

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

**National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form**

This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

☒ New Submission ☐ Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

New Deal-era Resources of Kansas

B. Associated Historic Contexts

The KERC and the New Deal in Kansas

C. Form Prepared by

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D. Certification

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

Signature and title of certifying official

Date

Richard D. Paukatz

6-10-02

State or Federal agency and bureau

Kansas State Historical Society

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

Signature of the Keeper

Date

Edson H. Beall

6.12.02

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Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

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

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THE KERC AND THE NEW DEAL IN KANSAS

The collapse of the American economy in 1929 caused the failure of thousands of banks and businesses and plunged millions of Americans into unemployment. The desperate times called for desperate measures as public and private entities scrambled to provide relief to those in despair. During the early years of the Depression the Hoover Administration provided some direct assistance through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, but the primary relief efforts occurred at the local level as county relief administrations and private organizations stretched their limited resources to help those in need. Following his election as President in 1932, Franklin Roosevelt ushered in a new era of hope. The alphabet soup of New Deal programs provided the nation with millions of dollars for public improvement projects and job creation. In accordance with the federal initiatives, state governments established agencies to identify and select worthy projects and to manage the work relief rolls. In Kansas the Kansas Federal Relief Committee, later called the Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, fulfilled this function.

America and the Great Depression

After the stock market crash of 1929, Americans found themselves facing some of the worst economic conditions in the country's history. Unemployment, business and bank failures posed a triple threat to the populace. In the six months following the crash, unemployment rose from 1.5 million to 3.2 million.¹ That figure reached 7.5 million at the end of 1930 and by 1932, 12 million individuals were out of work. Business closures nationwide amounted to 26,350 in 1930 and 28,825 in 1931. Simultaneously, between the crash and the end of 1930 (a 14-month period) more than 1,350 banks closed their doors, representing a loss of \$853 million in deposits. The failure of 2,294 banks the following year represented an additional loss of \$1.7 billion in deposits.

During this period, President Herbert Hoover offered the country little relief from the Great Depression. He was reluctant to provide direct aid to individuals for fear they would become dependent on government assistance. Finally, in December 1931 Hoover organized the National Credit Corporation to deal with the banking crisis, and the following February Hoover directed Congress to pass the Reconstruction Finance Corporation Act. The latter created the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC), which provided loans to banks, buildings and loan associations, and other private lending institutions to help them survive the worsening economic conditions. Both of these acts were intended to be temporary measures that would stimulate private investment in the economy through small injections of government funds. While the RFC was able to stop most bank failures, it was criticized for favoring the nation's largest banks.

¹This context, unless where noted otherwise, is derived from the National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form "Federal Relief Construction in South Dakota, 1929-1941" prepared by Michelle L. Dennis, September 1998.

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In response to this criticism, Congress, with Hoover's support, passed the Emergency Relief and Construction Act (ERCA), which allowed the RFC to increase its indebtedness. The ERCA provided \$300 million in relief loans to state and local agencies, as well as \$1.5 billion for public works construction, which included funds for toll roads and bridges, sewage and water systems, and hydroelectric projects. Demand for RFC loans and public works funding was overwhelming. Although the program was not initiated until 1933, by March of that year it had approved 92 applications for \$197 million in loans (although only \$20 million had been disbursed) and \$300 million for public works projects.

In contrast to Hoover, when Franklin D. Roosevelt became president in 1933 he launched an ambitious campaign to put the American economy on sound financial footing and to provide relief and employment for those who lost jobs during the Great Depression. Many of the unemployed went to work for various federal agencies constructing libraries, schools, auditoriums, parks, waterworks, dams and other public projects, which dotted the American landscape.

Public Assistance in Kansas Prior to the Depression

Prior to the Depression, different combinations of private and public funding provided assistance to the poor in Kansas. Managed at the county level, the system was inefficient and varied county to county. In rural Kansas counties, the county clerk administered relief efforts. Some areas employed a Commissioner of the Poor to oversee relief efforts, while others delegated relief work to private organizations like the American Red Cross. Between 1924 and 1933, revenue obtained through property tax assessments, supplemented by donations and assistance from private organizations, provided the funds to aid the poor. Historian Peter Fearon concluded his study of Kansas poor relief in the 1920s by observing, "the public relief system in Kansas was cumbersome, complex, and uncoordinated."²

The Depression Strikes Kansas

Largely dependent upon agricultural production, the Kansas economy was severely hurt by the economic depression that followed the Crash of 1929 and by the subsequent drought of the 1930s. During a recession in the early 1920s, farm prices plummeted below the national average. By 1925, prices had improved, but after 1929 they took another drop.³ Farm prices held steady throughout the early 1930s but drought gripped the state by 1933, creating problems for both rural and urban Kansans.⁴

²Peter Fearon, "Kansas Poor Relief: The Influence of the Great Depression," Mid-America: An Historical Review, 78 (Summer 1996): 139-179.

³Robert W. Richmond, Kansas: A Land of Contrasts, 4th ed., (Wheeling, IL: Harlan Davidson, Inc., 1999): 247.

⁴(Robert W. Richmond, Kansas: A Land of Contrasts, 3rd ed., Arlington Heights, IL: Forum Press, Inc., 1989) p. 256.

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The Depression and the Dust Bowl were both products of the ambitious society that produced them.⁵ Europe's demand for American agricultural products after World War I encouraged the inclination of farmers to cultivate from fence row to fence row. As the expansionary energy of the United States encountered the cyclical drought ecology of the windy Great Plains, ambitious farming practices destroyed the tenuous balance of life among humans, animals and plants. The poor understanding of farming on the Great Plains exacerbated natural drought conditions, bringing about dark blowing blizzards of dust. For years, blowing dust had been a constant problem, but in the 30s dust storms increased in intensity and frequency. In 1934, dust blew all the way to New York, Washington and Boston, darkening city skies before it rolled out over the Atlantic Ocean.⁶ Dust storms lasted throughout the rest of the decade, and the suffering and loss of farmers brought national attention to those being driven off the land and into poverty as their crops failed.⁷ In Kansas dust ruled the western part of the state as the Great Depression worsened and farmers as well as urban workers faced hard economic times.

In addition to the problems Kansas experienced in its agricultural sector, the state also faced the unemployment, bank closures and business failures that gripped the rest of the nation. This economic downturn was felt at the county level where relief was administered. As a result of the Depression, individuals could not afford to pay personal property taxes, which funded the county relief efforts. In the early 1930s, Kansas lowered the personal property tax rate, further reducing the money available to fund relief programs. By 1932, the state, specifically the counties, needed financial assistance in order to carry out relief efforts. An estimated 235,100 Kansans were unemployed in March 1933.⁸

Kansas Responds to Hard Times—Kansas Federal Relief Committee

The Kansas State government was not slow to respond. On July 23, 1932, two days after President Hoover signed the Emergency Relief and Construction Act, Governor Harry H. Woodring appointed the Kansas Federal Relief Committee (KFRC) to oversee state relief efforts and to distribute funds made available to the state under Hoover's act.⁹ In a ten-year retrospective report, the Committee recalled the start of federal relief in Kansas. "The RFC allotted a total of \$450,000 in loans to the State of Kansas for the period October 16, 1932 to November 16, 1932. On October 16 the Kansas Federal Relief

⁵ Donald Worster, *Dust Bowl, The Southern Plains in the 1930s*, (Lawrence, KS: University Press of Kansas, 1979), 5.

⁶ R. Douglas Hurt, *The Dust Bowl: An Agricultural and Social History*, (Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall, 1981), 34.

⁷ Kansas was in the heart of the most severe wind erosion nationally although the western third of the state was most affected. Conditions in the southwestern most counties were the worst of all the Dust Bowl states.

⁸ Fearon, "Kansas Poor Relief," 154.

⁹ Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, *Public Welfare in Kansas: 1934*, KERC Bulletin No. 289, (Wichita, KS: McCormick-Armstrong Company), 8. Also see Fearon, "Kansas Poor Relief," 161.

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Committee mailed out more than \$58,356.59 to 55 counties, to be used for work relief wages on approved projects.”¹⁰

The KFRC divided the state into 11 districts, each supervised by a committeeman. The KFRC then asked each county to create a three-person County Federal Relief Committee (CFRC) to be responsible for distributing the aid and making applications to the state KFRC for the federal money in the districts they represented. The RFC money, which came in the form of loans, could only be used to supplement, not to replace, local, state and private contributions. Moreover, the loans had to finance day labor, which could not exceed 30 hours a week per person.¹¹

While the majority of the funds allocated under the ERCA were loans, \$322,224,000 was authorized nationwide for “emergency construction of certain authorized public works.” The “authorized works” included the Nurses’ Quarters at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, which received \$60,000.¹² It is unclear if the dollars appropriated funded any additional “authorized” projects in Kansas.

Nationwide Federal Relief

Franklin D. Roosevelt’s election to the presidency in 1932 signaled a shift in federal policy from the indirect aid of Hoover’s loans to the direct granting of money to states under programs initiated by the president. Roosevelt’s first 100 days in office launched an assault on the Great Depression, and the President immediately supported proposals that brought relief first to America’s banking system and second to the unemployed.¹³ At the end of Roosevelt’s 100 days, the programs that formed the core of Roosevelt’s “alphabet soup” were in place. These included the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA), the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA), and the Public Works Administration (PWA).

Two days after taking office Roosevelt’s first act was to declare a four-day “bank holiday” beginning March 6, 1933. Three days later Congress passed the Emergency Banking Act of 1933, and within a week banks were beginning to reopen. On March 21, Roosevelt called on Congress to create the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) to put young men to work. Two months later on May 13, 1933, just over two months after taking office, FDR signed the legislation creating the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA). FERA was a management agency developed to oversee the disbursement of federally appropriated relief funds, beginning with those of Hoover’s Reconstruction Finance

¹⁰Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas A Ten Year Report, 1924-1933, KERC bulletin No. 127, (Topeka, KS: n. p.), 11.

¹¹Fearon, 161-162.

¹²Frederick E. Hosen, ed., The Great Depression and the New Deal: Legislative Acts in Their Entirety (1932-1933) and Statistical Economic Data, (1926-1946), (Jefferson, North Carolina: McFarland and Company, Inc., 1992), 16, 28.

¹³Please refer to Table 1 at the end of the Section E for a complete presentation of New Deal agencies, dates of operation, funding vehicles and management agencies.

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Corporation. In contrast with Hoover's relief efforts, the FERA sent federal monies, not loans, to the states where state agencies decided how to best use the funds for public relief.¹⁴ In Kansas, the KFRC (later the KERC) served as the state relief body that received FERA funds, which it forwarded to the counties to provide needed relief and employment.

In June 1933, Congress approved the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA), a funding vehicle managed by FERA. The NIRA created the National Recovery Administration and, more importantly, the Public Works Administration (PWA), which would oversee the construction of thousands of public buildings in communities all across America. Five months later, Congress established and funded the Civil Works Administration (CWA) under NIRA.¹⁵

December 31, 1935 marked the end of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and the coordination of work relief fell to the Work Progress Administration (WPA), which was created by Executive Order No. 7034 on May 6, 1935. The WPA was reorganized in 1939, renamed the Works Projects Administration, and placed under a newly created Federal Works Agency.¹⁶ The WPA provided relief to Americans until 1943 and like its predecessors, the CCC, the CWA, and the PWA, funneled federal money to the states. However, unlike its predecessors, the WPA maintained administrative offices in each state that oversaw the distribution of aid to local communities. These offices replaced the local Emergency Relief Administration offices created under FERA, and in Kansas the role of the KERC diminished proportionately.

Civilian Conservation Corps¹⁷

The CCC, the first of Roosevelt's job programs, was established by the Civilian Conservation Corps Reforestation Relief Act of March 31, 1933.¹⁸ Created to employ young men between the ages of 17 and 23, it remained a federal agency until June 30, 1943. Existing federal agencies oversaw the program's operation. Candidates applied to and were selected by the Department of Labor. The Department of War provided medical exams, assigned participants to companies, and clothed and equipped them. The departments of Interior and Agriculture supervised work projects on federal lands. Projects on state and private lands, as well as those in national forests, fell under the direction of the Forest Service.

¹⁴James S. Olson, ed., *Historical Dictionary of the New Deal*, (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1985), 177.

¹⁵Nancy E. Rose, *Put to Work: Relief Programs of the Great Depression*, (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1994), 26, 46.

¹⁶Olson, 549-550.

¹⁷ The National Archives classifies early CCC efforts as those of Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) agency. The CCC became an independent agency in June of 1937, although the ECW had been called the civilian conservation from nearly its start in 1933.

¹⁸Olson., 81-82.

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To qualify for the program, a young man had to be an American citizen, unmarried, and unemployed. The rules were later expanded to accept married Native Americans, “local experienced men” or LEMs to act as supervisors for the Forest Service, and World War I veterans. The men worked 40 hours per week for \$30 in pay per month, half of which was sent home to their families. Nationwide, the CCC established approximately 1,500 camps, with locations in every state, 150 camps devoted to African American young men and camps for Native Americans in 23 states. Participants were assigned to a camp for a minimum of six months and a maximum of two years. Most CCC companies were involved with the conservation of natural resources. Some built dams and drainage projects, while others planted trees, fought forest fires, or constructed park lakes, ponds, trails, roads and bridges.¹⁹ “Side camps” often splintered from the main camp to accomplish projects that were short in duration or task specific and that were located some distance from the main camp.

The first camp opened in George Washington National Forest near Luray, Virginia, on April 5, 1933, less than two weeks after the program was launched. The CCC hoped to enroll 250,000 by July, and with enrollment averaging 8,700 men per day, the program included 270,000 men in 1,330 camps on July 1. The following year a presidential executive order allotted an additional \$275 million to the program and increased the number of participants to 350,000.

Each camp included approximately 200 men. The original idea was to house CCC members in canvas tents. The affordability and durability of lumber changed that policy by the end of 1933. In November of that year, thousands of carpenters were building wood frame structures in 46 camps nationwide. The Army oversaw camp construction and developed detailed instructions and standardized plans for the layout of the camps as well as the individual buildings. By 1935, portable structures, such as train cars, were also common features at many camps.

At its peak, the CCC employed more than 600,000 men in 2,652 camps. Beginning in January 1936, the strength of the CCC “army” was gradually reduced until it reached 350,000 in January 1937. When the program ended in 1942, more than 3,000,000 men had been employment by the CCC.

CCC in Kansas

In Kansas, the Civilian Conservation Corps established its presence with the creation of the Kansas District at Fort Riley around June 1, 1933. Both Fort Riley and Fort Leavenworth served as conditioning facilities for men who wished to join a CCC company. During 1933 and 1934, 19 companies were formed at Fort Riley and 43 companies at Fort Leavenworth. Not all of these companies served Kansas. Some were sent to projects in Nebraska, Minnesota and Oregon. On

¹⁹Federal Security Agency, The CCC at Work: A Story of 2,500,000 Young Men, (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1941), 85.

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February 1, 1936, the Missouri-Kansas District was organized with headquarters at Fort Leavenworth.²⁰ In 1937, an average of 15 camps were active in the state, employing approximately 38,163 men.²¹ Twelve of the 15 camps were designated corps of the Soil Conservation Service and worked in areas that experienced drought. The remaining CCC companies worked for the state forestry division, a state park, or state military reservation. While the number of camps was small, the amount of work accomplished was not. By 1942, the CCC constructed 169 large diversion dams, planted 2,968,098 trees for gully erosion, and reforested 6,040,000 acres of Kansas land statewide.²²

Farm Security Administration

In 1937 Congress passed the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act, which established the Farm Security Administration (FSA) under the Department of Agriculture. Although remembered now for the photographic record that it compiled of this era, the FSA was one of President Roosevelt's most controversial agencies. Farming was one of the most seriously depressed sectors of the economy, and in states such as Kansas, the Dust Bowl magnified such economic troubles. The harsh economic conditions led to an increase in tenancy, and the FSA worked to keep smaller farmers on their land. For example, its Tenant-Purchase Program helped tenant farmers become land owners through long-term, low-interest loans. FSA also managed camps for migrant workers and managed the Resettlement Administration whose primary goal was to move farmers from degraded land to more-fertile land. The FSA provided farm loans, grants, and technical assistance to needy families and promoted cooperative associations of all kinds from medical to farming.²³ Serving mainly the very poor with what were perceived as welfare programs, supporters had very little clout with Congress to improve FSA appropriations. Within a decade the FSA ended.

FSA in Kansas

Haskell County provides an example of how the FSA helped Dust Bowl farmers. While almost all the farmers had been receiving government checks for wheat production prior to the Depression, many thought that taking money from the FSA was a sign of incompetence. Only a minority of Haskell County farmers accepted FSA help.²⁴ Some took advantage of the FSA's three-percent loans to lease land, to reseed grasses on land plowed for wheat, or to move toward production of mixed crops, but the program was never really large enough to change farm tenure trends. The FSA was most successful at

²⁰Official Annual: Missouri-Kansas District Civilian Conservation Corps, Seven Corps Area, 1937. This publication describes the location and corps numbers of the active Kansas CCC camps for 1937.

²¹ CCC camps in Kansas included those near Farlington and Frontenac in Crawford County and one Lyon County.

²²Merrill, Perry H., Roosevelt's Forest Army: A History of the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942, (Montpelier, VT: by author, 1981): 129-130.

²³James Ciment, ed., Encyclopedia of the Great Depression and the New Deal, Vol. 1 (Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe, Inc., 2001), 318-319.

²⁴Worster, 159-160.

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Federal Emergency Relief Administration

On May 12, 1933, Congress passed the legislation that created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA). The act provided federal grants to State Emergency Relief Administrations (SERAs) that distributed the funds to local agencies and organizations. When the federal money finally reached the people in need it came in the form of direct or work relief. Half of the \$500 million FERA appropriation was passed directly to SERAs, and half provided matching grants to the states, who provided a three dollar match to each FERA dollar.

FERA based assistance on a demonstrated need for relief. The local relief agency applied a “means test” to applicants to determine their needs and their ability to meet those needs. Monthly, applicants had to demonstrate that their need continued. Minimum wages under FERA were set at \$0.30 per hour with maximum workweeks of 35 hours for manual laborers and 40 hours for office workers. However, in some cases individuals required additional direct relief to supplement these wages.

The FERA was divided into four divisions. Two of these were the works division, which oversaw the Civil Works Administration (CWA), and the division of rural rehabilitation, which removed families from unproductive land and placed them on land that was more fertile. FERA tried to attract unemployed white collar workers onto the relief rolls with jobs such as clerical work for government agencies, work in libraries and museums, work in healthcare, research of population and economic data, and surveys of historic buildings. FERA also funded “production-for-use” projects such as subsistence gardens, canning projects, fuel procurement, and sewing rooms, and transient camps, self-help cooperatives, and a surplus commodities program. However, in reality the majority of the programs were an outgrowth of Hoover’s RFC and funding went primarily toward construction projects. When the FERA came to an end in December 1935, one historian described the agency’s “greatest and most tangible contribution” as its work program, which employed nearly 2.5 million workers on over 235,000 projects and provided additional aid to millions of farmers.²⁵

Impact of FERA on Kansas and on the KFRC

In 1932, Kansas elected Republican Alf Landon as governor. Landon believed that local communities should administer money for poor relief, and he encouraged the counties and the state legislature to take the necessary measures to increase the funds available for local match, and to maximize the amount of federal grant funds requested and received. This included increasing the powers of the counties to levy taxes and to issue poor relief bonds.²⁶

²⁵Olson, 177.

²⁶Ibid., 166.

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In order to obtain the FERA funds, the KFRC had to make some changes. The first was to its name. Because FERA could only disburse funds to a “State Emergency Relief Administration,” the KFRC was renamed the Kansas Emergency Relief Committee (KERC) on August 1, 1933.

The KERC was a nonpartisan state relief agency. Its director, John Stutz, wanted to develop the most advanced social welfare service of any state. The FERA required that the federal monies be overseen by those competent in the delivery of social welfare services. Stutz interpreted this to mean that all counties must have a county poor commissioner who held a college degree in public welfare, and he hoped that the state and federal relief funds would enable the state of Kansas to develop a complete relief agency staffed with experts in social welfare.²⁷

It was the KERC’s responsibility to certify that the employees of the federal programs were eligible participants. The KERC certified Kansans who participated in the CCC and in the programs of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, which included the Civil Works Administration, Resettlement Administration, and the State Transient Service. By 1935, over 25 distinct federal and state programs were under the jurisdiction of the KERC.²⁸

Public Works Administration

In June 1933, Congress passed the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA). Title I of NIRA addressed labor issues, creating the National Recovery Administration with the goal of stabilizing prices and wages, and the National Labor Board, to negotiate labor disputes. NIRA also guaranteed labor’s rights to organize and to bargain collectively. Title II of NIRA created the Public Works Administration (PWA), directed by Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes. The PWA had three objectives:

- 1) preparing a public works program to be undertaken in the event of future necessity;
- 2) providing employment for workers in the building trades and in the industries supplying construction materials; and
- 3) priming the pump of industry by placing large sums of money in circulation and by creating a demand for construction materials.²⁹

Focused on creating jobs in the building trades and construction, the PWA received an initial allocation of \$3.3 billion. In contrast to the smaller projects of the Civil Works Administration (CWA), the PWA

²⁷John G. Stutz Collection, Kansas Collection, University of Kansas, RH MS 327: 3, 59.

²⁸Fearon, 174.

²⁹Jack F. Isakoff, The Public Works Administration (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1938), 137.

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attempted to revive the economy by promoting large construction projects that employed skilled labor.³⁰
The categories of projects included:

1. The construction repair, and improvement of public highways, parkways and public buildings and any publicly owned instrumentalities and facilities.
2. The conservation and development of natural resources, including the control, utilization and purification of waters, the prevention of soil and coastal erosion, the development of waterpower, the transmission of electrical energy, flood control, the construction of river and harbor improvements, and certain river and drainage improvements.
3. The construction, reconstruction, alteration, or repair, under public regulation or control, of low-cost housing and slum clearance projects, and assistance in the purchase of subsistence homesteads.
4. The financing of self-liquidating projects formerly eligible for assistance by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, to which are now added the construction or completion of hospitals, financed in part from public funds, reservoirs, pumping plants, and dry docks.
5. The construction of naval vessels and aircraft, technical works for the army air corps, army housing projects, and original equipment for the mechanization or motorization of army tactical units.
6. The financing of such railroad maintenance wand equipment as might be approved by the Interstate Commerce Commission as desirable for the improvement of transportation facilities.³¹

The PWA paid for 100 percent of federal construction projects, while projects at the state and local level received a grant for 30 percent of the project costs and a loan for any portion of the balance. Grants were increased to 45 percent of project costs in 1935. Private entities could also receive PWA loans for construction projects but were ineligible for grants.

The 34,500 PWA-funded projects included one-half of all New Deal constructed schools and most municipal water and sewage systems. Other typical projects included courthouses, post offices, schools, hospitals, housing, and roads. Nationwide all but three counties benefited from at least one PWA project. In 1933, PWA projects represented 33-percent of all the construction in the United States. Nationwide, approximately 140,000 workers were employed by the PWA every year of its existence and as many as 600,000 additional jobs were created annually because of PWA projects. Because the agency was slow to employ large numbers of individuals, Congress continually shifted money to other

³⁰Walker, Forrest A. The Civil Works Administration: An Experiment in Federal Work Relief, 1933-1934, (New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., 1979): 22.

³¹Isakoff, 17.

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programs like the CWA and the Works Projects Administration, which employed larger numbers of people.³²

The PWA was extended with a \$4.8 billion appropriation under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935, and again in 1937 with \$59 million from the Public Works Administration Extension Act because many of the projects the agency had started were not finished and the funds allocated for these projects had not been exhausted. In 1938, the agency received a \$1.6 billion appropriation which allowed it to finish many of its ongoing projects by the date the agency ceased operation -- June 30, 1941.³³

PWA in Kansas

In Kansas, PWA-funded projects ranged from an art museum in Wichita to a grain elevator in Kansas City. By 1939, the PWA had constructed 35 new buildings in the state and made additions to three other buildings. Comprising 20 of the 35 new buildings, schools dominated PWA efforts in the state. Notable PWA schools included Eugene Ware Public School, (Fort Scott, KS); Vernon School, (Wyandotte, KS); New York Street Grade School, (Lawrence, KS); Auditorium and Commons Building at the University of Wichita; and the Dormitory for the State School of the Deaf (Olathe, KS).³⁴ Wichita, Newton, and Chapman were among the communities that also benefited from new schools.

Civil Works Administration

The Civil Works Administration (CWA) was created by executive order on November 9, 1933 under Title II of NIRA and was placed under the management of FERA. One historian described the agency as “a bold experiment — it was the first attempt by the federal government to give work to the unemployed instead of aiding the states in the problem of relief.”³⁵ Harry Hopkins, who administered the CWA, decided there was no time to recruit administrators from each individual state so he federalized the existing state emergency relief programs and their workers. Hoping to employ 4,000,000 workers, Hopkins gave these state and local officials the authority to “use their imagination and suggested [projects such as] park and playground construction, feeder roads, water mains and sewer extensions...,” threatening the states that they would lose funding not allocated by December 15. The CWA required that the work be completed on public property, be constructive in nature, and have a cost

³²Olson, 398-399.

³³Isakoff, 139, 150. For the 1.6 billion dollar appropriation see Olson, 399.

³⁴Short, C. W. and R. Stanley Brown, Public Buildings: A Survey of Architecture of Projects Constructed By Federal and other Governmental Bodies between the Years 1933 and 1939, (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1939): 148, 177-179, 318, 391, 632, 683, 685. While this source mentions the total number of PWA buildings constructed in Kansas, it only lists some specific projects and locations.

³⁵Walker, ii..

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ratio of 70 percent for labor to 30 percent for materials.³⁶ Local businesses were encouraged to furnish building supplies so that most of the project funds would support wages.

The program worked. By Thanksgiving 180,000 CWA projects employed 800,000 people nationwide. By the following January the CWA employed 4.3 million, exceeding Hopkins' goal. Pay exceeded that under FERA. For a 30 hour workweek hourly wages started at \$0.40 for unskilled laborers and ranged up to \$1.20 per hour for skilled workers. The rapid growth of the CWA raised concerns that the agency would not be able to meet future payrolls, and Hopkins reluctantly reduced the hourly workweek beginning in January 1934. Workers in rural areas and small towns were limited to 15 hours per week, while urban workers could not exceed 24 hours per week.

Because the PWA was slow to produce results, over \$400 million dollars from the PWA budget was funneled to the CWA to finance short-term, light construction projects.³⁷ The CWA was very successful in providing employment for many Americans. Before it was terminated on March 31, 1934, the agency had spent \$62 million and had built 40,000 schools, 469 airports, and 255,000 miles of roads. More importantly, the agency pumped a billion dollars into the sluggish and depressed economy.³⁸

Civil Works Administration in Kansas

The federal government named the Kansas Emergency Relief Committee as the State Civil Works Administration effective November 18, 1933. Kansas counties, which had organized relief efforts to take advantage of Hoover's Reconstruction Finance Corporation, had county emergency relief committees already established. Known as County Civil Works Administrations, these committees included two members from the Board of County Commissioners and the County Poor Commissioner, who served as the local Civil Works Administrator. Together with the county commissioners, these individuals appointed the remainder of the county relief committees. The committees made decisions about how federal money should be spent and who would be employed on work projects.

By January 1934, in order to capitalize on the CWA-allotted funds, the KERC divided its office into five divisions. The first division was assigned water conservation projects. One section of this division planned "the construction of lakes for recreation and public water supplies." A second division completed architectural designs and checked project plans "for buildings and structures including bridges, and recreational buildings such as shelter houses, park buildings, and others," and also worked with the first division to plan recreational lakes. The third division approved public works projects, such as the construction of swimming pools, paving projects, sewer work, and buildings. The fourth division,

³⁶Schwartz, Bonnie Fox, The Civil Works Administration, 1933-1934: The Business of Emergency Employment in the New Deal, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1984), 41, 46.

³⁷Schwartz, 38.

³⁸Olson, 84; Carothers.

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the Women's Division, oversaw work performed in sewing rooms and in mattress, weaving, and tanning factories. The fifth division was responsible for the construction or improvement of airport facilities.³⁹

In its ten-year report, the KERC wrote that "The purpose of the Federal Emergency [Relief] Administration is to provide regular work on public roads at regular wages for unemployed persons able and willing to work."⁴⁰ While 62.8 percent of Kansas CWA funds was spent on public highway work, the program funded a diverse array of projects.⁴¹

CWA crews constructed and repaired water works systems, storm and sanitary sewers; remodeled and repaired publicly owned buildings; constructed and improved playgrounds and athletic fields; and drafted maps, such as city planning and zoning maps. In Kansas the CWA employed 45,000 men and offered approximately 5,000 women employment opportunities for the first time.⁴²

End of the CWA and the Increased Role of the KERC in Kansas Relief

The Kansas Emergency Relief Committee administered the federal CWA relief program until it ceased operation on March 31, 1934. State officials expected the number of people requiring relief to decline following the termination of the CWA, but the drought of 1934 once again pushed many families to the brink of economic collapse. A new work relief program funded by an additional appropriation to the FERA replaced the CWA.

The work relief programs under the FERA were administered through the county organizations and were concentrated in the 18 counties most severely effected by the drought. However, Kansas' April 1934 FERA grant of \$500,000 was considerably less than the nearly \$2 million available for CWA salaries the previous month.⁴³ The end of CWA funding, coupled with a reduction in federal relief money and the increasing problems caused by the drought, put more pressure on the state and the KERC. To address these issues, the KERC divided itself into six districts to administer and coordinate the federal and state relief programs and recruited additional caseworkers to deal with the increasing number of individuals seeking relief. As described in the 1934 KERC annual report, "Federal funds continued to be made available, but actual operation of the work relief program was placed in the hands of the state

³⁹Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 34.

⁴⁰Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas: A Ten Year Report, 1924-1933, 581.

⁴¹Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 44.

⁴²Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas: A Ten Year Report, 1924-1933, 581-582. Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 15-16, 52-59. Women worked as stenographers, as assistant case supervisors, in sewing projects, and redecorated and repaired restrooms in courthouses "as suitable waiting rooms for the country women and their children."

⁴³*Ibid.*, 11-17.

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relief administration, which in turn delegated responsibility to the various counties, subject to federal rules and regulations.”⁴⁴

The relief program continued to function much as it had under the CWA. The County Emergency Relief Committees reported to the KEREC. At the county level, the Board of County Commissioners was responsible for “electing and nominating (with the aid of the county poor commissioner and his assistants) the necessary qualified relief staff and for paying their salaries....” The County Poor Commissioner worked “under the policy-forming direction of the board of county commissioners...” in the capacity of “chief administrative officer for all public relief activities in the county, including the grants in aid of federal relief funds.”⁴⁵

Despite the reduction in federal funds that followed the demise of the CWA, money for relief remained available at the county level and from private organizations. “Local public funds available for relief and the work relief program were derived from the county poor fund, the cigarette tax, the road and bridge fund, city funds available for payment of supervision and other expenditures on work relief projects, and bond issues for the purpose of increasing relief funds.”⁴⁶ To a limited extent the county and township road fund (allocated by the state out of gasoline taxes and motor vehicle licenses) was used in a few counties for work relief projects under a special law passed in 1933.

Available records do not identify specific construction projects, if any, the KEREC undertook without federal funds after the termination of the CWA. With FERA funding, the KEREC continued to mix federal and local public funds for construction projects. It is known that during the period of FERA funding, from January 1, 1935 to September 5, 1935, approximately 26 percent of the funds went to road, bridge and highway repair. This was the largest category of projects funded by the KEREC that year. Federal and local funds were also used in the construction of streets, sidewalks, parks, playgrounds, recreational facilities, flood control and water conservation projects, and in the construction, repair, and reconstruction of public buildings.⁴⁷

Homestead Rehabilitation

Hot winds and the lack of rainfall between 1933 and 1937 devastated the already weak economy of Kansas. At the height of the drought in 1934 the state’s wheat crop was valued at just over \$67 million. Three years later, as farming conditions improved, the value of the crop had rebounded to \$170 million.

⁴⁴Ibid., 24-25, 28, 43.

⁴⁵Ibid., 35.

⁴⁶Ibid., 32.

⁴⁷Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1935, KEREC Bulletin No. 355, (Lawrence, KS: The World Company, 1936), 29-32. Pages 37-38 describe the type of projects and quantity of projects undertaken from January 1, 1935 to September 5, 1935 and give the total number of projects undertaken from October 1932 to September 1935.

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By 1935 nearly nine million acres of land were unfarmable, and nearly 17,000 Kansas farm families were on public assistance to escape the effects of the drought.⁴⁸ From June 1 to December 21, 1934 the KERC used state funds to operate a Homestead Rehabilitation program. This program was designed to supplement the income of rural families so that they could “return ... to a self-sustaining ... utilization of land and other resources” that could not occur if they were forced to take public works jobs.⁴⁹ The program returned the farm family to a cash-and-carry basis, eliminating debt in order to achieve self-sufficiency. The families were also loaned farm animals, machinery and other equipment to assist them on the road to financial stability.⁵⁰

The KERC also used federal funds for drought relief efforts beginning 1934.⁵¹ In May of 1934, FERA announced it would provide direct relief grants and fund a work program for drought stricken areas, including parts of Kansas. By the end of July, 101 of the 105 Kansas counties had requested funds — primarily for the construction of farm dams and ponds, which would store water for future use. Several FERA grants made in August of 1934 employed destitute farmers who worked on projects to improve the drought conditions. By December of 1934, the program had constructed 243 emergency pumping plants, 598 emergency wells, and 346 farm ponds, with another 342 under construction. State, local and private sources funded had completed an additional 93 farm ponds by that time, with 543 more under construction. Subsequently the WPA contributed 15 lakes and 256 ponds to the water conservation efforts.⁵² “The importance of the works program can hardly be overestimated,” wrote historian Michael W. Schuyler, “...many farm families were able to survive the drought and to remain on the land because of the income provided by the works program.”⁵³

In January 1935, the FERA announced that the Homestead Rehabilitation grants in aid would be replaced by loans to individual farmers through a program administered by the KERC. Participating homeowners would guarantee the loans by mortgaging property already owned. By April 19, 1935, all rehabilitation grants in aid were discontinued and all clients were transferred to the loan program.⁵⁴

On July 1, 1935, the Homestead Rehabilitation program was taken over by the Resettlement Administration. The Resettlement Administration did not assist as many farmers as did the Homestead Rehabilitation grants-in-aid or loan programs. This situation created a crisis until those farmers not

⁴⁸Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, for rehabilitation see 738, for relief statistics see 735-736. Federal Writers' Project of the Works Progress Administration, The WPA Guide to 1930s Kansas, (Lawrence, KS: University of Kansas Press, 1984), 16-17.

⁴⁹Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 75.

⁵⁰*Ibid.*, 75-78, 733-739.

⁵¹Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 21.

⁵²Federal Writer's Project, 16.

⁵³Michael W. Schuyler, “Federal Drought Relief Activities in Kansas, 1934,” Kansas Historical Quarterly, XLII (Winter 1976): 412-417. Also see Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 49-51.

⁵⁴Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1935, 303-305.

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eligible for aid from the Resettlement Administration could apply for assistance under the WPA. The decision to allow the farmers to apply for WPA assistance, if they were rejected for aid from the Resettlement Administration, was made on October 31, 1935.⁵⁵ In 1937, Congress created the Farm Security Administration to supervise the programs of the Resettlement Administration. Its primary goal was to move farmers from degraded land to more-fertile land that would yield better crops. This was very similar to the programs implemented by the KERK using FERA funds in 1934.

Soil Conservation Service

Dust storms throughout the 1930s were a constant reminder that something was very wrong with the land-management techniques of previous decades. Begun as the Soil Erosion Service within the Department of the Interior, the Soil Conservation Service was reorganized under the Department of Agriculture in 1935. The original goal of the Soil Conservation Service was to help farmers turn the dust bowl back into grasslands by managing the soil to minimize water and wind erosion. SCS efforts, however, soon focused on minimizing erosion to increase land productivity instead. The service bought thousands of acres of land and required some farmers to move so their cropland could be returned to grass. Working with farmers, the SCS helped them learn new methods to work the soil through terracing, contour plowing, and emergency listing (a means of plowing), which slowed soil erosion on susceptible lands.⁵⁶ Just as SCS began operations, FERA gave the state of Kansas \$250,000 in the spring of 1935 to carry out emergency listing. Farmers were paid ten cents per acre to list any land susceptible to blowing. Top soil held the fertility for farming, and erosion of top soil caused a loss of future productivity. One dust storm alone could suck as much as 350 million tons of top soil from the surface of the ground.⁵⁷ By the end of 1935, the SCS had projects underway covering forty million acres with another eight million acres and ninety-four projects under supervision. SCS was successful in helping farmers learn better farming techniques. In 1937, farmers reduced the amount of seriously eroded land by about 65 percent over the previous year.⁵⁸

Shelterbelt Program

Perhaps one of the more interesting programs of the New Deal was the shelterbelt program. Eventually managed by the SCS, this was a pet project of Roosevelt's. In 1934, he wanted a transcontinental windbreak. Known as the Prairie States Forestry project, it was managed by the U. S. Forest Service. Shelterbelts were rows of trees used to break up sweeping winds that scoured the earth. Used effectively in Europe during periods of drought, Roosevelt felt they would work well in the United States. The Forest Service managed the planting of many test and demonstration sites throughout the Dust Bowl area to test the feasibility of these windbreaks. The first were planted in Oklahoma, although a line had

⁵⁵Ibid., 305-306.

⁵⁶ Richard Lowitt, *The New Deal and the West* (Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press, 1984), 59.

⁵⁷ Worster, 13.

⁵⁸ *Depression America: Countryside and City*, Vol. 3 (Danbury, CN: Grolier Educational, 2001), 60.

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area to test the feasibility of these windbreaks. The first were planted in Oklahoma, although a line had been drawn on a map of the Plains from Canada to northern Texas, along the eastern edge of the short grass prairie. Along the line were to be row after row of trees planted around arid farm fields. Such windbreaks or shelterbelts were somewhat effective at breaking the wind especially close to the trees, but the short life of trees and the extensive scope of the project limited the results. Viewed as a folly by most westerners, the Forest Service was amazingly successful in the eight years they ran the program, planting 18,600 miles of shelterbelts with over 217 million trees.⁵⁹ In Kansas alone, relief workers and farmers planted over 3,540 miles of windbreaks with a tree survival rate of 74%.⁶⁰ Nationally, men and boys in the CCC did some work, such as collecting trees and cuttings.⁶¹ In 1942, the program was turned over to the SCS, which effectively folded it into its everyday activities.

State Transient Service

In uncertain economic times, such as the Depression, many individuals traveled from place to place searching for better opportunities. The worsening economic conditions in Kansas resulted in a fairly substantial number of transients moving about the state. In order to assist these transients and to prevent trouble, the state created the State Transient Service in October 1933 using FERA funding. Under the supervision of the KERC, the State Transient Service developed family centers to care for families as well as facilities for unattached men. The family centers were located in Wichita, Topeka, and Kansas City, while the centers for unattached men were located in Topeka, Fort Scott, Hutchinson, Dodge City, and Liberal. Additional work camps for unattached men, which employed residents on a particular project, were found in Wabaunsee, Gardner, Howard, and Sedan.⁶²

The men who resided in the transient camps worked in the surrounding area. The women in family camps worked nearby in sewing rooms, cleaned the camp or mended clothing. Transient workers near Eskridge, Wabaunsee County, helped construct a lake by building a dam. Unskilled transients worked with skilled CWA workers to construct the Transient Camp at Gardner, Johnson County. In April 1934, transient workers from Camp Gardner, working in a nearby state park, constructed a five-room stone dwelling for the park caretaker, a stone pump house and other buildings. They also constructed a golf course, a baseball diamond, and a volley ball court, while the CWA workers constructed a dining hall and recreation room, a kitchen and storeroom among other buildings. This project was completed by September 1934.⁶³

⁵⁹ Hurt, 135.

⁶⁰ Hurt, 135.

⁶¹ Phoebe Cutler, The Public Landscape of the New Deal (New Haven, CT: 1985), 110-11.

⁶² Kansas Emergency Relief Commission, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1934, 743.

⁶³ *Ibid.*, 745-746. For construction dates of Camp Gardner see Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1935, 19.

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could be assigned to the WPA or other federal relief program. By January 1, 1936, 70 percent of the transients in Kansas were assigned to the WPA, and the family centers and work camps were abandoned.⁶⁴

Rural Electrification Administration

Electricity had been available to most urban areas in the United States since the early 1900s. The density of population and demand from industrial and commercial customers in these locations meant that utility companies could operate profitably. Conversely, the lack of user density discouraged most utility companies from building power lines to reach farms and small towns. By 1930, the 85 percent of urban residents who had electricity contrasted sharply to the 10 percent of rural residents with access to electrical service. The impetus to create a program of rural electrification began in the 1920s when successful economic development was linked to the spread of electricity. When Roosevelt became president, he issued an executive order in 1935 to establish the Rural Electrification Administration (REA), and the REA Act shortly followed. The Act made the REA a permanent agency.

Borrowing the approach to funding used by electrical cooperatives, such as the Tennessee River Valley Authority (TVA), REA supplied legal, engineering and managerial expertise to local cooperatives and extended low-cost loans to locals to buy the equipment needed to build rural lines.⁶⁵

When electrification arrived, it improved almost every aspect of rural lives including schools, churches, hospitals and town life. And yet by the time World War II began, only 22 percent of all farms in the United States were electrified.

REA in Kansas

Kansas historian Robert Richmond claims the REA had an important affect on Kansas. The state's first REA project was in Brown and Atchison counties with power generated by the Horton electrical plant, beginning in April 1938. Rural electrification became known as "the best hired hand" a farmer could have, and this initial effort was followed soon by thirty-eight others statewide.⁶⁶ In effect, farmers were able to do more work with less labor. As their numbers dwindled, farmers used electricity to manage necessary tasks with a smaller workforce. For women, electrification brought refrigerators, freezers, stoves and vacuum cleaners, which reduced the labor of producing food for a family or keeping house.

⁶⁴Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Social Welfare Service in Kansas, 1936, KERC Bulletin No. 380, (Lawrence, KS: The World Company, 1937), 26-27.

⁶⁵ James Ciment, ed., Encyclopedia of the Great Depression and the New Deal, Vol. 1 (Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe, Inc., 2001), 377-78.

⁶⁶ Richmond, 259.

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The Works Progress Administration

While Roosevelt's initial round of programs provided the nation with some relief, the effects of the Depression were not fully erased. In a speech to Congress early in 1935, Roosevelt established as a priority the creation of a new works program. The Works Progress Administration was created by executive order on May 6, 1935 using 1.4 billion dollars in funding from the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act, which had been approved on April 8, 1935.⁶⁷ Initially, the agency was designed as a temporary measure and funding was renewed annually.

Like its predecessors, the WPA focused on employing large numbers of people through locally sponsored projects as well as through projects for state and federal agencies. Chief Administrator Harry Hopkins established a series of regional offices to coordinate efforts between the federal administration and the administrator for each state. The WPA was divided into two divisions. The first division, the Division of Engineering and Construction, oversaw manually constructed projects. These fell into several categories: 1) Municipal Engineering Projects; 2) Airport and Airway Projects; 3) Public Building Projects; 4) Highway and Road Projects; 5) Conservation Projects; 6) Engineering Survey Projects; and 7) Disaster Emergency Activities. Under the WPA more than 650,000 miles of roads were constructed or improved and over 125,000 buildings were erected or repaired, almost one-third of which were schools. Other types of buildings impacted by the program included libraries, auditoriums, gymnasiums, offices, hospitals, penal institutions, dormitories, firehouses, garages, storage facilities, armories, barns and stables.⁶⁸ The WPA also constructed many outdoor recreational facilities, including swimming pools, stadiums, playgrounds, fairgrounds and athletic fields, as well as conservation structures, such as dams. The second division, known as the Women's and Professional Division, oversaw manual labor carried out by women in sewing rooms and by men and women in non-construction projects, such as historical inventories of courthouse records and writing, music and art projects.⁶⁹

In 1936, the WPA employed over 3 million people. That number dropped slightly when funding was trimmed during the recession of 1937 and 1938, but at its peak in November 1938 the WPA rolls included 3.3 million workers. The program limited an individual's participation to 18 months, after which they had to be removed from the rolls for 30 days before being assigned to a new project. Because there was typically a waiting list for employment, the 30-day waiting period often lasted several months. In the final years of the decade, as the economy slowly rebounded and as the United States prepared for and later went to war, the number of individuals on relief declined. When the agency

⁶⁷Olson, 548.

⁶⁸David M. Kennedy, Freedom From Fear: The American People in Depression and War, 1929-1945, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999), 104-105.

⁶⁹Kansas Works Progress Administration, Women's and Professional Division, (n.p., n.p., 1937), 1, Special Collections, Pittsburg State University, Pittsburg, Kansas.

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closed on June 30, 1943, only 42,000 enrollees remained in the program.⁷⁰ Throughout its lifetime, the WPA put 8.5 million Americans to work at a total cost of nearly \$11 billion dollars.⁷¹

Eligible employees needed to demonstrate both their need for work and their “employability.” Employability essentially equated to their physical ability to complete required tasks. A means test, similar to that used by FERA, established an individual or family’s need. Workers were salaried, receiving a fixed allotment per month, even if inclement weather reduced work hours below the normal 120 to 140 per month. Over the course of the program, wages switched from a monthly salary to an hourly prevailing wage and a set number of hours per month (130) to a series of wage levels based on class of employment classification (unskilled, intermediate, skilled, and professional). At the end of the WPA, defense and war projects were exempted from fixed maximums on both hours and wages.

Despite the fact that the WPA hired only one-quarter of the nation’s unemployed during the Great Depression, it was extremely popular with voters. Some historians have argued that the popularity of this government program contributed to Roosevelt’s defeat of Alf Landon in the 1936 presidential election.⁷² Under the Reorganization Act of 1939, the agency was renamed the Works Projects Administration and was placed under the control of another new body, the Federal Works Agency.⁷³ With the coming of the war, in 1941, the agency made national defense its chief administrative goal. As the war effort mitigated the Depression and removed the need for federal employment, the agency was liquidated in July 1943.

WPA in Kansas

Through the WPA, Kansas realized many new public buildings and recreational facilities. Between July 1, 1935 and June 1, 1939 the WPA either built or improved 619 buildings in the state. That figure includes 36 administrative buildings, 16 auditoriums, 45 barns and stables, 58 community buildings, 59 dormitories, three fire houses, 35 garages, 12 gymnasiums, two hospitals, three jails and reformatories, ten other institutional buildings, seven libraries, 142 schools, 52 stadiums, and 16 warehouses. In addition, there were 121 WPA recreational facilities, including 59 athletic fields, 91 parks, five fairgrounds, 92 playgrounds, 40 swimming and wading pools, 14 band shells, five outdoor theaters, and 140 golf courses, tennis courts, handball courts and horseshoe courts.⁷⁴

⁷⁰Rose, 96.

⁷¹Kennedy, 253.

⁷²Foner and Garraty, 1168.

⁷³Olson, 550.

⁷⁴Works Projects Administration, *Federal Works Agency*, (Topeka, KS: n.p., 1939), 1, 10. Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka, KS. This document provides only aggregate numbers of projects. While it is illustrated by photos of selected projects, there is no comprehensive list of projects for Kansas communities.

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A 1939 report by the Kansas WPA also detailed the aggregate numbers for road and highway projects undertaken in the state using WPA funds. According to that report, 13,706 miles of road were either built or improved. Of those, 4,416 miles were primary roads, 8,074 miles were rural secondary roads, 778 miles were urban roads, and 435 miles were roads constructed in parks and cemeteries. The WPA also constructed 567 bridges, 11,365 culverts, 112 miles of sidewalks and paths, and 175 miles of curbs, gutters and guardrails.⁷⁵

In 1939, Clarence Nevins, the state WPA Administrator, commended the people of Kansas. He observed,

“Your attention is called to the fact that practically all of the projects in Kansas have been sponsored by your local governments, and we take this opportunity to commend the counties, the cities, boards of education and other local governmental units in the State for the high type of projects submitted to this agency....”

Nevins concluded by commenting that in June of 1939 there were roughly 30,000 Kansans on the WPA rolls. He observed that over 47 percent were employed on highway or road and street projects; seven percent on public buildings; nine percent on recreational buildings; five percent on utility projects; three percent on road conservation projects; and two percent on airport and airway projects.⁷⁶

In 1936, the Women’s and Professional Service Division of the WPA employed 9,190 people in Kansas, roughly 30 percent of the state’s WPA workforce.⁷⁷ By 1937, that figure dropped to 5,800 individuals, although an additional 3,000 awaited assignment.⁷⁸ These individuals were employed in a wide variety of duties. Women organized games like basketball, as well as handicrafts such as woodworking and beadcraft. Others led preschool groups and became involved with gardening and canning projects. Most women participated in WPA sewing projects where they sewed garments for those less fortunate or they were employed as housekeeping aides.⁷⁹

The Professional Division included the Statewide Music Project, which employed both men and women in producing and entertaining with music or in teaching music. In Kansas City, where approximately 50 former professional musicians were on the relief rolls, two concert bands were established — one composed of white musicians and the other of black musicians. During the summer months, the bands played in Kansas City parks and were paid by the WPA.⁸⁰ Others in the Professional Division

⁷⁵Ibid.

⁷⁶Foner and Garraty, 1168.

⁷⁷Kansas Works Progress Administration, Women’s and Professional Division, (n.p., n.p., 1936), 1, Special Collections, Pittsburg State University, Pittsburg, Kansas.

⁷⁸Kansas Works Progress Administration, 1937, 2.

⁷⁹Ibid., 2.

⁸⁰Kansas Works Progress Administration, 1936, 42.

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conducted historical surveys of records in county courthouses and federal agencies, crafted paintings for public buildings, and worked in county libraries recovering worn books.⁸¹

While the WPA primarily focused on construction projects, it managed other agencies that provided different types of employment opportunities. The National Youth Administration put young people to work, while the Federal Theater, Arts, Music, and Writers' Projects brought music and drama to small communities; "commissioned public sculptures, paintings, and murals; sponsored surveys of national archives, and produced a series of state and regional travel guides."⁸²

National Youth Administration

Concerned that the nation's young people were being overlooked by other New Deal programs, First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt urged the creation of the National Youth Administration (NYA). Created on June 26, 1935 by executive order, the NYA employed youth, primarily between the ages of 16 and 24, developed vocational programs, and provided student aid for those attending high school and college. The WPA managed the NYA's \$50 million budget, which was later trimmed back to \$30 million.⁸³

Although the policies and programs of the NYA were developed in Washington, like the WPA, the NYA required that each state have its own Youth Administration with a state director and advisory committee. Corresponding to the WPA districts, the NYA assigned a district administrator to oversee the agency's program for that district.

The NYA enabled approximately 620,000 college students to continue their education and funded part-time jobs for 1,514,000 high school students and 2,677,000 out-of-school youths.⁸⁴ Jobs for students included working in libraries, museums, research labs, and on playgrounds. Out-of-work students were employed in the construction of buildings, roads, recreation and conservation facilities, as well as in projects including research, secretarial, sewing, and youth activities. Wages were based on ages and level of education. At the low end, high school students could earn a maximum of six dollars per month. Salaries for college students ranged from \$25 per month for undergraduates and first year graduate students to \$40 per month for advanced graduate students.

Like the other New Deal programs, the NYA impacted the built environment of America. Through its efforts, 1,500 miles of roads were paved, 6,000 public buildings were erected, 1,429 schools and libraries were constructed, and 2,000 bridges were built. Under the leadership of Aubrey Williams, the

⁸¹Ibid.

⁸²Foner and Garraty, 1168.

⁸³Lindley, Betty and Ernest K., A New Deal for Youth: The Story of the National Youth Administration, (New York: Viking Press, 1938): 3, 22.

⁸⁴Olson, 367.

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agency strove to provide relief to both black and white youth. In 1943, Congress voted to terminate funding for the NYA against the efforts of Congressman Lyndon B. Johnson and Senator Harry S. Truman.⁸⁵

NYA in Kansas

From 1935 to 1938, the Kansas WPA received nearly \$3,727,000 to manage NYA programs in the state. Over \$2 million was allocated for work projects with the remaining \$1.7 million spent on student aid. The 14,043 individuals supported by the NYA in Kansas included 7,392 men and 6,651 women. In Topeka, NYA men constructed tennis courts with supplies donated by the City School Board. They also constructed backstops, an upkeep house, and a stone drinking fountain. The NYA women made the tennis nets. In Shawnee County a team of NYA workers constructed a camping area next to a 400-acre WPA lake, clearing land, building roads, and constructing recreational facilities, shower houses, a camp lodge, and quarters for the camp cook, nurse, and other camp officials.⁸⁶ In addition to construction projects, NYA teams ran contour lines on 14,979 acres of land and planted over 13,000 trees and shrubs in drought stricken parts of the state.⁸⁷

Art in the New Deal

The philosophy of the New Deal envisioned the fine arts as a necessary element in creating a strong national culture and economy. An initial effort at creating public art occurred in 1934 under the auspices of the CWA. In five months, the Public Works of Art Project spent just over \$1 million to employ nearly 4000 artists. The project produced nearly 16,000 works of art nationwide.

In July 1935, the Treasury Department created the Treasury Relief Art Project (TRAP) to decorate new and existing federal buildings with murals, sculptures, and easel works. Funding for TRAP came from an appropriation of \$530,784 from WPA Division of Professional and Service Projects. Following the WPA guidelines, the program hired 328 artists, 90-percent of whom came from the relief roles. In its three years of existence the program produced 85 murals, 29 sculptures and 10,215 easel works nationwide.⁸⁸

Because so many artists were without work, the program was expanded under the Federal Art Project (FAP). Created through the WPA in 1935, the FAP produced a vast amount of work during its eight-

⁸⁵Ibid., 368-369.

⁸⁶Ibid., for budget numbers see page 273; for individual projects see pages 29-30.

⁸⁷Johnson, Palmer O. and Oswald L. Harvey, The National Youth Administration, (New York: Arno Press, reprint, 1974 from original 1938 GPO printing), 64.

⁸⁸ *Treasury Relief Art Project: A Treasury Department Art Program 1935-38*, [web page in the Southern Illinois University Virtual Museum on-line]; available from: www.museum.siu.edu/university_museum/museum_classroom_grant/Museum_Explorers/virtual/treasury.htm; Internet; accessed October 4, 2001.

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year existence. FAP artists created 2,566 murals, 17,744 sculptures, and 108,099 easel paintings, as well as 240,000 prints of 11,285 original designs.⁸⁹ Distributed to non-federal public buildings for beautification, the art produced by FAP depicted the history and events significant to the local community rather than events of national importance. Eligible artists were required to meet professional qualifications as well as the standard WPA financial means test. Unlike TRAP, which focused solely on the decorative arts, FAP efforts included a broad spectrum of creative arts, including music, drama, literature, art education, art applied to community service, and historical/archaeological research.⁹⁰

New Deal Arts Projects in Kansas

In Kansas, TRAP and FAP most visibly manifested themselves at in murals, paintings, and prints (such as woodblock and linoleum) completed for public buildings across the state. The majority of murals were located in post offices, the primary place where the average person interacted with the federal government. Art works were also added to courthouses and schools, including Topeka High School and buildings on the campuses of the University of Kansas and Kansas State University. Paintings as well as a few sculpture or decorative terra-cotta projects have been documented in 26 Kansas communities.⁹¹ Beyond these permanent installations in public buildings, the FAP in Kansas created over 350 works that were exhibited across the state and an Index of American Design, which identified, classified and documented over 200 pieces of Americana.⁹²

The End of the KERC

In 1935, the KERC continued to function as the state agency that disbursed federal and state funds for public relief. The NIRA expired that year and was replaced by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. This act funded the PWA through June 30, 1937, but also created a number of new public relief agencies, including the Resettlement Administration, and the WPA. The WPA replaced the FERA as the chief federal agency for directing relief and employment efforts across the country from 1935 until 1943.⁹³

⁸⁹ *Federal Art Project: A Works Progress Administration Program, 1935-43*, [web page in the Southern Illinois University Virtual Museum on-line]; available from: www.museum.siu.edu/university_museum/museum_classroom_grant/Museum_Explorers/virtual/treasury.htm; Internet; accessed October 4, 2001.

⁹⁰ George J. Mavigliano and Richard A. Lawson, *The Federal Art Project in Illinois, 1935-1943* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 1990): xx-xxi.

⁹¹ Marlene Park and Gerald E. Markowitz, *Democratic Vistas: Post Offices and Public Art in the New Deal*, Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1984): 8-9, 210-211. The documented locations include: Anthony, Augusta, Belleville, Burlington (stone sculpture), Caldwell, Columbus (terra-cotta relief), Council Grove, Eureka, Fort Scott, Fedonia (glazed terracotta), Goodland, Halstead, Herrington, Hoisington, Horton, Hutchinson, Kingman, Lindsborg, Neodesha, Olathe, Oswego, Russell, Sabetha, Salina (stone), Seneca, and Wichita.

⁹² Federal Writers' Project, 145.

⁹³ Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, *Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1935*, 9.

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In Kansas, the state relief administration was terminated by federal order after September 5, 1935.⁹⁴ With the creation of the WPA and other relief organizations like the National Youth Administration, the KERC assumed a smaller role in overseeing the distribution of federal aid within the state. While the agency now focused its efforts on distributing state relief aid, it continued to supervise the certification of eligible participants for WPA employment programs, resettlement programs, and the CCC.⁹⁵ One big change was that the KERC no longer had to compile data on its relief efforts for Washington, D.C. The WPA prepared that information at its regional offices.⁹⁶

At this time, the WPA established a state administrative office that was staffed by Democrats. This dealt a blow to the KERC, which had always attempted to be nonpartisan. Republican Governor, Alf Landon, was disappointed that the relief in his state would now be politicized.⁹⁷ In a letter to the governor in 1936, Director John Stutz outlined the accomplishments of the KERC between October 1932 and October 1935. The following figures include projects completed with federal monies, primarily CWA funding. He noted that the KERC had:

Purchased 521,000 head of cattle, canned 13 million cans of meat, and processed cattle and sheep hides and pelts.” The most impressive numbers were found among the public works. “Over 15,500 miles of roads and streets had been improved, and 1,515 bridges and large culverts had been built. Seventy-four courthouses had been improved, 7 schools built and 971 improved, 326 other public buildings built or improved.... The KERC also...developed recreation facilities, including 25 new and 221 improved parks, and 55 new and 206 improved playgrounds; in water conservation work, 2,391 ponds and 26 lakes had been constructed. Twenty-four airports had been built or improved, and 11 mattress factories, 4 garment, 9 furniture, and 8 canning factories were built and operated.”⁹⁸

On July 24, 1937, the KERC transferred to the State Board of Social Welfare all funds, monies, records and property in its possession.⁹⁹ Following that transfer, it is unclear whether the State Board of Social Welfare continued to certify eligible Kansans for participation in federal employment programs, such as the CCC and the WPA, which continued for several years.

⁹⁴Ibid., 12.

⁹⁵Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Social Welfare Service in Kansas, 1936, 12-13.

⁹⁶Kansas Emergency Relief Committee, Public Welfare Service in Kansas, 1935, 277.

⁹⁷Donald McCoy, Landon of Kansas, (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1966), 195.

⁹⁸Ibid., 196.

⁹⁹Minute Record Kansas Federal Relief Committee 1932, KERC Collection, Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka, Kansas.

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Conclusion

Today, many of the projects constructed between 1933 and 1943 using state and federal funds and labor remain highly visible and heavily utilized elements of the Kansas built environment. By the very nature of the programs through which they were built, these resources are integral to their local communities – courthouses, schools, libraries, post offices, parks, and roads. These resources enabled the people of the Kansas to survive the economic turmoil of the time, including the collapse of the national economy and the devastation wrought by the Dust Bowl. In retrospect, the New Deal transformed the cultural landscape of Kansas by modernizing infrastructure and physical resources. The projects completed in the state of Kansas were many and diverse, but in all 105 Kansas counties, the New Deal left a marked impression on the local community.

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**TABLE 1
NEW DEAL AGENCIES**

Agency	Funding Vehicle	Managing Agency	Dates of Operation
Civilian Conservation Corps (organized from Emergency Conservation Work)	CCC Reforestation Relief Act	CCC	28 June 1937 – 30 June 1943
Civil Works Administration	Title II of NIRA	FERA	9 November 1933 - 31 March 1934
Emergency Conservation Work	Emergency Conservation Work Act	Emergency Conservation Work	31 March 1933 – 28 June 1937
Farm Security Administration	Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act	USDA	1937 – 1946
Federal Arts Project	Treasury Relief Art Project	WPA	July 1935 – 1943
Homestead Rehabilitation Program (Grants)	FERA	FERA	June – 21 December 1934
Homestead Rehabilitation Program (Loans)	FERA	KERC; Resettlement Administration	19 April 1935 –1937
National Youth Administration	Emergency Relief Appropriations Act (Executive Order)	WPA	26 June 1935 – 12 July 1943
Resettlement Administration	Emergency Relief Appropriations Act	FERA; Farm Security Administration	1 July 1935 –1937
Public Works Administration	Title II of NIRA Emergency Relief Appropriations Act(1935), PWA Extension Act (1937)	PWA	June 1933 - 30 June 1941
Rural Electrical Administration	REA Act (Executive Order)	REA, USDA	11 May 1935 – 20 May 1936 to 1994
Soil Conservation Service (previously the Soil Erosion Service, Dept. of the Interior)	Jones-Dempsey Soil Erosion Act	USDA	27 April 1935 – 1994 (reorg. as Natural Resources Conservation Service)
State Transient Service	FERA	KERC	October 1933 -- 1936
Works Progress Administration	Emergency Relief Appropriations Act (Executive Order)	WPA	6 May 1935 – 1939
Works Projects Administration (reorganized)	Reorganization Plan No. I of 1939	Federal Works Agency	1 July 1939 – 30 June 1943

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PROPERTY TYPES

Property types associated with New Deal-era projects include a very broad spectrum of resources. Buildings, structures, objects and sites represent civic, educational, institutional, social and recreational uses as well as engineered resources related to public utilities and transportation systems. Designed cultural landscapes were included in many projects as were public art components. The goal of the New Deal programs was to aid as many people as possible through work relief programs. The wide variety of programs instituted in Kansas, as described in Section E, reflected the range of needs and skills of the people in the state.

Properties eligible for the National Register through this MPS include significant examples of GOVERNMENT; DOMESTIC; EDUCATION; FUNERARY; RECREATION & CULTURE; AGRICULTURE & SUBSISTENCE; INDUSTRY/PROCESSING/EXTRACTION; HEALTHCARE; DEFENSE; LANDSCAPE and TRANSPORTATION resources. The common denominator is that all are significant under Criterion A, having been constructed using funds or labor from one of the myriad federal New Deal agencies or the Kansas Emergency Relief Committee. Resources that embody the distinctive architectural styling associated with the New Deal era might also be eligible under Criterion C. These characteristics include the use of hand labor and an emphasis on craftsmanship, local building materials and construction methods, the use of standardized building plans, and local adaptations of popular architectural styles, in particular the Craftsman, Art Deco and Moderne. It is less likely that resources significant under Criterion B will be identified under this context. However, Criterion B might be appropriate if a resource is the most significant or last remaining property associated with the active life of a person or persons who influenced allocation of funds, selection of projects, or administration of funds during the New Deal. It is also possible that resources with significance under Criterion D might be identified. Eligible archaeological sites must be able to yield information about a project or program funded by KERK or the New Deal agencies.

The following discussion groups known and anticipated potential resources by general function. Because a comprehensive survey of New Deal era resources in Kansas has not been completed, it is possible that additional subtypes of resources may be identified in the future.

Civic resources include all construction related to the operation of municipal, county/regional, or federal government. Properties might include grand public structures, such as courthouses, city halls, police and/or fire stations, and post offices, with high style expressions of Classical and/or Moderne architecture. More-utilitarian buildings of masonry construction with minimal architectural styling included jails, public works buildings, armories and other military facilities. Many civic buildings were constructed during this period, and often replaced and updated civic structures erected in the late-19th century. Other civic buildings were remodeled or rehabilitated using New Deal-era funds. Many of

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these projects included a public art component, such as a mural or sculpture, which helped beautify the community and commemorate local history.

Resources related to **Public Utilities** include buildings and structures constructed to improve the general living conditions of the local community. These utilitarian, engineered facilities included waterworks, power and heating plants, storm sewers and sewage treatment plants, sanitary privies and telephone systems. An emphasis was placed on extending basic services, such as electricity and telephone service, to rural areas, and to improving sanitary conditions and reducing the risk of disease. The majority of these resources were concrete or masonry construction with little if any stylized ornament.

Where distances were too great to extend water lines to rural areas, New Deal programs constructed sanitary privies for individual property owners. These were generally small square or rectangular buildings of wood frame construction (although some might be masonry) with a shed or gable roof. A square window was a distinctive feature of the New Deal privies.

School buildings, libraries, museums and auditoriums were typical of **Educational** facilities erected through the New Deal programs. Public school buildings and college buildings were constructed, added on to, or remodeled in many communities in an effort to modernize facilities and enhance educational opportunities. Combination auditorium/gymnasiums were frequently constructed, usually in association with or adjacent to school buildings, and typically served the needs of the community as well as those of the specific school. Many educational buildings and building additions included restrained elements of Moderne styling. Often these elements were limited to decorative cast stone plaques with stylized imagery or lettering. Additions usually matched the original building in materials (typically brick) and often in styling.

Social and Recreational facilities constructed with New Deal funds and labor included large and small parks (municipal, county and state) often with band shells, picnic facilities (shelters, tables and benches, bbq fireplaces), toilet facilities and/or camp grounds; fairgrounds; bathhouses and swimming pools; and athletic fields with stadiums and field houses. The configuration of groups of buildings, paths and/or roads (cultural landscape) are often key to the significance and integrity of resources in this category. The styling of these resources varied from rustic to Moderne, and like other resource types, these facilities were generally constructed in a manner that was more labor intensive than might otherwise be typical. For instance, while fairground barns were typically unornamented structures, resting on concrete footings, New Deal edifices, such as those in Crawford County, often rested on stone foundations. Likewise, picnic facilities in public parks were constructed of concrete and stone rather than of wood.

Institutional buildings and **Social Welfare** projects included hospitals, county poor farms and welfare offices, housing projects and work camp buildings and structures. Hospitals were large permanent

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buildings whose construction and design were similar to that described above for Civic Buildings. Facilities for transient workers, whether through the Resettlement Act or works programs such as the CCC, were designed to be temporary, although concrete slab foundations and wood frame construction were typical. In some locations railroad boxcars provided housing for transient groups. The buildings at these complexes were often barracks-like in nature and when found in context were typically arranged in military-like compounds. While it is unlikely that any of the New Deal institutional housing remains extant, it is very possible that these camps remain as archaeological sites that possess sufficient integrity for nomination to the register under Criterion D. The camp of the 788th CCC located at Crawford County Park northeast of Farlington is an example of such a site.

Transportation-related systems and structures might include airport facilities (runways and hangars); highway, street and sidewalk projects; and bridges. Additional highway-related infrastructure included road paving, culvert and bridge construction. This work was intended to raise the populace out of the mud of the rural back roads and to provide access to larger markets for goods and services. These resources were utilitarian in design. Concrete was the typical paving material and was also used for bridges, while steel typically framed and clad larger structures.

Conservation-related properties were typically large resources, such as lakes, dams and reservoirs; wildlife refuges and fish hatcheries; forestry stations; reforestation projects; shelterbelts, terraces, contour lines and pasture furrows. These projects aimed to protect natural resources and reclaim farmlands lost during the Dust Bowl. For instance, in southeastern Kansas extensive efforts were made to reclaim land violated by strip mining. Thousands of acres of strip mine pits were partially filled, planted with trees, and stocked with fish to create recreational parkland. Likewise, in southcentral Kansas, shelterbelts planted on over 16,000 acres of farmland began to reverse the effects of the Dust Bowl within three years.

New Deal projects that affected **cultural landscape elements** included everything from construction of sidewalks, curbs and gutters to designed parks, fairgrounds and cemeteries, and reforestation and reclamation projects. These projects included informal natural landscapes as well as highly formal arrangements of paths and structures. In addition to the conservation-related resources described above, landscape elements might include entrances, walls or fences and/or a designed network of paths or roads that in some cases encircled a natural or manmade body of water. Additional efforts included grading, clearing or planting trees, and other landscaping efforts.

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REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

General Requirements

To be eligible for the National Register under this context, a resource must have been constructed using labor and/or funds from one or more federal agencies or the Kansas Emergency Relief Committee (KERC) during the New Deal Era. The period of significance begins in 1932 with the establishment of the Kansas Federal Relief Committee and concludes in 1943 when funding to the last of the New Deal agencies, the Works Progress Administration (WPA), ceased.

In addition to new construction, communities used New Deal funds and programs to remodel many existing buildings. In order to be eligible for the Register under this context the remodeling must have been substantial enough that the defining historic character of the property reflects the alterations made during the New Deal era. In most cases, unless that remodeling was substantial and continues to define the historic character of the building, the primary significance of remodeled properties will not be for their association with the New Deal context.

Likewise, many New Deal-era properties were subsequently remodeled or added on to. These resources may still be eligible for the Register under this context if the alterations were completed in a sympathetic manner that leaves the New Deal-era character-defining features of the property intact. For instance a New Deal-era school with an addition located on a secondary elevation that has complementary massing, materials, and rhythm of openings might still be eligible for Register listing. However, if the addition obscures or supercedes the New Deal building, the resource is unlikely to remain significant under this context.

All resources eligible under this context will have significance under Criterion A for their association with the New Deal program. It is also possible that some resources will have additional significance under Criterion B or C if their design and/or construction was associated with a specific person significant to the community or project; if the design was completed by a notable architect or engineer; or if the design is a distinctive example of architecture or engineering from that period. For a resource to be eligible under Criterion D, it must be able to yield information about a project or program funded by KERC or the New Deal agencies. Examples might include abandoned CCC or resettlement camps or poor farm complexes.

Aspects of Integrity

Resources nominated to the National Register under this MPS must retain the physical features that define the New Deal-era character of the property. Integrity in the areas of design, materials, workmanship, and in some cases setting, as detailed below, are most critical. When looked at together, these aspects of integrity define the New Deal property's feeling and association. Less critical to the significance of a resource is location. A New Deal property that had been moved from its original

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location would be subject to the same standards for Criteria Consideration B as properties significant under other contexts.

Design: The designs of New Deal resources vary from simple utilitarian forms to vernacular, and occasionally high style, examples of architectural styles. Civic, educational, and larger institutional buildings often employed designs that combined the formal symmetry of classical architecture with the streamlined, stylized geometry of the Art Deco and Moderne movements. However, buildings significant under this MPS might also express attributes of Arts and Crafts, Tudor Revival, Colonial Revival or other formal architectural styles popular during this period. It was common during this era for recreational and parks buildings in particular to express elements of rustic architecture appropriate to their natural context.

As befitting their function, utilitarian buildings and structures, such as those associated with public works, conservation and transportation uses, were very simple in design. Examples such as garages and maintenance facilities for public works departments were typically of masonry construction with a simple one-part commercial block form. Ornament, if any, was limited to simple cast stone details, such as window lintels or sills. Concrete was nearly universal in its use for engineered structures, such as water treatment plants, dams, etc. There was an occasional reference to Moderne styling, such as the striated banding that encircles the waterworks facility in Pittsburg.

Where a complex of buildings or structures was historically associated with the New Deal context, it is important that the relationship of multiple resource elements remains intact. For example, one extant building from a poor farm probably will not be eligible for the Register under this context because it alone cannot convey the historic function and significance of the property.

Where the New Deal projects affected cultural landscape elements, any evaluation must consider the integrity landscape features that contributed to its original design and function.

Materials and Workmanship: Resources significant under this MPS might be constructed of any and all materials, although masonry building materials were most common. Because the New Deal programs were designed to provide jobs and to remove people from the welfare rolls, resources were often constructed in the most labor-intensive manner possible. Hand labor was used as frequently as possible, even when more time and cost efficient mechanical methods were available. The predominant building materials used in an individual community reflected the resources most easily accessible to that community. Where stone was abundant, the construction featured stone. Where stone was less abundant, brick was dominant. Concrete was the material of choice for engineered structures. New Deal cultural landscape features were predominantly masonry as well. Stone or brick walls, often with elaborate joints, encircle many athletic fields, cemeteries, and parks. Concrete paths and stone and concrete footbridges and picnic amenities (tables, benches, and fireplaces) were very common as well.

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The substantial nature of the construction contributed in part to the endurance of many of these resources and distinguishes New Deal resources from similar resources that were not constructed through the federal programs.

Setting: It is important that a resource's setting continue to reflect its original function and environment. New Deal resources are found in urban and rural contexts. While extensive demolition or new development in the immediate vicinity might compromise a property's integrity of setting, this will be most critical to the evaluation of resources, such as parks and recreation facilities, which were defined largely by their natural resources and landscape.

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GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

The area included in this Multiple Property Submission is the State of Kansas.

SUMMARY OF IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION METHODS

The Multiple Property Nomination for *New Deal-era Resources of Kansas* is based upon archival research and limited field survey conducted by Historic Preservation Services (HPS) during the winter and spring of 2001. The model for the nomination and source of much of the background information was a similar statewide multiple property nomination prepared for South Dakota in 1998 by Michelle L. Dennis. Because New Deal resources are so varied in nature and so densely and broadly distributed across the state, the Cultural Resources Division of the Kansas State Historical Society (KSHS) asked HPS to complete an intensive survey of New Deal-era resources in only two Kansas counties – Crawford in the southeastern corner of the state and Dickinson in central Kansas.

Prior to the field survey, HPS gathered preliminary information about New Deal projects in Kansas. Two primary sources were the WPA records on microfilm at the KSHS Archives in Topeka and materials related to the Kansas Emergency Relief Committee (KERC) in the John Stutz Collection at the Spencer Library, University of Kansas in Lawrence and in the KERC Collection also at the KSHS Archives. Additional information about the New Deal and its role in Kansas was gathered at the Linda Hall Library at the University of Missouri-Kansas City and at the Midcontinent Public Library, Independence, Missouri. Especially helpful were the KERC bulletins, which reported the amount of funds spent in each county and included photos of selected projects, and a KERC-published final report describing the projects completed in Kansas using CWA funds.

During the research period, HPS also prepared a press release about the project asking local residents to contact the county historical society if that had knowledge of or information about a particular New Deal-funded project. No responses were received from the general public to that inquiry.

The archival information provided HPS with a remarkably complete list of New Deal-era resources for each county at the start of the field survey. The first goal of the survey was to verify which resources remain extant. Working from the previously compiled lists, HPS field verified the presence of the reported resources during March and April 2001, taking exterior black and white photographs of each extant resource. In many instances it was necessary for the surveyor to inquire at the county historical society, City Hall, a school or the school board offices, or the local library to locate a specific resource or to verify its existence. These stops also provided an opportunity to inquire about other New Deal-era resources that the initial research might have overlooked. A computer database (Microsoft Access 7.0)

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recorded physical and historical information about each property, including each building's physical features (plan, height, materials) as well as historical information (date of construction, alterations, New Deal agency and funding) about each property.

Interestingly, the two counties surveyed provided contrasting results. Crawford County, in southeastern Kansas, was very poor during the 1930s. Its economy was based on mining, an industry that suffered significantly before and after the Depression. As HPS anticipated, Crawford County received a significant share of New Deal funds and many projects were constructed. However, since then most of these resources have been demolished. Only 21 remained extant. Most notably, many schools in small crossroads mining camp towns that were built or remodeled using New Deal funds have long since been vanished along with their associated communities. Also notable was the presence of the CCC in Crawford County. Camps located near Farlington and Frontenac were responsible for constructing two county parks, one of which was reclaimed from former mining strip pits. Other resources extant in Crawford County include city parks, athletic stadiums, a water treatment plant, schools, civic buildings and the county fairgrounds.

The economy of Dickinson County, although agriculturally based, was much more stable during the Depression era. It received a smaller share of New Deal funds, but retains a much higher percentage of those resources than does Crawford. The 26 extant New Deal resources in Dickinson County include a number of schools, parks, swimming pools and bath houses, a jail, and a post office with a mural. Remarkably only a handful of New Deal resources in Dickinson County had been demolished, and the remaining resources were exceedingly well cared for and typically continue to serve their original functions.

In addition to the National Register Multiple Property Documentation Form for *New Deal-era Resources in Kansas*, HPS prepared a National Register nomination for the City Park in Abilene. In consultation with the KSHS, HPS reviewed the survey data to identify those properties that possessed sufficient integrity to merit listing on the National Register. Assessment of integrity focused on the condition of original building materials and the degree of alterations to the original designs. Owner interest in National Register designation also factored in to the final selection of a property to be nominated. The quality of its original design, its multiple components, and its outstanding integrity made the Abilene park an obvious choice for National Register nomination. HPS contacted the City of Abilene for their approval to nominate the park, and conducted a second round of fieldwork, which involved additional photographic documentation and historical research of the park. Color slides as well as black and white photographs were taken.

The Multiple Property Documentation Form focuses on one historic context – The KERC and the New Deal in Kansas, 1932-1943, which is detailed in Section E of this nomination. To prepare this context,

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HPS focused archival research on three areas: 1) primary and secondary source information about the New Deal, its agencies and their operation; 2) information about the KERC and its relationship to the federal agencies; and 3) specific information about New Deal programs in Kansas. As mentioned above, much of the background information on the New Deal programs came from the National Register Multiple Property Nomination for *Federal Relief Construction in South Dakota, 1929-1941*. Another helpful overview of the New Deal and its various agencies was James Olson's *Encyclopedia on the New Deal*, which provides a brief but detailed description of every federal agency including its history, its budget, and the number of people employed or aided. Factual information and established historical contexts from the *Kansas Preservation Plan* provided insight into the New Deal-era in Kansas, as did the reprint of *The WPA Guide to 1930s Kansas*.

The best information about the KERC was obtained from the agency's published bulletins, mentioned above and noted in the bibliography. Most helpful in determining the role the agency played in relief projects, these bulletins detail the amount of relief spent in each Kansas county and include a few photos of selected county projects. They are located at the Kansas State Historical Society Archives and in the John Stutz Collection housed at the Spencer Library, Kansas Collection at the University of Kansas in Lawrence.

Specific information about the impact of the federal relief programs was somewhat more difficult to find, with the exception of the Civil Works Administration. For the CWA, the KERC published a final report that described how CWA monies were spent in different counties and in particular communities. This report is located in the John Stutz Collection, previously mentioned, and in the KERC collection at the Kansas State Historical Society Archives in Topeka.

Most of the information regarding the Civilian Conservation Corps in Kansas was taken from a yearbook of the Kansas-Missouri District, published in 1937. It should be noted that the County Park near Farlington, in Crawford County, videotaped oral histories with many members of the 778th CCC Company, who built the park, during a reunion in the late 1990s.

The most helpful information on the Public Works Administration came from a book published by the PWA in 1939 that detailed the number of projects and project types completed by the agency in every state. The book is a photographic essay of the projects the agency constructed; however, it does not feature every PWA project in every state. Therefore, while it lists how many schools were built statewide, their exact location is unknown unless they are shown in the photographic essay portion of the book.

The Works Progress Administration projects are easier to identify because a list of projects has been compiled for each county. Available on microfilm this information can be found at the KSHS Archives

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in Topeka. The microfilm contains project data sheets which detail where the project was completed, the type of project, and the cost of the project. A ten-page publication entitled the *Federal Works Agency* lists WPA projects completed in Kansas from July 1, 1935 through June 1, 1939. However, this publication only lists the aggregate numbers of projects completed statewide and does not identify specific projects completed in each county. The publication does have seven pages of photographs that illustrate some of the completed construction projects as well as projects completed in the Women's and Professional Division.

Information about the WPA Women's and Professional Division can be found in documents housed in the Special Collections and University Archives at Pittsburg State University. These reports detail by WPA district the projects completed in counties and towns across Kansas. Additional information about the accomplishments of the Women's and Professional Division can be found in the publication, *Federal Works Agency*, discussed above.

Newspapers and vertical files available through the KSHS archives as well as through county historical societies and municipal libraries provided more specific information about New Deal projects in the counties surveyed. Vertical files and newspaper clippings were most helpful in determining dates of construction, sources of funds, and any architects or builders. Because the majority of the New Deal resources were public projects, they were generally well documented in the public record. In many cases once a vertical file yielded a dedication or construction date, HPS was able to locate additional information from unindexed local newspapers.

Resources related to the New Deal context include a vast array of resource types. Buildings run the gamut from large public edifices with grand public spaces to small utilitarian buildings. Other resources include formal and informal elements of cultural landscape and engineered structures. To best address this assemblage, this Multiple Property nomination identified property types based on the broad functional categories described in National Register Bulletin 16A. Therefore, large high-style public buildings might be defined as CIVIC, INSTITUTIONAL or EDUCATIONAL resources based on their function. AGRICULTURE, RECREATION and TRANSPORTATION property types could include cultural landscape elements. Ultimately, the ability of a resource to be listed on the National Register through this Multiple Property Submission will be determined by the degree to which it retains integrity, particularly in the areas of design, materials, workmanship and setting, and conveys its association with a New Deal-era program.

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