JFSV-153	2304	Emerson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-154	2306	Emerson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-155	2308	Emerson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-156	2312	Emerson Avenue	E	C
JFSV-124	2311	Emerson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-123	2315	Emerson Avenue	D	C
JFSV-122	2319	Emerson Avenue	A	С
JFSV-157	2324	Emerson Avenue	В	С
JFSV-158	2326	Emerson Avenue	F	С
JFSV-159	2334	Emerson Avenue	С	С
JFSV-160	2336	Emerson Avenue	С	С
JFSV-161	2338	Emerson Avenue	A	с
JFSV-162	2340	Emerson Avenue	D	с
JFSV-35		Gladstone Avenue	G	с
JFSV-36		Gladstone Avenue	В	с
JFSV-37		Gladstone Avenue	E	c
JFSV-38		Gladstone Avenue	U	C
JFSV-39		Gladstone Avenue	В	C
JFSV-40		Gladstone Avenue	В	NC
JFSV-41		Gladstone Avenue	A	C
JFSV-41		Gladstone Avenue	D	C
JFSV-43		Gladstone Avenue	U	C
JFSV-43 JFSV-44		Gladstone Avenue	D	NC
		Gladstone Avenue	B	
JFSV-45 JFSV-63		Gladstone Avenue	D	C C
				NC
JFSV-46		Gladstone Avenue	D	
JFSV-60		Gladstone Avenue	A	C
JFSV-47		Gladstone Avenue	A	C
JFSV-48		Gladstone Avenue	B	NC
JFSV-49	-	Gladstone Avenue	D	C
JFSV-50		Gladstone Avenue	В	C
JFSV-51	2326	Gladstone Avenue	G	C

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-55	2329	Gladstone Avenue	E	С
JFSV-54		Gladstone Avenue	D	С
JFSV-53		Gladstone Avenue	anomaly; commercial	C
JFSV-52		Gladstone Avenue	G	C
JFSV-56		Gladstone Avenue	E	C
JFSV-57		Gladstone Avenue	E	C C
JFSV-58		Gladstone Avenue	E	C
JFSV-59		Gladstone Avenue	A	C
JFSV-61		Gladstone Avenue	E	C C
JFSV-62		Gladstone Avenue	K	c
JFSV-62 JFSV-64				
		Gladstone Avenue	B	C
JFSV-65		Gladstone Avenue	D	C
JFSV-66		Gladstone Avenue	D	C
JFSV-67		Gladstone Avenue	D	C
JFSV-68		Gladstone Avenue	E	NC
JFSV-69		Gladstone Avenue	E	NC
JFSV-70		Gladstone Avenue	В	С
JFSV-71		Gladstone Avenue	A	С
JFSV-30		Hawthorne Avenue	D	С
JFSV-31	2301	Hawthorne Avenue	A	С
JFSV-284	2207	Lowell Avenue	D	С
JFSV-266	2208	Lowell Avenue	A	С
JFSV-267	2212	Lowell Avenue	С	С
JFSV-268	2216	Lowell Avenue	D	С
JFSV-269	2220	Lowell Avenue	С	С
JFSV-270	2222	Lowell Avenue	С	С
JFSV-271	2224	Lowell Avenue	U	С
JFSV-272	2226	Lowell Avenue	В	NC
JFSV-273	2228	Lowell Avenue	F	С
JFSV-274	2230	Lowell Avenue	В	С
JFSV-275	2253	Lowell Avenue	F	С
JFSV-276	2245	Lowell Avenue	F	С
JFSV-278	2241	Lowell Avenue	Н	С
JFSV-277	2243	Lowell Avenue	D	С
JFSV-279	2239	Lowell Avenue	н	С
JFSV-280		Lowell Avenue	F	С
JFSV-281		Lowell Avenue	С	C
JFSV-282		Lowell Avenue	J	C
JFSV-283		Lowell Avenue	A	C
JFSV-285		Lowell Avenue	A	C
JFSV-286		Lowell Avenue	G	NC
JFSV-287		Lowell Avenue	F	C
JFSV-207		Lowell Avenue	В	C
JFSV-207		Lowell Avenue	E	C
JFSV-208		Lowell Avenue	В	C
				C
JFSV-164	2202	Strathmoor Boulevard	F	C

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-175		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	C
JFSV-175		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
JFSV-165		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	C
JFSV-166		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
			U	C
JFSV-177		Strathmoor Boulevard		
JFSV-178		Strathmoor Boulevard	Н	C
JFSV-179		Strathmoor Boulevard	A	С
JFSV-181		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	С
JFSV-169		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	С
JFSV-183		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	С
JFSV-184		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	C
JFSV-185		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	С
JFSV-186	2317	Strathmoor Boulevard	E	С
JFSV-187	2319	Strathmoor Boulevard	E	С
JFSV-170	2236	Strathmoor Boulevard	E	С
JFSV-189	2337	Strathmoor Boulevard	A	С
JFSV-191	2341	Strathmoor Boulevard	D	NC
JFSV-173	2242	Strathmoor Boulevard	В	С
JFSV-192	2343	Strathmoor Boulevard	E	С
JFSV-193	2346	Strathmoor Boulevard	A	С
JFSV-194	2342	Strathmoor Boulevard	D	С
JFSV-195	2340	Strathmoor Boulevard	E	с
JFSV-190		Strathmoor Boulevard	D	с
JFSV-198		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	с
JFSV-203		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	c
JFSV-204		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	c
JFSV-205		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	c
JFSV-180		Strathmoor Boulevard	A	c
JFSV-180		Strathmoor Boulevard	J	C
JFSV-200		Strathmoor Boulevard	C	C
JFSV-163		Strathmoor Boulevard	G	NC
JFSV-165		Strathmoor Boulevard	F	C
JFSV-169		Strathmoor Boulevard	C	C
JFSV-105		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
JFSV-172		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
JF3V-172 JFSV-174		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
JFSV-188		Strathmoor Boulevard		
JFSV-196			C	C
JFSV-197		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
JFSV-199		Strathmoor Boulevard	E	C
JFSV-201		Strathmoor Boulevard	D	C
JFSV-202		Strathmoor Boulevard	С	C
JFSV-241		Taylorsville Road	B	C
JFSV-242		Taylorsville Road	E	C
JFSV-255		Taylorsville Road	D	NC
JFSV-256	2408	Taylorsville Road	В	С

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-257	2406	Taylorsville Road	F	c
JFSV-258	-	Taylorsville Road	H	C
JFSV-259		Tennyson Avenue	D	NC
JFSV-243		Tennyson Avenue	F	C
JFSV-243		Tennyson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-244		Tennyson Avenue	E	C
JFSV-243		Tennyson Avenue	D	C
JFSV-260 JFSV-246		Tennyson Avenue	E	C
JFSV-240 JFSV-261			F	C
JFSV-261 JFSV-262	-	Tennyson Avenue	H	
		Tennyson Avenue		C
JFSV-247		Tennyson Avenue	A	C
JFSV-263		Tennyson Avenue	B	С
JFSV-248	-	Tennyson Avenue	E	C
JFSV-264		Tennyson Avenue	I	NC
JFSV-249		Tennyson Avenue	D	NC
JFSV-250		Tennyson Avenue	D	U
JFSV-252		Tennyson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-265		Tennyson Avenue	1	NC
JFSV-251	2542	Tennyson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-253	2550	Tennyson Avenue	E	С
JFSV-254	2554	Tennyson Avenue	С	C
JFSV-26	2301	Tyler Lane	В	С
JFSV-27	2303	Tyler Lane	D	С
JFSV-28	2305	Tyler Lane	D	С
JFSV-29	2307	Tyler Lane	D	С
JFSV-1	2308	Tyler Lane	К	С
JFSV-2	2306	Tyler Lane	В	С
JFSV-3	2304	Tyler Lane	D	С
JFSV-4	2300	Tyler Lane	D	С
JFSV-25	2233	Tyler Lane	F	С
JFSV-5	2232	Tyler Lane	E	С
JFSV-24	2231	Tyler Lane	anomaly; multi-fam	С
JFSV-6		Tyler Lane	D	С
JFSV-23		Tyler Lane	F	С
JFSV-7		, Tyler Lane	E	С
JFSV-22		, Tyler Lane	F	С
JFSV-8		, Tyler Lane	E	С
JFSV-21		Tyler Lane	F	С
JFSV-9		Tyler Lane	F	C
JFSV-20		Tyler Lane	B	C
JFSV-10		Tyler Lane	B	c
JFSV-10		Tyler Lane	B	C
JFSV-11		Tyler Lane	E	C
JFSV-12		Tyler Lane	D	C
JFSV-19		Tyler Lane	A	C
JFSV-14		Tyler Lane	F	C
JI JV-14	2214	I YICI LAILE	P	

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-18	2213	Tyler Lane	E	c
JFSV-17		Tyler Lane	F	c
JFSV-16		Tyler Lane	В	c
JFSV-15		Tyler Lane	E	C
JFSV-214		Whittier Avenue	D	C
JFSV-214		Whittier Avenue	A	C
JFSV-213 JFSV-216		Whittier Avenue	G	C
JFSV-210 JFSV-213		Whittier Avenue	D	C
JFSV-213 JFSV-217		Whittier Avenue	B	C
JFSV-217 JFSV-212			F	
		Whittier Avenue		C
JFSV-218		Whittier Avenue	F	C
JFSV-211		Whittier Avenue	F	C
JFSV-219		Whittier Avenue	H	C
JFSV-210		Whittier Avenue	E	С
JFSV-220		Whittier Avenue	A	C
JFSV-221		Whittier Avenue	D	С
JFSV-222	2622	Whittier Avenue	D	С
JFSV-209		Whittier Avenue	В	С
JFSV-223	2616	Whittier Avenue	E	С
JFSV-224	2614	Whittier Avenue	A	С
JFSV-225	2612	Whittier Avenue	В	С
JFSV-226	2610	Whittier Avenue	В	C
JFSV-227	2608	Whittier Avenue	E	C
JFSV-229	2609	Whittier Avenue	В	С
JFSV-228	2606	Whittier Avenue	В	С
JFSV-73	2344	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-74	2328	Winston Avenue	E	С
JFSV-75	2326	Winston Avenue	В	С
JFSV-76	2324	Winston Avenue	В	С
JFSV-77	2322	Winston Avenue	E	С
JFSV-78	2320	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-102	2219	Winston Avenue	С	С
JFSV-79	2318	Winston Avenue	anomaly; empty lot	с
JFSV-101	2217	Winston Avenue	E	с
JFSV-80		Winston Avenue	A	c
JFSV-81		Winston Avenue	A	c
JFSV-82		Winston Avenue	A	C
JFSV-83		Winston Avenue	C	C
JFSV-84		Winston Avenue	E	C
JFSV-85		Winston Avenue	A	C
JFSV-76		Winston Avenue	E	C
JFSV-87		Winston Avenue	D	C
JFSV-87		Winston Avenue	В	NC
JFSV-88 JFSV-89		Winston Avenue	E	C
JFSV-89 JFSV-90		Winston Avenue	E	C
JFSV-91	2226	Winston Avenue	E	C

Survey #	Number	Street	Туре	Status in Proposed District
JFSV-99	2209	Winston Avenue	С	С
JFSV-92	2216	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-93	2214	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-94	2204	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-95	2202	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-96	2200	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-98	2203	Winston Avenue	В	С
JFSV-100	2211	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-103	2223	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-104	2225	Winston Avenue	G	С
JFSV-105	2227	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-106	2229	Winston Avenue	G	С
JFSV-107	2231	Winston Avenue	К	С
JFSV-108	2233	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-109	2235	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-110	2301	Winston Avenue	E	С
JFSV-111	2307	Winston Avenue	В	С
JFSV-112	2309	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-113	2311	Winston Avenue	В	С
JFSV-114	2315	Winston Avenue	F	С
JFSV-115	2317	Winston Avenue	E	С
JFSV-116	2319	Winston Avenue	A	С
JFSV-117	2321	Winston Avenue	C	С
JFSV-118	2323	Winston Avenue	D	С
JFSV-119	2325	Winston Avenue	E	С
JFSV-120	2333	Winston Avenue	В	С
JFSV-121	2345	Winston Avenue	E	С

	Type A= Bungalow					
Type B= C	-					
Type C= Dutch Colonial						
Type D= N	Type D= Minimal Traditional					
	Type E= Ranch					
Type F= T	udor Revival					
U= Undet	ermined					
Street #	Street	Туре				
	Eleanor Avenue	D				
	Eleanor Avenue	A				
	Eleanor Avenue	E				
	Eleanor Avenue	E				
	Eleanor Avenue	D				
	Eleanor Avenue	A				
	Eleanor Avenue	A				
	Eleanor Avenue	A				
	Eleanor Avenue	D				
	Eleanor Avenue	A				
2840	Eleanor Avenue	D				
2842	Eleanor Avenue	D				
2815	Hoock Avenue	В				
2816	Hoock Avenue	A				
2817	Hoock Avenue	С				
2818	Hoock Avenue	U				
2819	Hoock Avenue	В				
2820	Hoock Avenue	A				
2821	Hoock Avenue	F				
2822	Hoock Avenue	E				
	Hoock Avenue	U				
	Hoock Avenue	B				
	Hoock Avenue	D				
	Hoock Avenue	C				
	Hoock Avenue	В				
	Hoock Avenue	B				
	Hoock Avenue	D				
	Hoock Avenue					
		B				
	Hoock Avenue	D				
	Hoock Avenue	B				
	Hoock Avenue	В				
	Hoock Avenue	В				
	Hoock Avenue	В				
	Hoock Avenue	В				
2839	Hoock Avenue	D				
2833	Tremont Avenue	anomaly; orig house				
2034	Tyler Avenue	A				
2036	Tyler Avenue	A				

Hoock (JFEH-01)

Street #	Street	Туре
2038	Tyler Avenue	D
2100	Tyler Avenue	A
2104	Tyler Avenue	В
2106	Tyler Avenue	А
2108	Tyler Avenue	А
2112	Tyler Avenue	В
2813	Whiteway Avenue	В
2815	Whiteway Avenue	В
2817	Whiteway Avenue	D
2819	Whiteway Avenue	В
2821	Whiteway Avenue	В
2823	Whiteway Avenue	В
2825	Whiteway Avenue	В
2827	Whiteway Avenue	D
2829	Whiteway Avenue	В
2831	Whiteway Avenue	D
2833	Whiteway Avenue	В
2835	Whiteway Avenue	D

Type A= Ranch Type B= Massed Plan U= Undetermined			
Street #	Street	Туре	Notes
	Bon Air Avenue	В	Notes
	Bon Air Avenue	B	
	Bon Air Avenue	anomaly	
	Bon Air Avenue	B	
	Bon Air Avenue	A	
	Bon Air Avenue	В	
	Bon Air Avenue	U	Individually eligible
	Bon Air Avenue	B	Individually eligible
	Goldsmith Lane	A	
	Goldsmith Lane	A	
	Goldsmith Lane	A	
	Goldsmith Lane	anomaly	
	Goldsmith Lane	anomaly	original house
	Stratford Avenue	A	
	Stratford Avenue	A	
3211	Stratford Avenue	A	
3213	Stratford Avenue	A	
3215	Stratford Avenue	A	
3217	Stratford Avenue	A	
3219	Stratford Avenue	A	
3221	Stratford Avenue	A	
3223	Stratford Avenue	A	
3225	Stratford Avenue	A	
3229	Stratford Avenue	A	
3233	Stratford Avenue	A	
3205	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
3208	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
3209	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
3210	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
3211	Wellingmoor Avenue	А	
3212	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
3213	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
3215	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	А	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	А	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	A	
	Wellingmoor Avenue	А	
3223	Wellingmoor Avenue	А	

Bardstown Road Corridor Wellingmoor (JFE-01)

Street # Street Notes Туре 3225 Wellingmoor Avenue А 3226 Wellingmoor Avenue A A 3228 Wellingmoor Avenue Α 3232 Wellingmoor Avenue 3233 Wellingmoor Avenue Α 3234 Wellingmoor Avenue Α 3237 Wellingmoor Avenue A

Duccherr	enace, section	1 ()1 -010)	
Type A=	Champion		
Type B=	Coronado		
Type C=	Catalina		
Type D=	Deluxe		
Street #	Street	Туре	
114	Alpha Avenue	U	
115	Alpha Avenue	А	
116	Alpha Avenue	В	
117	Alpha Avenue	В	
118	Alpha Avenue	А	
119	Alpha Avenue	В	
120	Alpha Avenue	В	
121	Alpha Avenue	В	
122	Alpha Avenue	В	
123	Alpha Avenue	В	
124	Alpha Avenue	В	
125	Alpha Avenue	В	
126	Alpha Avenue	В	
128	Alpha Avenue	U	
200	Alpha Avenue	В	
201	Alpha Avenue	А	
202	Alpha Avenue	А	
203	Alpha Avenue	U	
204	Alpha Avenue	А	
205	Alpha Avenue	А	
206	Alpha Avenue	А	
207	Alpha Avenue	A	
208	Alpha Avenue	А	
209	Alpha Avenue	А	
210	Alpha Avenue	А	
211	Alpha Avenue	A	
212	Alpha Avenue	А	
213	Alpha Avenue	А	
214	Alpha Avenue	В	
215	Alpha Avenue	А	
216	Alpha Avenue	А	
217	Alpha Avenue	А	
218	Alpha Avenue	А	
219	Alpha Avenue	A	
220	Alpha Avenue	А	
221	Alpha Avenue	A	
222	Alpha Avenue	A	
223	Alpha Avenue	A	
224	Alpha Avenue	A	
225	Alpha Avenue	В	
226	Alpha Avenue	A	

Buechel Terrace, Section 1 (JF-018)

Street #	Street	Туре
227	Alpha Avenue	В
228	Alpha Avenue	А
229	Alpha Avenue	С
230	Alpha Avenue	U
231	Alpha Avenue	С
232	Alpha Avenue	A
233	Alpha Avenue	U
234	Alpha Avenue	С
235	Alpha Avenue	В
	Alpha Avenue	В
	Alpha Avenue	Α
238	Alpha Avenue	В
239	Alpha Avenue	В
	Alpha Avenue	U
-	Alpha Avenue	В
	Alpha Avenue	В
243	Alpha Avenue	A
	Bardstown Road	N/A
	Bardstown Road	U
	Bardstown Road	U
	Bardstown Road	U
-	Bardstown Road	U
	Bardstown Road	U
	Bonnie Lane	F
	Bonnie Lane	U
	Bonnie Lane	F
	Bonnie Lane	A
	Bonnie Lane	B
	Bonnie Lane	A
	Bonnie Lane	U
	Bonnie Lane	B
	Bonnie Lane Bonnie Lane	C
	Bonnie Lane	A A
	Bonnie Lane	B
	Bonnie Lane	B
	Bonnie Lane	B
-	Bonnie Lane	B
-	Bonnie Lane	A
	Bonnie Lane	В
	Bonnie Lane	A
		I

Buechel Terrace, Section 1 (JF-018)

Street #	Street	Туре
210	Bonnie Lane	В
211	Bonnie Lane	В
212	Bonnie Lane	U
213	Bonnie Lane	В
214	Bonnie Lane	А
215	Bonnie Lane	В
216	Bonnie Lane	В
217	Bonnie Lane	В
218	Bonnie Lane	А
219	Bonnie Lane	В
220	Bonnie Lane	В
221	Bonnie Lane	В
222	Bonnie Lane	А
223	Bonnie Lane	А
224	Bonnie Lane	В
225	Bonnie Lane	В
226	Bonnie Lane	А
227	Bonnie Lane	U
228	Bonnie Lane	А
229	Bonnie Lane	U
230	Bonnie Lane	А
231	Bonnie Lane	A
232	Bonnie Lane	В
233	Bonnie Lane	В
234	Bonnie Lane	D
235	Bonnie Lane	А
236	Bonnie Lane	В
237	Bonnie Lane	В
238	Bonnie Lane	В
239	Bonnie Lane	В
240	Bonnie Lane	В
241	Bonnie Lane	В
242	Bonnie Lane	В
243	Bonnie Lane	В

- -	Characteria		
	Champion		
	Type B= Corondado		
	Type C= Catalina Type E= Front Gable		
Type E=			
	etermined		
		T	
Street #		Туре	
	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	E	
	Carey Avenue		
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue	E	
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue		
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue	anomaly	
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue	U	
	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue		
	Carey Avenue	F	
	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	U	
	Carey Avenue	U	
-	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	U	
	Carey Avenue	В	
-	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	В	
-	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	U	
	Carey Avenue	В	
	Carey Avenue	С	
	Carey Avenue	U	
-	Carey Avenue	anomaly; Iglesia Baptista Cooper Chapel	
233	Carey Avenue	U	
234	Carey Avenue	U	
235	Carey Avenue	С	
236	Carey Avenue	В	

Street #	Stroot	Typo
		Туре
	Carey Avenue	В
	Carey Avenue	U
239	Carey Avenue	В
240	Carey Avenue	В
241	Carey Avenue	В
242	Carey Avenue	В
243	Carey Avenue	В
244	Carey Avenue	C
245	Carey Avenue	В
246	Carey Avenue	U
247	Carey Avenue	U
200	Derby Avenue	С
	Derby Avenue	В
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	C
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	A
	Derby Avenue	В
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	B
-	Derby Avenue	A
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	B
	Derby Avenue	A
	Derby Avenue	A
	Derby Avenue	В
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	U
234	Derby Avenue	A

Street #	Stroot	Tuno
		Туре
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	U
-	Derby Avenue	В
238	Derby Avenue	U
239	Derby Avenue	В
240	Derby Avenue	В
242	Derby Avenue	В
213	Eldorado Avenue	U
215	Eldorado Avenue	В
216	Eldorado Avenue	U
217	Eldorado Avenue	U
218	Eldorado Avenue	U
219	Eldorado Avenue	В
-	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	A
-	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	A
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Flamingo Drive	В
-	Flamingo Drive	U
	Flamingo Drive	В
	Flamingo Drive	В
-	Flamingo Drive	U
	Flamingo Drive	В
225	Flamingo Drive	В
226	Flamingo Drive	Υ
227	Flamingo Drive	В
	Flamingo Drive	В
229	Flamingo Drive	В

Church H	Chura at	T
Street #		Туре
	Flamingo Drive	U
231	Flamingo Drive	В
232	Flamingo Drive	В
233	Flamingo Drive	Υ
	Flamingo Drive	В
	Flamingo Drive	В
	Flamingo Drive	U
	Flamingo Drive	В
	Flamingo Drive	A
	Flamingo Drive	U
	Flamingo Drive	U
	Flamingo Drive	В
179	Granvil Drive	В
181	Granvil Drive	В
183	Granvil Drive	U
185	Granvil Drive	В
187	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	U
		U
	Granvil Drive	
	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	С
	Granvil Drive	В
208	Granvil Drive	U
209	Granvil Drive	В
210	Granvil Drive	C
211	Granvil Drive	В
212	Granvil Drive	U
213	Granvil Drive	В
214	Granvil Drive	С
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
225	Granvil Drive	С
226	Granvil Drive	В

Street #	Street	Туре
227	Granvil Drive	U
228	Granvil Drive	U
229	Granvil Drive	С
230	Granvil Drive	U
232	Granvil Drive	U
233	Granvil Drive	В
234	Granvil Drive	В
236	Granvil Drive	U
238	Granvil Drive	В
240	Granvil Drive	U
242	Granvil Drive	U
244	Granvil Drive	В

	Coronado	
	Catalina	
Type F=	Ranch	
treet #	Street	Туре
241	Derby Avenue	В
243	Derby Avenue	С
244	Derby Avenue	U
245	Derby Avenue	U
246	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	С
	Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	В
	Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	F
	, Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	F
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	C
	Derby Avenue	В
	Derby Avenue	U
	Derby Avenue	C
	Derby Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	C
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	B
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	C
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	C
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U

Buechel Terrace, Section 3 (JF-020)

Street #	Street	Туре
255	Eldorado Avenue	U
256	Eldorado Avenue	U
257	Eldorado Avenue	U
258	Eldorado Avenue	F
259	Eldorado Avenue	U
260	Eldorado Avenue	F
261	Eldorado Avenue	U
262	Eldorado Avenue	F
263	Eldorado Avenue	F
264	Eldorado Avenue	F
265	Eldorado Avenue	U
266	Eldorado Avenue	В
267	Eldorado Avenue	U
268	Eldorado Avenue	С
269	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	В
275	Eldorado Avenue	В
276	Eldorado Avenue	U
277	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	F
279	Eldorado Avenue	U
280	Eldorado Avenue	U
	Eldorado Avenue	В
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	С
	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	С
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	С
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	В
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
258	Granvil Drive	U

Buechel Terrace, Section 3 (JF-020)

Street #	Street	Туре
259	Granvil Drive	С
260	Granvil Drive	U
261	Granvil Drive	U
262	Granvil Drive	U
263	Granvil Drive	U
264	Granvil Drive	U
265	Granvil Drive	В
266	Granvil Drive	U
267	Granvil Drive	U
268	Granvil Drive	С
269	Granvil Drive	F
270	Granvil Drive	U
271	Granvil Drive	F
272	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	F
274	Granvil Drive	F
275	Granvil Drive	F
-	Granvil Drive	F
277	Granvil Drive	U
278	Granvil Drive	U
279	Granvil Drive	C
280	Granvil Drive	U
281	Granvil Drive	U
282	Granvil Drive	U
283	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	C
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	С
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	F
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	F
	Granvil Drive	F
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	F
	Granvil Drive	U
	Granvil Drive	U
307	Granvil Drive	U

Buechel Terrace, Section 3 (JF-020)

Street #	Street	Туре
309	Granvil Drive	F
310	Granvil Drive	F
311	Granvil Drive	F
313	Granvil Drive	F
315	Granvil Drive	F
317	Granvil Drive	F
319	Granvil Drive	F

Appendix A. Shadylawn Group Form

KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES GROUP SURVEY FORM

(KHC 91-2)

COUNTY	Jefferson
GROUP #	JFEH-02
RELATED G	ROUP # JFEH-03 - JFEH-04
INTENSIVE	DOC. /
EVALUATIO	N <u>G</u> /Eligible Group
DESTROYE	

For instructions, see the Kentucky Historic Resources Survey Manual.

1. 2.	ADDRESS/LOCATION: 1619-1952 Deer Ln.,	15. PREDOMINANT STYLES: <u>6/5</u> /Bungalow/Craftsman <u>6/F</u> /American Foursquare
1601-1753 Deerwood Ave., 1601-1607 Newburg Rd., 1600-1624 Norris PI., 1604-1752 Shady Ln. 3. UTM REFERENCE:		16. PREDOMINANT FUNCTIONS: <u>01</u> /A residential/single dwelling <u>01</u> /B residential/multiple dwelling
5.	Quad. Name: Louisville East, KY Date: 1994 Zone: 16 Easting: 16S0612879 Northing: 4231703 Accuracy:/GPS	17. PREDOMINANT CONSTRUCTION METHODS/MATERIALS: <u>W</u> /3 frame, type unknown <u>VV</u> /veneered
4.	OWNER/ADDRESS (Complex Only): Multiple owners	18. CONTRIBUTING FEATURES: <u>16</u> /other, driveways (some Hollywood) <u>16</u> /other, sidewalks
5.	FIELD RECORDER/AFFILIATION: Jennifer Ryall and Janie-Rice Brother/Univ. of KY	16/other, rolled curbs 19. ASSOCIATED INDIVUAL RESOURCES.
6.	DATE RECORDED: 9-1-11, 2-15-12	Attached to group form. No individual site numbers.
7.	SPONSOR: Louisville Metro/HUD	20. MAP. See Continuation Sheet
8.	INITIATION: <u>6</u> /Other	21. Photos. See Continuation Sheet
9.	OTHER DOCUMENTATION/RECOGNITION: Survey HABS/HAER KY Land Local Land NR R & C NHL Other:	
10.	GROUP TYPE: <u>0/6</u> /residential neighborhoodhistoric <u>0/6</u> /residential neighborhoodcurrent	
11.	APPROXIMATE SIZE: <u>3</u> /6-25 acres (~20)	
12.	LAYOUT: <u>3</u> /curvilinear	
13.	DATE RANGE: <u>4</u> /1900-1924 <u>3</u> /1925-1949 /	
14.	PREDOMINANT PLANS: <u>Q</u> /Bungalow <u>I</u> /Cape Cod <u>S</u> /Foursquare (four-plex)	

COUNTY	Jefferson		
RESOURCE #			
GROUP # <u>JFEH-02</u>			
IDENTIFICATION			
INTENSIVE			
CATEGORY #s			
PAGE <u>1</u> OF	1 PAGES		

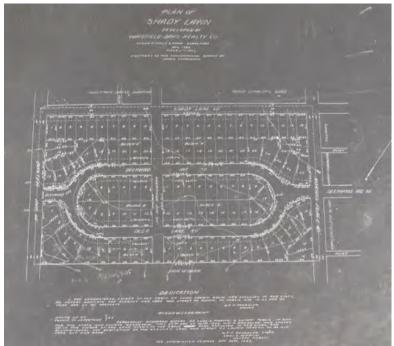
KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES CONTINUATION SHEET (KHC 91-4)

20. Map (of Shadylawn and Shadylawn Subdivision, located on LOJIC):



Shadylawn (JFEH-03) and Shadylawn Subdivision (JFEH-04), located on LOJIC

Plat Map:



Plan of Shadylawn, 1922

¹ "LOJIC Online Map." Louisville Jefferson County Information Consortium (LOJIC), accessed August 9, 2012, http://ags2.lojic.org/lojiconline/.

KENTUCKY HERITAGE COUNCIL*FRANKFORT, KY 40601* (502) 564-7005

COUNTY _____ Jefferson RESOURCE #____ GROUP # JFEH-02 IDENTIFICATION _____ INTENSIVE ____ CATEGORY #s__ PAGE ___ OF _1__ PAGES

KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES <u>CONTINUATION SHEET</u> (KHC 91-4)

21. Photos (representative examples):



Type A: 1603 Deerwood (above-left) and 1622 Deer Lane (above-right)



Type B: 1631 Deer Lane (above-left) and 1731 Newburg Road (above-right)

COUNTY _____ Jefferson RESOURCE #____ GROUP # JFEH-02 IDENTIFICATION _____ INTENSIVE _____ CATEGORY #s___ PAGE ___ OF ___ PAGES

KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES <u>CONTINUATION SHEET</u> (KHC 91-4)



Type C: 1712 Deerwood (above-left) and 1636 Deer Lane (above-right)



Type D: 1621 Deer Lane

COUNTY ______ Jefferson RESOURCE #____ GROUP # JFEH-02 IDENTIFICATION _____ INTENSIVE ____ CATEGORY #s___ PAGE _1_ OF _1__ PAGES

KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES <u>CONTINUATION SHEET</u> (KHC 91-4)



Type E: 1605 Deerwood



Type F: 1733 Deerwood

COUNTY _____ Jefferson RESOURCE #____ GROUP # JFEH-02 IDENTIFICATION _____ INTENSIVE ____ CATEGORY #s__ PAGE ___ OF ___ PAGES

KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES <u>CONTINUATION SHEET</u> (KHC 91-4)



Type G: 1734 Deer

Historical Information:

Shadylawn is a subdivision which was officially platted in August 1922, developed by William F. Randolph's Wakefield-Davis Realty Company, and surveyed by Stonestreet & Ford. The subdivision is located three-four blocks southwest of Bardstown Road. The southwestern boundary of Shadylawn is Newburg Road/Baxter Avenue and the northeastern boundary is Norris Place. The subdivision has a curvilinear (ovoid) plan focused on two main streets – Deer Lane (north) and Deerwood Avenue (south). These streets enter as a single street, curve out into two, and then merge back into a single street at the opposite end. Approximately bisecting the subdivision vertically is Hartman Avenue.

The plat of Shadylawn was divided into blocks A-F. Most parcels were about 50 feet wide and 118 feet deep with a 25 foot setback or building limit. No easements were indicated along rear or side property lines. These were obviously much more modestly-sized parcels than we would later find in 1960s era subdivisions such as Woodmere Heights. Parcel #19, situated in the curve formed by the two diverging roads, was by far the largest. It would have been the most dramatic parcel, occurring straight ahead as one entered the subdivision from the Norris Place side. This would have been the side closest to Bardstown Road as well and was probably always the most important entrance. Closest to the entrances, parcels had irregularly-curving front parcel lines and, thus, relatively wider front yards. Dwellings on the northern side of Deer Lane are built on low hills. Many of these have basement garages built into the grade with poured concrete retaining walls and driveways connecting from the street. On the southern sides of these streets the topography is fairly level.

At the southwestern corner of Shadylawn is a 14-lot section named "Shadylawn Subdivision" which appears to have developed along with the rest of Shadylawn. On the original plat of Shadylawn, this section (Block "C") had only 10 larger parcels, but was later re-surveyed and re-platted with its current 14 smaller parcels. Its heaviest period of development appears to be the 1940s. Although Shadylawn Subdivision is composed of Cape Cod (Type A), Bungalow (Type B), and Foursquare (Type C) dwellings, Cape Cod houses make up the largest proportion (50%). There is also one ranch house, one Minimal Traditional house, and one house of undetermined type. These are considered anomalies. The Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod, with its front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof is the most common variant of the Cape Cod found here. Another variation expressed in this subdivision is a Tudor Revival style Cape Cod with a steeply-pitched, gable roof projecting entrance bay. An unusual variation found in this subdivision that has a lesser impact on the plan of the house is a Cape Cod with an original oriel window projecting from its façade. Shadylawn Subdivision retains one unusually high style Tudor Revival house at 1727 Newburg Road.

COUNTY Jefferson	
RESOURCE #	KENTUCKY HISTORIC RESOURCES
GROUP # <u>JFEH-02</u>	CONTINUATION SHEET
IDENTIFICATION	(KHC 91-4)
CATEGORY #s	
PAGE OF PAGES	

Shadylawn retains all of its original parcels; there were 96 parcels platted and there are 99 buildings today in Shadylawn. The three extra parcels can be explained by original large Parcel #19 having been divided into three separate parcels. Each of these parcels holds an original Foursquare four-plex apartment building which is likely separately owned today.

There were 99 total dwellings surveyed within Shadylawn including Cape Cod (Type A), Bungalow (Type B), Foursquare (Type C), Gunnison Homes (Type D), Minimal Traditional (Type E), Tudor Revival (Type F), and Dutch Colonial (Type G). There was also one ranch house and one house of undetermined type. These were considered anomalies. There were more bungalows by far than any other type of dwelling in Shadylawn (71%) and there were very few Tudor Revival and Gunnison Homes (only 2% of each). The Minimal Traditional-influenced Cape Cod, with its front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof is found here. Bungalows in the Shadylawn Subdivision exhibit more variations than in other areas. For instance, there are Minimal Traditional-influenced bungalows with front-projecting wings (some with clipped gables) as well as bungalows that exhibit Tudor Revival style features.

Interestingly, most of the Foursquare dwellings in Shadylawn are four-plex multi-family dwellings and were apparently built to serve this function originally. These dwellings tend to have Colonial Revival or Craftsman decorative features including Craftsman style double doors, sidelights, balconies with curved iron railings, oriel windows, and composite tile roofs as well as Colonial Revival or Neoclassical sidelights, columns, dentils, and broken pediments. These four-plexes typically have two front doors, one providing access to the units on the second story.

Recommendations and Assessment of Significance:

Shadylawn (and Shadylawn Subdivision) is considered eligible for listing as a district in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Criterion A for its contributions to the broad pattern of suburban development at Louisville's metropolitan fringe in the early automobile age. Shadylawn is also considered eligible for listing as a district under Criterion B for the contributions of its developers, the Wakefield-Davis Realty Company. Wakefield-Davis is quite significant for its contributions to curvilinear subdivision design and planning. This company developed at least four other subdivisions in the Louisville area and an early subdivision called Cherokee Park in Nashville, Tennessee, which was also designed with curving streets.

Shadylawn retains strong integrity of **association**, **feeling**, **location**, and **setting**. Shadylawn retains all of its original parcels as well as its original plan with a single entrance street at each end, curving into two parallel streets. Dwellings retain original setbacks, sidewalks, rolled curbs, driveways (including some Hollywood type), and attached or detached garages. Most of the older dwellings retain basement garages. Investigating integrity of **design** by taking interior measurements and comparing these with typical plans of the time was beyond the scope of work for this project. **Integrity of materials** is most commonly compromised by replacement windows or by front or rear porch screening or enclosure. Cladding changes, which have not affected the basic form of the house, are common in Shadylawn; these include aluminum, permastone, or vinyl siding. Siding changes are considered removable and, providing that nothing is removed beneath the siding, integrity of materials has not been compromised. Probably the largest unsympathetic alteration is that most original Craftsman style, wooden paneled, multi-light double garage doors have been replaced with modern, metal overhead garage doors. In Shadylawn Subdivision, integrity of materials and integrity of design have been compromised to some degree by several houses with major unsympathetic alterations such as large shed roof dormer additions raising the house a second story. Homes in Shadylawn have a medium level of integrity of **workmanship**. Most retain character-defining features such as porches, hoods, exposed rafter tails, sidelights, dormers, and decorative brackets. Clipped gable roofs are common on the earlier dwellings. Many retain original front doors.

I. Plat Map



II. Boundary Description

The boundary for Shadylawn begins at a point at the southeastern corner of the 1624 Norris Place parcel and continues northwest along the northeastern parcel lines of the 1624-1622 Norris Place parcels, crossing Deerwood Avenue, and continuing northeast along the northeastern parcel lines of 1753 Deerwood, 1602-1600 Norris Place, and 1752 Shady Lane to a point at the northern corner of the 1752 Shady Lane parcel. From here, the boundary turns southwest, continuing along the northwestern property lines of 1752-1700 Shady Lane, crossing Hartman Avenue, and continuing southwest along the northwestern property lines of 1624-1604 Shady Lane and 1601 Newburg Road to a point at the western corner of the 1601 Newburg parcel. From here, the boundary turns southeast along the southwestern property lines of 1601-1607 Newburg and 1601 Deerwood, crossing Deerwood to a point at the northwestern corner of 1701 Deerwood. From here, the boundary curves around the northwestern property lines of 1701 Deerwood and 1620-1636 Deer Lane, not including the portion within the subdivision boundary called "Shadylawn Subdivision" on the original plat, to a point at the northern corner of 1636 Deer Lane. From here, the boundary turns briefly southeast along the northeastern boundary of 1636 Deer Lane to a point at its southeastern corner. From here, the boundary turns northeast, crossing Hartman Avenue, and continuing along the southeastern property lines of 1700-1738 Deer Lane and 1624 Norris Place before returning to the starting point.

III. House Types

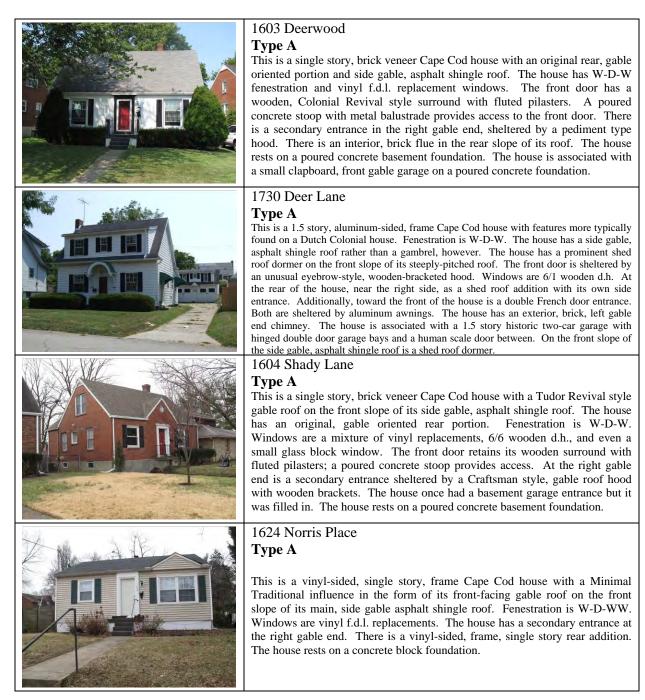
(99 total houses; 8 Type A, 70 Type B, 6 Type C, 2 Type D, 4 Type E, 2 Type F, 5 Type G, 1 Anomaly – Ranch, 1 Unknown)



Shadylawn – JFEH-03

Type E: Minimal Traditional A Minimal Traditional house, as defined by the McAlesters, has a front-facing gable roof and, usually, a wide chimney. The term Minimal Traditional is becoming more widely used to describe a plan, but is probably still more typically used to describe a style. For the purposes of this study, the Minimal Traditional house is differentiated from the Minimal Traditional-influenced house by its front-projecting façade bay or wing; those houses considered Minimal Traditional-influenced houses have only a front-facing gable roof on the front slope of the main roof but have no associated projecting bay or wing. Shadylawn Subdivision is 4% Type E.
Type F: Tudor Revival The Tudor Revival house is defined mainly by its steeply-pitched, gable oriented rooflines. Most often, there are more than one of these and one is separated into a projecting bay containing the front entrance. Sometimes one of the roof slopes will extend down and across the façade. Arched window, porch, and door openings are typical. A tapering façade chimney with a large base as well as ornamental stone work is often present. Shadylawn Subdivision is 2% Type F.
Type G: Dutch Colonial The Dutch Colonial house is defined mainly by its gambrel roof and Colonial Revival style features. These houses are typically two full stories and may have dormers on the front and rear slope of their roofs. Most have central front entrances. There may be an attached, original, sunroom at one end of the house. Shadylawn Subdivision is 5% Type G.

IV. Examples of Individual Resources





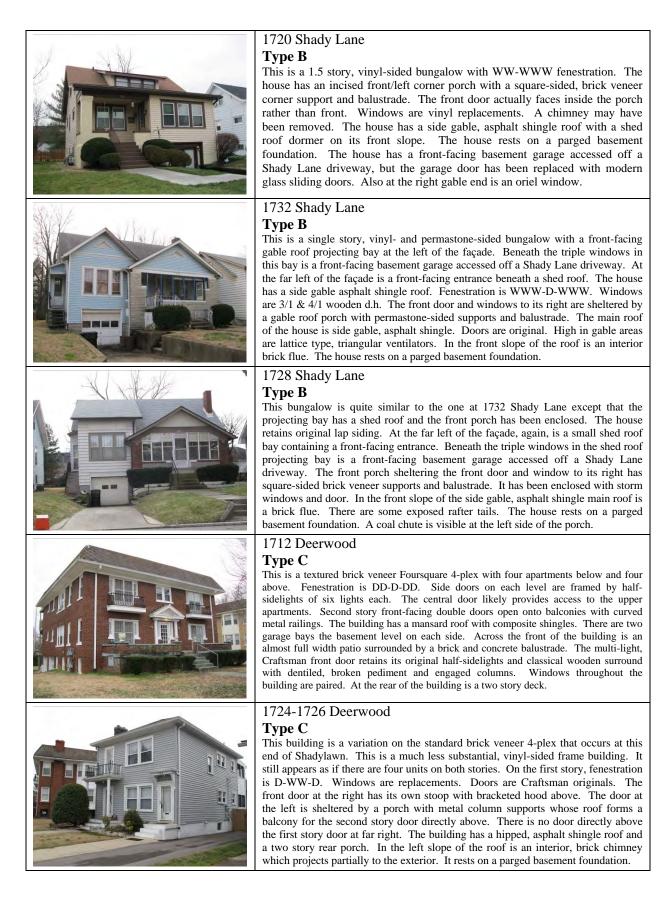
This is a 1.5 story, frame bungalow retaining its original weatherboards. Fenestration is WWW-D-WWW. Beneath the house, at the end of the driveway from Deer Lane, is a basement garage entrance. Steps up the hill provide access to the front door. Windows are 6/1 wooden d.h. The front door is an original full light Craftsman type with 10-light sidelights. A clipped gable front porch with exposed rafter tails and paired, square-sided, wooden Doric style supports shelters the front door. On the front slope of the roof are two small, clipped gable dormers with paired windows. At the right gable end is an exterior, brick chimney piercing the eave overhang as well as a shed roof oriel window with exposed rafter tails. At the rear of the house is a shed roof surroom addition over a basement one-car garage accessed from a short drive off Hartman Avenue.

This is a 1.5 story, blond brick veneer bungalow with WW-D-WW fenestration. Windows are 4/1 wooden d.h. The front door is original with Craftsman sidelights. There is a small, front-facing basement garage accessed from a driveway off Deer Lane. A gable roof porch with central wooden knee bracket and brick, squaresided supports and balustrade shelters the front door and windows to its right. On the front slope of the side gable, asphalt shingle roof is a vinyl-sided, gable roof dormer with several wooden knee brackets and a ribbon of three windows. An interior, brick flue pierces the front slope of the roof. At the right gable end is a shed roof oriel window. The house has what appears to be an original, shed roof rear porch. The house rests on a poured concrete basement foundation.

This is a 1.5 story Southern bungalow with WWW-D-WWW fenestration. The archedtop, original front door and tripartite window to its left are sheltered by a gable roof porch with battered, stuccoed supports and balustrade. The front door retains a simple wooden surround. Windows on either side are composed of a standard window framed by two narrow, smaller fixed Craftsman windows. Windows are 4/1 and 2/2 Craftsman style. The house has exposed rafter tails at the eave ends and a wide, wooden kneebracketed eave overhang at the front. High in the gable area of the façade is a paired window. The house also has a front-facing basement garage accessed by a driveway off Deer Lane with two original half-light, half-paneled doors. In the left slope of the front gable, asphalt shingle roof is an interior brick chimney. Toward the rear of the right side is a bay window. The house rests on a continuous parged basement foundation.

This is a brick veneer bungalow with WW-D-WW fenestration. Windows are 1/1 vinyl replacements. The house has a main, clipped gable asphalt shingle roof with a shed roof dormer with exposed rafter tails at the right side of the front slope and a front-facing gable roof at the left side of the front slope. Both dormers are vinyl sided. The front door and paired window to its left are sheltered by a shed roof porch with square-sided, brick veneer supports and balustrade. The house also has a front-facing basement garage accessed from a driveway off Deerwood Avenue. On the roof ridge is a brick veneer, interior flue. A coal chute is visible at the left side of the house. The house rests on a continuous poured concrete basement foundation.

This is a 1.5 story, vinyl-sided, frame bungalow with clipped gable, asphalt shingle main roof and a front-facing, projecting, clipped gable bay at the left of the façade. Fenestration is WWW-D. Windows are replacements. The multi-light front door may be original, however, and retains sidelights. At the right gable end is a shed roof oriel window. The front door is sheltered by a shed roof porch with an arched roof portion at the center and with brick veneer, square-sided supports and balustrade. The house has an interior, brick chimney which pierces the front slope of the main roof and extends partially to the exterior at the right gable end. The house has a front-facing basement garage accessed by a driveway off Deerwood Avenue.



Shadylawn – JFEH-03



Shadylawn – JFEH-03



Appendix B. Colorado Post-World War II Subdivision Form

	P Form May 2010	Official eligibility determination (OAHP use only) Date Initials
	Colorado Cultural Resource Survey Form 1403b: Post-World War II esidential Suburban Subdivision Form (1945-1975)	Determined Eligible- NR Individual District Determined Not Eligible- NR Determined Eligible- SR Individual District Determined Not Eligible- SR Needs Data (specify):
pos limi lan res hist of c	is form should be used to record and assess the st-World War II residential subdivisions. Such ited architectural styles/ building types, relatived use developments are far more likely to be ources. This form has been designed to facilit toric resources approaching and/or having ach development for these resources is usually 194	he potential National Register Historic District eligibility of subdivisions with large numbers of similar resources, vely short periods of development, and design as major eligible as historic districts rather than individually eligible tate the documentation of a preponderance of residential ieved the 50 years of age benchmark. The primary period 5 to 1975. gister Bulletin <i>Historic Residential Suburbs: Guidelines for</i>
	aluation and Documentation for the National Re	egister of Historic Places.
1.	DENTIFICATION Resource number:	
2.	Temporary resource number:	
3.	County:	
4.	City:	
5.	Subdivision name:	
6.	Addition(s) or Filings(s) within surveyed subd	livision:
	Name(s) / Years(s):	
7.	Main streets/ features which form boundaries	s of subdivision:
	GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION P.M Township Range	
	¼ of ¼ of ¼	of section
	¼ of ¼ of ¼	of section
	¼ of ¼ of ¼	of section
9,	UTM references	
	DNAD27 DNAD83	
	ZonemEmE	mN
	ZonemEmE	mN
	Zone;mE	mN
	ZonemE	mN
10,	USGS quad name: Attach photocopy of appropriate map section	Year:
	Total acreage of surveyed subdivision:	

III. ARCHITECTURAL DESCRIPTION

Model Name or Label	Architectural Style/ Building Type	Description	Addresses within Surveyed Subdivision	Sample Photographs

13. Landscaping, streetscape, and setting features for subdivision:

- IV. ARCHITECTURAL HISTORY
- 14. Date(s) of construction/subdivision development: Source of information:
- 15. Architect(s):

Source of information:

16. Builder(s)/Contractor(s):

Source of information:

- 17 Landscape Architect(s):
- Source of information:
- V. HISTORIC CONTEXT
- 18. Demographics of original owners:
- 19. Development context in which subdivision platted:
- 20. Construction history:
- 21. Typical modifications or alterations to buildings, landscape, and streetscape:
- 22. Sources:

VI. CURRENT STATUS

- 23. Known threats to the subdivision:
- 24. Total number of resources in surveyed subdivision:
- VII. SIGNIFICANCE AND ELIGIBILITY ASSESSMENT
- 25. Local landmark designation: Yes ____ No ____ Date of designation: _____ Designating authority:

26. Individual Resources - National Register Field Eligible

Designation Program	Eligibility Criteria		Period of Significance	Geographic Level of Significance	Integrīty
 		-			

2

27 National Register Historic District - Field Eligible

Eligible ____ (Complete table below and attach map) Not Eligible ____

-			1.	-	2
D	IS	С	u	s	5

Eligibility Criteria	Resource Address	Model Name or Label	Contributing/ Noncontributing	Photograph
			-	

- VIII. RECORDING INFORMATION
- 28. Photograph numbers:
- 29. Report title:
- 30. Date(s):
- 31 Recorder(s):
- 32 Organization:
- 33. Address:

3

34. Phone number(s)/email:

NOTE: Please include a photocopy of the USGS quad map indicating subdivision location; a sketch map showing all surveyed resources within the subdivision; and a photograph of each building, structure, and object in the surveyed subdivision.

History Colorado - Office of Archaeology & Historic Preservation 1200 Broadway-Denver, CO-80203 (303) 866-3395

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