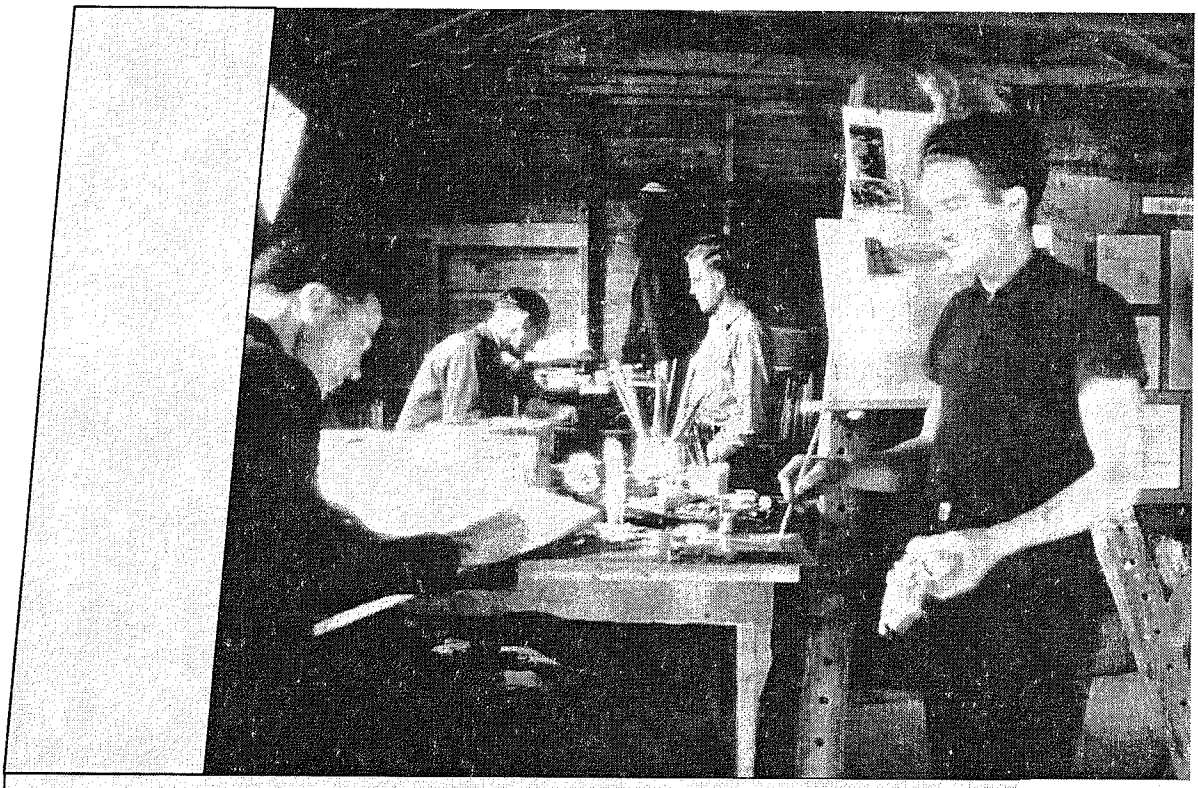

Federal Relief Construction in South Dakota, 1929-1941

South Dakota State Historic Preservation Office

FEDERAL RELIEF CONSTRUCTION

IN SOUTH DAKOTA, 1929-1941

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INTRODUCTION

The Federal Relief Construction in South Dakota, 1929-1941, context document has been developed to provide a broad overview of the history of federal relief programs in South Dakota during the Great Depression. As a state, South Dakota was the recipient of the benefits of several federal programs, many of which resulted in physical resources. Examples of these resources can be found throughout the state today.

This document has been written to supplement *The Historic Contexts for Historic and Architectural Resources in South Dakota*. It has, however, been organized in an overall thematic grouping of resources related to federal relief programs rather than the chronological approach employed in the South Dakota Historic Contexts document. This approach reflects the different purpose of each work. The South Dakota Historic Contexts document is intended for use as a tool for institutional planning efforts and academic pursuits. The Federal Relief Construction document is designed to be used as a guide for the identification, evaluation and treatment of a particular set of physical elements that exist in and derive significance from only one period of time – the Great Depression, 1929-1941. Both documents, however, identify patterns of historic development, which provide the basis for understanding the context in which particular resources exist.

The following sections are included in this document: Context Description, Historic Overview, and Identification and Evaluation of Related Historic Properties. A selected bibliography and appendices can be found at the end of this document. Information presented in this document is a result of research through records maintained at the National Archives in Washington, DC, the South Dakota State Archives, the South Dakota State Library, the Briggs Library at South Dakota State University, various municipal libraries throughout South Dakota, and various state and county agency offices and records. Although no comprehensive survey was completed in conjunction with this project, additional information was gathered through field research that included on-site visits of various resources around the state.

The author wishes to stress that this is a working document which will continue to evolve as research and careful consideration dictate. It is intended to address a wide audience from the cultural resource management professional to the layperson interested in researching local history. There are still gaps in understanding all the nuances and effects that each federal relief program had on South Dakota. The organization and administration of most programs changed repeatedly throughout the course of the Great Depression, which in some cases resulted in poor record keeping. Consequently, there are gaps in the information located for this project and a need for further research and survey work to identify and locate related resources. Readers should also note that all photographs in this document are labeled according to their use at the time of construction. While many of the resources continue in their original use, a number of resources are now used for other purposes or are no longer used at all.

Context documents serve as planning tools for state and local agencies that address historic preservation issues. As a planning tool, this document conforms to The Secretary of the Interior's *Standards for Preservation Planning* and is based on the following principles:

- Significant historic properties are unique and irreplaceable.
- Preservation must often go forward without complete information.
- Planning can be applied at any scale.
- History belongs to everyone.

Information in this document will aid in planning efforts and decision-making with regards to historic resources related to Federal Relief Construction. As South Dakota is faced with future development and expansion, the need to protect and preserve these resources will increase. It is the hope that this document will assist with the effort to identify, evaluate and protect those resources that contribute greatly to the history of South Dakota.

CONTEXT DESCRIPTION

Context studies are best understood when their boundaries are clearly defined. Generally, these boundaries are defined by three parameters. These parameters are "theme," "place," and "time." Each of these elements contributes to the context definition and description. This context project has been defined as study of Federal Relief Construction in South Dakota, 1929 –1941.

THEME

Defining the "theme" of a context study names *what* is to be studied. The theme of this project is Federal Relief Construction. It addresses the development of historic resources, such as buildings, structures, sites, and objects, that were constructed in relation to the federal relief programs of the Great Depression. These resources may include those that were financed by federal relief programs, such as the Public Works Administration (PWA), and/or those that were constructed by workers employed through federal relief employment projects, such as the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) or the Works Progress Administration (WPA).

PLACE

Defining the "place" or spatial boundary of a context study describes its geographic limits. The spatial boundary for this project includes the entire state of South Dakota. The Great Depression touched all corners of South Dakota and nearly all of the state's counties, cities and towns benefited from federal relief programs. Much of this relief was in the form of construction projects, a number of which can be found today from the rural countryside to the urban centers. All federal relief resources within South Dakota are associated with this context study.

TIME

Defining the time or temporal boundary of a context study establishes bracketing dates for the period under study. The temporal boundary for this project has been established as 1929 – 1941. This period encompasses the time period between the stock market crash in 1929, which is often referred to as the beginning of the Great Depression, and the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941, which signaled the United States entrance into World War II and the end of most federal relief programs that were still operating at that time.

HISTORIC OVERVIEW

This section provides a historic overview of the Great Depression and the federal relief programs developed to address the economic crisis of the times. It provides a context for understanding and evaluating the physical resources that were constructed in South Dakota as a result of these federal programs. These programs, of which all but one, were established under Roosevelt's New Deal administration and included various direct relief and works projects. Although the direct relief programs were significant in their assistance at stemming the tide of destitution, it was the works projects that put America back to work and resulted in the construction of the many resources we have come to identify as symbols of the New Deal era and the federal relief programs that built them. These programs are described on the following pages.

THE PROLOGUE YEARS AND THE GREAT DEPRESSION

The decade following World War I has been depicted as the "Roaring Twenties": an era of liberated women (who won the vote in 1920), speakeasies and bootleg gin, dance crazes, movie madness, and Wall Street gamblers. It was also one of "cultural conformism, religious fundamentalism, materialistic self-centeredness, business worship, and rank bigotry."[1] Following a brief postwar recession, the American economy blossomed and the dream of measureless prosperity glimmered throughout much of the decade. Most Americans had had their fill of self-sacrifice and were ready to pursue their material dreams. For many, those dreams were to be fulfilled through the game of speculation.

In the mid-1920s, speculation found a home in the arena of real estate. Before long, investors discovered the Stock Exchange. In 1928 and 1929, driven by a kind of mass madness, the bull market resulted in numbers that were intoxicating. Millions played the game and soon much of the available capital was sucked into the market. In September 1929, the market began to stall. On Tuesday, October 29, the stock market lost $15 billion. The total loss for the month was $50 billion. Between Labor Day and the end of October, the leading industrial stocks in the United States lost 40 percent of their value. While the stock market crash signaled the beginning of the Great Depression, it did not "cause" the depression. Overproduction, a widening gap between wages and productivity, and a slump in consumerism contributed to the economic crisis.

Although most of the American population did not suffer direct loss of stock investments, they felt the depression in other ways. Shops and factories closed and unemployment rose. Banks failed, taking with them millions of dollars in deposits nationwide. Within the first six months following the stock market crash, unemployment climbed from 1.5 million to 3.2 million. Before the end of 1930 it rose to at least 7.5 million. By early 1932, unemployment was approaching 12 million.[2] More than 1,350

[1] T. H. Watkins, The Great Depression (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1993), 23.

[2] Ibid., 54-55.

banks closed in 1930 representing more than $853 million in deposits. In 1931, another 2,294 banks failed with deposits of nearly $1.7 billion. In 1930, more than 26,350 businesses closed with another 28,285 failures in 1931.[3]

Long before the stock market crash in 1929, South Dakota was feeling the effects of a depression. The postwar economy suffered as farm prices fell and land values shrank. By the end of 1920, the decline in farm income made it difficult for farmers to meet obligations and a bank crisis was in the making. Large and small banks were forced into insolvency as the financial structure sagged. By 1925, 175 state banks had closed their doors. Between 1920 and 1930, real estate values decreased 58 percent. During that same period there were nearly 23,000 farm foreclosures in the state.[4] The situation worsened as the full impact of the stock market crash and the Great Depression was felt. An additional 11,500 farm foreclosures occurred in 1931 and 1932. By 1934, a total of 71 percent of all South Dakota's banks had failed.[5]

In addition to the economic woes, a series of natural conditions plagued South Dakota throughout the 1930s. Much of the Great Plains, which became known as the Dust Bowl, endured droughts, dust storms, grasshopper plagues and severe winters. The rural landscape was often a desolate one, as much of South Dakota's farmland lay barren.

The economic crisis following the stock market crash was for South Dakota, as most states, all but overwhelming. As the situation progressively worsened throughout the country during the early 1930s, it became clear that any relief would need to come through assistance from the federal government.

RELIEF UNDER THE HOOVER ADMINISTRATION

The Reconstruction Finance Corporation

President Hoover believed that the Depression was a crisis of confidence and that the economy would not revive until private bankers increased business loans. He also held to the firm belief that direct aid to the individual was not the business of the federal government and he called upon the natural generosity of the American people and the paternalism of local governments to provide charity.

The prolonged crisis, however, forced him to organize the National Credit Corporation to address the banking crisis in 1931. Its failure was obvious by December of that year, so Hoover called on Congress to establish the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC). The RFC was a direct descendent of the War Finance Corporation.

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[3] Ibid., 55.

[4] Herbert S. Schell, History of South Dakota (Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press, 1961), 283.

[5] Ibid., 283-284.

Both were viewed as temporary institutions of state capitalism hoping to revive private money markets with injections of government money. This revival of normal credit channels would in turn stimulate business production and employment.

By July 1932, the RFC had loaned more than $1 billion to 4000 banks, railroads, credit unions and mortgage loan companies. The loans did little to stimulate commercial credit, business investment, production, or employment. Although he did not like the idea of federal relief, Hoover realized there was no longer an alternative and introduced a relief bill creating the Emergency Relief and Construction Act. This act provided $300 million for RFC relief loans to states and $1.5 billion for loans on self-liquidating public works construction projects.[6]

The RFC's relief and public works construction projects did little to help the Depression. The RFC was inundated with requests for public works and relief loans. The public works program was delayed until 1933 and the self-liquidating aspect involved time-consuming delays. By March 1933, the RFC had approved 92 applications totaling $197 million, but had disbursed only $20 million. The relief division, however, managed to loan $300 million.[7]

By 1932, South Dakota was well into a prolonged economic crisis and in need of federal assistance. A State Relief Commission was established which consisted of Governor Warren E. Green (ex-officio chair), W.C. Lusk from Yankton, B.C. Yates from Lead, Henry McGrath from Aberdeen, R.F. Looby from Artesian, and M.Q. Sharpe from Kennebec. It was this committee's responsibility to make requests to the RFC on behalf of the state. Roy L. Emry was appointed State Relief Director. He was succeeded by W.L. Eales in June 1933.

By the time the relief and public works programs of the RFC were created, an estimated 18,713 South Dakota families were in need of relief (South Dakota's total population at the time was approximately 682,000). Between August 1932 and May 1933, the state received five loans from the RFC for relief and public works construction projects for a total of $1,703,945. The total amounts of these loans were:

Loan #1 =	$50,000 (8/18/32)
Loan #2 =	$280,695 (two installments: 10/21/32; 11/1/32)
Loan #3 =	$290,000 (two installments: 12/3/32; 12/17/32)
Loan #4 =	$673,300 (two installments: 1/10/33; 2/10/33)
Loan #5 =	$409,950 (disbursed through several installments between 3/10/33 and 5/9/33)

[6] James S. Olson, Saving Capitalism, The Reconstruction Finance Corporation and the New Deal, 1933-1940 (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1988), 18-19.

[7] Ibid., 21.

Little information about how these funds were distributed in South Dakota was found. A 1935 report on public works indicates that all but two counties (Hamlin and Armstrong) received RFC funds between 1931 and 1935. The majority of counties received a total allotment of between $2,000 and $27,000. Minnehaha and Pennington Counties each received a total of between $102,000 and $127,000, followed by Codington and Beadle Counties having each received a total of between $77,000 and $102,000. Funds were used primarily for road construction projects, although loans were also given to banks, trust companies, building and loan associations, insurance companies, and mortgage loan associations.[8] Five RFC public works projects have been identified in Minnehaha County. They include the initial construction on the dam over Split Rock Creek at Garretson, repair of a dam on the Big Sioux River in Dell Rapids, and street graveling projects in Humboldt, Hartford, and Valley Springs. It is likely that other counties used the money for similar projects.

Although the RFC loaned more than $1.6 billion to thousands of financial institutions and eventually developed a relief and public works program, it essentially was too little, too late. The political controversy of the program was disastrous for Hoover and despite the RFC programs, the nation's economy ground to a halt by March 1933.

ROOSEVELT'S NEW DEAL PROGRAMS

When Franklin Roosevelt took office on March 4, 1933 the economy was at a standstill and it was clear that existing relief programs were greatly insufficient. The time was ripe for change and the new administration was ready for the task. Roosevelt brought with him men and women who became collectively known as the New Dealers. In the span of a few short weeks, the "Hundred Days" (March 9 through June 16) of the "first" New Deal set in motion more administrative action and initiated more legislation than any similar period of history before or since.

Roosevelt did not share Hoover's views that individual charity and local governments could alone feed and clothe and house the needy. One of his earliest and most lasting goals was to provide federal relief (direct and work relief) to as many people as possible as soon as possible. The first order of business was to put the banking business back on sound footing. Beginning Monday morning, March 6, Roosevelt declared a four-day "bank holiday." On March 9, Congress passed the Emergency Banking Act of 1933 and by March 13, banks had begun to reopen.

By the end of June, Congress had passed a number of legislative acts aimed at providing relief and had established the programs that are often referred to as the "alphabet soup" of the New Deal. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA), the

[8] South Dakota State Planning Board, Public Works: A Preliminary Report of S. Dak. Works Projects (Brookings, SD: Central Planning Board Office, 1935), 28-29, 84.

National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA), and the Public Works Administration (PWA) were all in place by the end of the "Hundred Days." These programs, although not able to fully stop the economic decline, provided a turning point from which the Roosevelt administration was able to address the worst economic crisis in America's history.

Additional programs followed, including the Civil Works Administration (CWA), the Works Progress Administration (WPA), and the National Youth Administration (NYA), as did various legislative acts aimed at rectifying additional problems which contributed to or grew out of the Great Depression. While many of the New Deal programs provided direct relief to the needy, several provided employment opportunities and resulted in the construction of various buildings, structures, sites, and objects in South Dakota.

Civilian Conservation Corps

In General

On March 21, 1933 President Roosevelt sent a message to Congress proposing to establish a program to enlist young unemployed men in an "army" to work on federal public lands doing forestry, prevention of soil erosion, flood control, and similar projects. Before the end of the month, Congress had passed the Emergency Conservation Work Act and authorized the President to establish the Civilian Corps Reforestation Youth Rehabilitation Movement. The name of the program immediately became known as the Civilian Conservation Corps, the name Roosevelt used in his congressional address.

Rather than establish a new federal bureaucracy, responsibility for the program was divided among four existing departments. The Department of Labor screened and selected enrollees. The Department of War was responsible for providing medical exams, organizing the enrollees into companies, clothing and equipping the men, and conditioning them for work in the field. The Department of War was also charged with the construction of the CCC camps and their operation and maintenance, including the housing, feeding, clothing, and welfare of the enrollees. The Department of the Interior was in charge of the direction of work projects in the National Parks and Monuments, the General Land Office, the Office of Education, and the Bureaus of Indian Affairs and Reclamation. The Department of Agriculture was responsible for projects associated with the United States Forest Service, the Soil Conservation Service, and the Bureaus of Biological Survey, Plant Industry, Animal Industry, Entomology, Agricultural Engineering, and Chemistry and Soils. The Forest Service coordinated projects on state and private lands as well as those in the national forests.[9]

Robert Fechner, a friend of Roosevelt's from Boston, became the director of the new program. Fechner, who had a long career in the labor movement, proved to be a

[9] Perry H. Merrill, Roosevelt's Forest Army: A History of the Civilian Conservation Corps 1933-1942 (Montpelier, VT: published by the author, 1981), 7-8.

capable director. His assistant, James J. McEntee, assumed the directorship upon Fechner's death in 1940.[10] The Emergency Conservation Work Act also established an Advisory Council composed of representatives from the Departments of Labor, War, Agriculture and the Interior. The Council was purely advisory in nature, as Fechner was granted full authority for the program, subject only to presidential veto.[11]

Enrollees in the CCC had to be male U.S. citizens between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five, unmarried, out of school, out of work, and capable of physical labor. The enlistment period was for six months with the option of reenlistment for additional six-month periods up to a maximum of two years. Enrollees were paid $30 per month of which $25 was sent home to their families. They were expected to work a 40-hour week and adhere to camp rules.[12] In addition, the CCC provided educational opportunities for the enrollees. Fundamental skills, such as reading and writing, as well as more advanced schooling in vocational and technical skills and on-the-job training were provided. Classes were taught by CCC technical personnel and teachers from local or nearby communities. These programs provided enrollees with better chances of securing jobs when they left the corps. More than 90 percent of all enrollees participated in some facet of the education programs.[13]

Within the first few weeks of the program, policy decisions extended the number of men enrolled in the program. On April 14 the President directed that the program be opened to enroll 14,000 Native American Indians. Chronic unemployment and soil erosion problems on the reservations had been problematic. The program was modified for the "Indian CCC." Enrollees could be married and live at home to care for families and raise their food. Tribal councils selected the enrollees and work projects focused on physical improvements of natural resources on the reservations. Indian CCC work projects were carried out in 23 states.[14]

On April 22, the decision was made to also enroll 24,000 "local experienced men" (known as LEMs) because the Forest Service did not have enough personnel to adequately supervise 250,000 men working in the forests. These LEMs were local craftsmen who were recruited to teach enrollees and assist technical staff. Initially the selection of LEMs was handled under the direction of the Department of Labor, but in 1935, state representatives was granted full authority for recruiting local LEMs.[15]

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[10] Stan Cohen, The Tree Army (Missoula, MT: Pictorial Histories Publishing Company, 1980), 6.

[11] Merrill, 6-7.

[12] Cohen, 7-8.

[13] Alison T. Otis, William D. Honey, Thomas C. Hogg, and Kimberly K. Lakin, The Forest Service and the Civilian Conservation Corps: 1933-42 (Washington, DC: The U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1986), 11.

[14] Merrill, 12.

[15] John A. Salmond, The Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942: A New Deal Case Study (Durham, NC: Duke University press, 1967), 34.

On May 11, enrollment of 25,000 veterans of World War I was authorized with no age or marital limitations imposed. Veterans, with an average age of forty and often impaired by their war experiences, were hit hard by the Great Depression. When they approached Washington for assistance in 1932 as the "Bonus Army," they were turned away. Enrollment in their own CCC camps in 1933 provided some of the assistance they sought. The veterans were selected on a state quota system by the Veterans Administration. Performing conservation work modified to suit their age and physical conditions, many veterans found the CCC a kind of rehabilitation center. Here they could earn a living, benefit from the medical and educational programs and rekindle their feelings of hope.[16]

Policy decisions in July and August included the establishment of "side camps" and the authorization to use CCC units to fight forest fires. Side camps, also known as spike or fly camps, were used in locations where there was too much travel time to and from the main camp. They were usually task specific and of short duration and were widely used in forests and state parks. Without these camps, much of the peripheral work would not have been accomplished. The decision to use the CCC units to fight fires began a long chronicle of CCC assistance in local and national emergencies. In addition to fighting fires, they also provided assistance following floods, blizzards, tornadoes, and hurricanes.[17]

When the CCC was officially launched on April 5, 1933 the initial call was for 250,000 men to be enrolled by July 1. The first enrollees signed on April 7. Ten days later, the first camp was opened in the George Washington National Forest near Luray, Virginia. The initial plans called for 1,468 camps around the country and the cost for the first year was estimated at $500 million.[18]

During May and June, every effort was made to enroll and prepare the numbers of men needed to make the program a success. Daily gains ranged from 5,890 men on May 16 to a peak of 13,843 on June 1, with an average daily gain of 8,700 men. By July 1, more than 270,000 enrollees occupied 1,330 camps in forests throughout the country and by the end of the year, enrollment had increased to 300,000. A presidential executive order in July 1934 increased the strength of the CCC to 350,000 and allotted an additional $275 million to cover the cost. By the end of 1934, the CCC was a smooth-running organization.[19]

Camps typically consisted of about 200 men, although there were some smaller camps. Originally, enrollees were housed in canvas tents, which were intended for all

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[16] Ibid., 35-37.

[17] Ibid., 46.

[18] Watkins, 130.

[19] Leslie Alexander Lacy, The Soil Soldiers: The Civilian Conservation Corps in the Great Depression (Radnor, PA: Chilton Book Company, 1976), 26, 64.

CCC camps, but cost feasibility of lumber products resulted in a change in policy. By November 1933, the CCC had more than 40,000 carpenters utilizing more than 300 million board feet of lumber for CCC camps in 46 states. Not only did this policy provide more durable camp sites, but it also benefited the lumber, manufacturing and construction industries as well. Because the Army was in charge of camp construction, designs for all structures and buildings were standardized (see Figures 1 and 2). Step-by-step instructions for construction from the ground clearing to the finished work were provided, as were directions for all materials and dimensions. By 1934, the plans were notably precise and the layout of the camps was fairly uniform (see Figure 3), although the sites themselves sometimes dictated the camps' layouts. Portable camp buildings were also introduced in 1934, and were quickly shown to be cost effective, they became a standard feature in about half of the camps by 1935.[20]

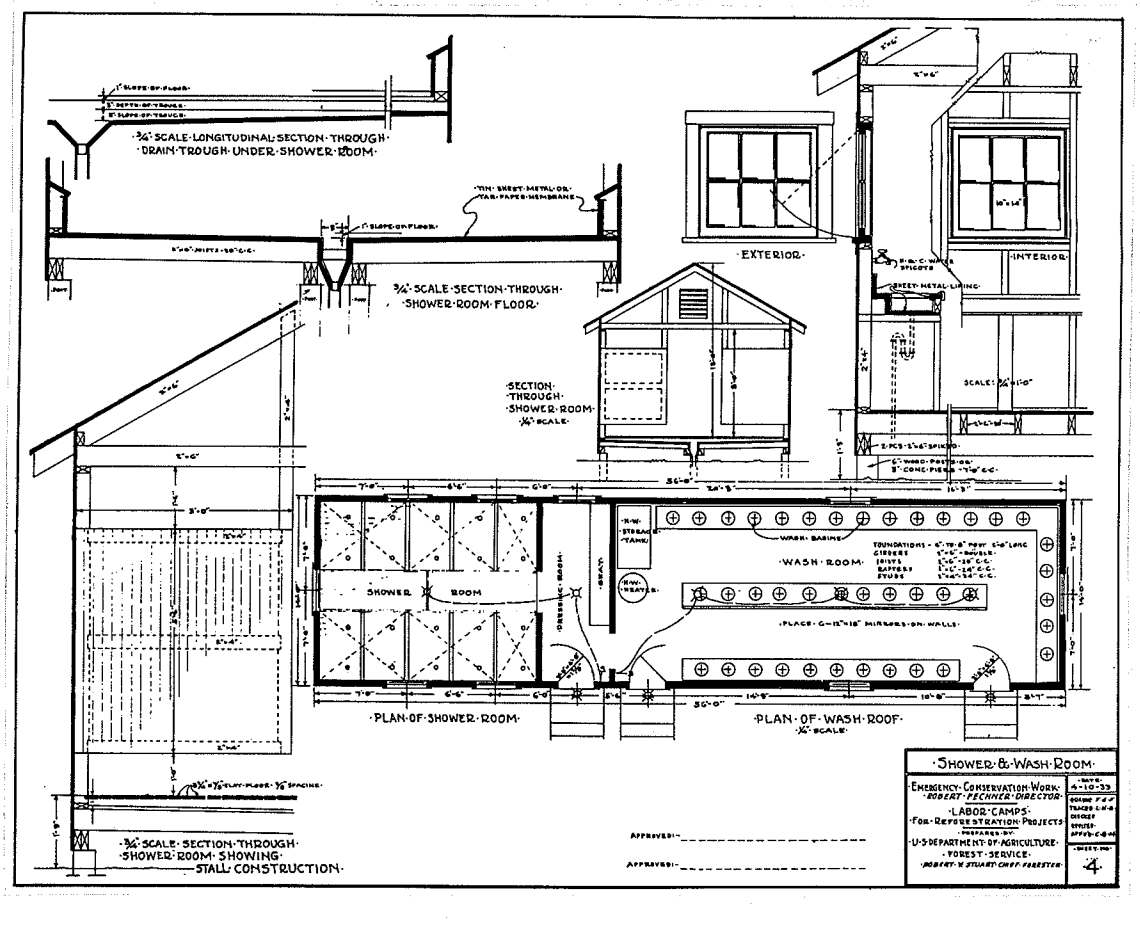

Figure 1. Standardized plan for CCC camp shower and wash room.
(National Archives 95, series 94)

[20] Otis, 8-9.

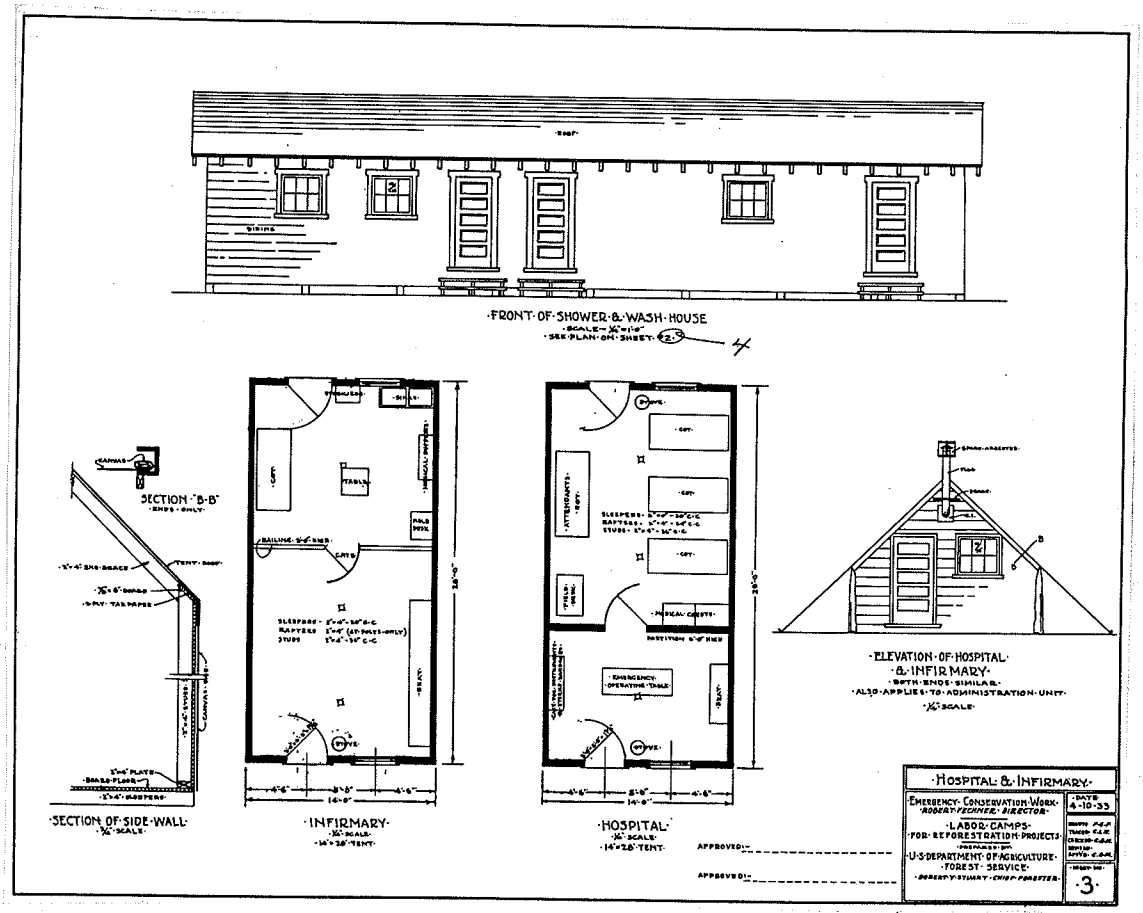

Figure 2. Standardized plan for CCC camp hospital and infirmary.
(National Archives 95, series 94)

Camps were named and numbered. Names generally came from the camp's association with a nearby town or landscape features. Camp numbers were proceeded by a letter designation indicating the camp's affiliation. These letter designations included the following categories, which were sometimes used in combination and may have changed over the course of the camp's duration if the focus of its work was changed:

F = Forest Service Camp
NP = National Park Service
SP = State Park Service
S = State Forest
SCS = Soil Conservation Service
BR = U.S. Bureau of Reclamation
BF = U.S. Fish and Wildlife
D = Drought Relief
SE = Soil Erosion Service
P = Private Land

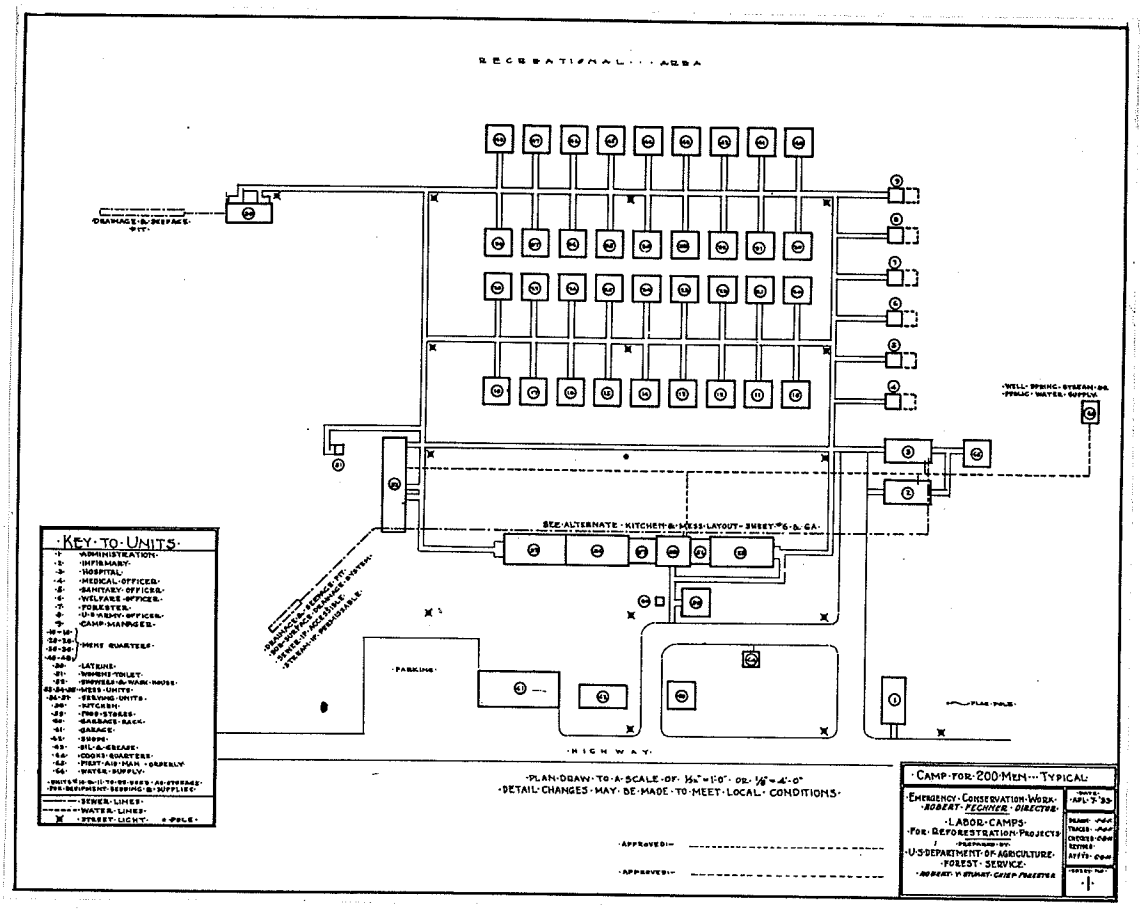

Figure 3. Typical CCC camp layout for 200 men.
(National Archives 95, series 94)

Enrollees were organized into companies, which were also given numbers. Companies then received assignments to camps to work on specific work projects. Often companies were moved to new camps when their original work assignments were completed or as need dictated. As companies relocated, some camps were closed and dismantled, but other camps were assigned new companies to do additional work projects. In some cases, camps may have housed a number of companies during the course of their duration if they existed for any length of time.

The types of work projects varied somewhat from state to state and from park to park, but projects generally fell into ten classifications.[21] These included:

[21] Merrill, 9.

- Structural Improvements – including bridges, fire towers, service buildings
- Transportation – including truck trails, minor roads, foot trails and airport landing fields
- Erosion Control – including check dams, terracing and vegetative covering
- Flood Control – including irrigation and drainage, dams, ditching, channel work, and riprapping
- Forest Protection – including fire fighting, prevention and suppression, insect and disease control
- Landscape and Recreation – including development and improvement to public campgrounds and picnic grounds, lake and pond clearing
- Range – including stock driveways and elimination of predatory animals
- Wildlife – including steam improvement, stocking fish, and cover planting
- Miscellaneous – including emergency work, surveys, historic restorations, and mosquito control

Congress continued faithfully to reauthorize the program over the next seven years. In order that more men might benefit from the program, it was again expanded in the spring of 1935. At its peak, the CCC had more than 600,000 men enrolled in 2,652 camps. In January 1936, the strength of the corps was reduced to 428,000 in 2,428 camps and by January 1937, the number had dropped to 350,000 in 1,991 camps. By the time the program ended in 1942, the CCC had put more than three million men to work and had made a tremendous impact on the conservation of the country's natural resources.[22]

The CCC in South Dakota

The first CCC camp in South Dakota was established in the Black Hills on May 18, 1933 at the site of the old Este logging camp near Nemo (historic in its own right as the site where lumber was sawn from the first timber sale made by the Forest Service in the United States).[23] The camp, known as Camp Este, was designated F-3, a Forest Service camp.

Fort Meade was selected as the South Dakota district CCC headquarters and South Dakota was approved to select 1500 men from the state to serve in the corps. While many of these men were assigned work within the state, a number were assigned to units that traveled to other parts of the country. In addition, a number of men from neighboring states were assigned to camps in South Dakota. South Dakota was given an initial assignment of thirteen camps and a quota of 2600 men, the largest per capita quota in the nation.[24]

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[22] Lacy, 66-68.

[23] Theodore Krueger, "The CCC in the Black Hills and Harney National Forests," The Black Hills Engineer (December 1937): 14.

[24] Lyle A. Derscheid, The Civilian Conservation Corps in South Dakota (1933-1942) (Brookings, SD: South Dakota State University Foundation Press, 1991), 22-23.

The initial increment of South Dakota enrollees consisted of 94 men who arrived at Fort Meade on April 29, 1933. By July 5, 1700 enrollees, veterans and LEMs had been conditioned at Fort Meade. Between May 18 and June 29 fourteen camps were established in South Dakota. Six of these were in the Black Hills National Forest, five in the Harney National Forest (Harney National Forest has since been administratively combined with the Black Hills National Forest), two in Custer State Park, and one on Farm Island at Pierre. Additional camps were established in the fall of 1933 and by the end of the year, 3000 men occupied eighteen camps in the Black Hills and one camp at Pierre (the Kampeska summer camp at Watertown had been closed on October 15).[25] These camps included:[26]

F-1	Mystic
F-2	Horse Creek
F-3	Este
F-4	Pactola
F-5	Rochford
F-6	Roubaix
F-9	Hill City
F-10	Rockerville
F-11	Haselrodt
F-12	Custer
F-13	Mayo
F-14	Lightning Creek
F-15	Tigerville
F-16	Oreville
F-17	Calcite
S-1	Pine Creek
S-2	Doran
SE-207	Farm Island

During 1934, seven new permanent camps were established in South Dakota and nine temporary camps were opened for two to three months each. By the end of the summer that year, almost 7000 enrollees were in place in the state's CCC camps. The companies consisted of enrollees primarily from South Dakota, although a small number of men were from North Dakota and Nebraska, as was as a company of veterans.[27]

Enrollment reached its highest level on August 31, 1935 when a total of 34 CCC camps existed in South Dakota. The number of camps and companies in the state gradually decreased after that time. A number of companies were demobilized or transferred outside the district by fall of that year and on December 15, orders were issued to South Dakota to discharge enrollees with 18 months or more of service.[28]

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[25] Ibid., 26.

[26] A complete list of camps by year can be found in the appendices.

[27] Ibid., 27-28.

[28] Ibid., 29.

On February 1, 1936 the South Dakota CCC district was consolidated with the Nebraska district and the headquarters were relocated at Fort Creek, Nebraska. Although one new camp opened and others remained open for the summer only, South Dakota's camps continued to close as companies were demobilized or transferred outside the district. By the end of the year, there were only 21 camps remaining with less than 3200 enrollees. The number of enrollees continued to decline in 1937, although the number of camps in South Dakota in 1937 increased to 24.[29]

Between 1937 and 1941, administrative changes improved the workings of the CCC. Enrollment was made easier and educational programs were strengthened. Efforts were made to place enrollees in jobs after their tours in the CCC. Despite these changes, the overall number of enrollees continued to decline, as discharges exceeded new enrollments. No new companies were formed; new enrollees were used to replace discharged men. In 1938, there were at least 20 camps in existence in South Dakota. In 1940 there were only 16 camps remaining and by October 1941, only 10 camps were in operation. When South Dakota's CCC disbanded in July 1942, only 42 men remained in five camps. All camps closed when the government refocused its efforts on World War II.[30]

South Dakota was a participant in the Indian CCC as well. Administered by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Indian CCC provided work opportunities for South Dakota's Native American Indians near their homes on the reservations. Indian CCC projects were located at Pine Ridge, Rosebud, Lower Brule and Fort Thompson. An estimated 4554 Indians participated as enrollees in South Dakota. There was also one Black (African-American) company that served briefly in South Dakota. This company was stationed at the Farm Island camp at Pierre from June 27 to October 20, 1933.[31]

Between 1933 and 1942, a total of 52 camps existed in South Dakota. Four of these were Native American Indian camps. Twenty-nine camps were located in the Black Hills. Most camps were "permanent" with wooden buildings, although nine were tent camps occupied during the summers only. A number of side camps were established as well. The camps were distributed as follows: 23 National Forest camps, one state forest camp, three National Parks camps, five state parks camps, seven Soil Conservation Service camps, one Bureau of Reclamation camp, three Bureau of Biological Survey camps, four Bureau of Indian Affairs camps, one Army camp, and four for which the service is not known. Three camps which were originally planned were never constructed.[32]

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[29] Ibid., 31-34.

[30] Ibid., 36-39.

[31] Ibid., 41.

[32] Ibid., 42.

Work achievements in South Dakota were extensive. Because the majority of CCC camps in the state were Forest Service camps, forest improvements and protection in South Dakota's national forests were among the most significant accomplishments. Between 1933 and 1937, the CCC thinned 204,593 acres of overcrowded tree stands. Thousands of additional acres were thinned between 1937 and 1942, as the CCC continued this work. The CCC initiated pruning of tree stands in 1935 as a method of reducing the incidence of western red rot, a disease prevalent in the Black Hills. By 1937, more than 2500 acres had been pruned and pruning continued as a CCC activity through 1941.[33]

In addition to these forest improvement projects, thousands of man-days were devoted to fire prevention and suppression between 1933 and 1942. CCC enrollees constructed firebreaks, removed debris and flammable materials, and built and staffed fire lookouts. In addition, nearly 1400 miles of telephone line were constructed. More than 1528 miles of truck and fire trails were created, in large part by improving existing mining trails throughout the hills. The total number of man-days devoted to fire fighting was more than 77,000.[34]

Additional work in South Dakota's national forests included rodent and insect control, improvements to existing roads, improvements to ranger stations, grazing land improvement (a major activity of the CCC camp near Camp Crook in the Custer National Forest in Harding County), and the construction of various buildings and structures.

Among the buildings and structures constructed by the CCC in South Dakota's national forests were fire lookout towers (built at strategic points in the Black Hills and staffed by CCC enrollees 24-hours a day during fire season), ranger stations (new construction occurred at Nemo, Rochford, Savoy, Camp Crook, Custer, and others), bridges, stock dams, fish-rearing ponds, and recreational facilities such as campgrounds, picnic grounds, swimming beaches, and ski jumps. Development at picnic and campgrounds included the construction of camp stoves and fireplaces, tables and benches, wells and pumps, parking areas, garbage pits, and toilet facilities.

The Forest Service supplied designs for construction of all CCC Forest Service projects, many of them standardized (see Figures 4 and 5). Although there is some variation in regional styles of Forest Service architecture, each takes into consideration its surroundings and local native materials. The style used in South Dakota reflected elements of the Arts and Crafts style in a rustic mode. Massing was often heavy and materials frequently included large stones and whole logs, both of which were readily available in the Black Hills.

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[33] J. Roeser, Jr., "The Role of Timber Stand Improvements in the Black Hills," The Black Hills Engineer (December 1937): 54.

[34] Merrill, 275.

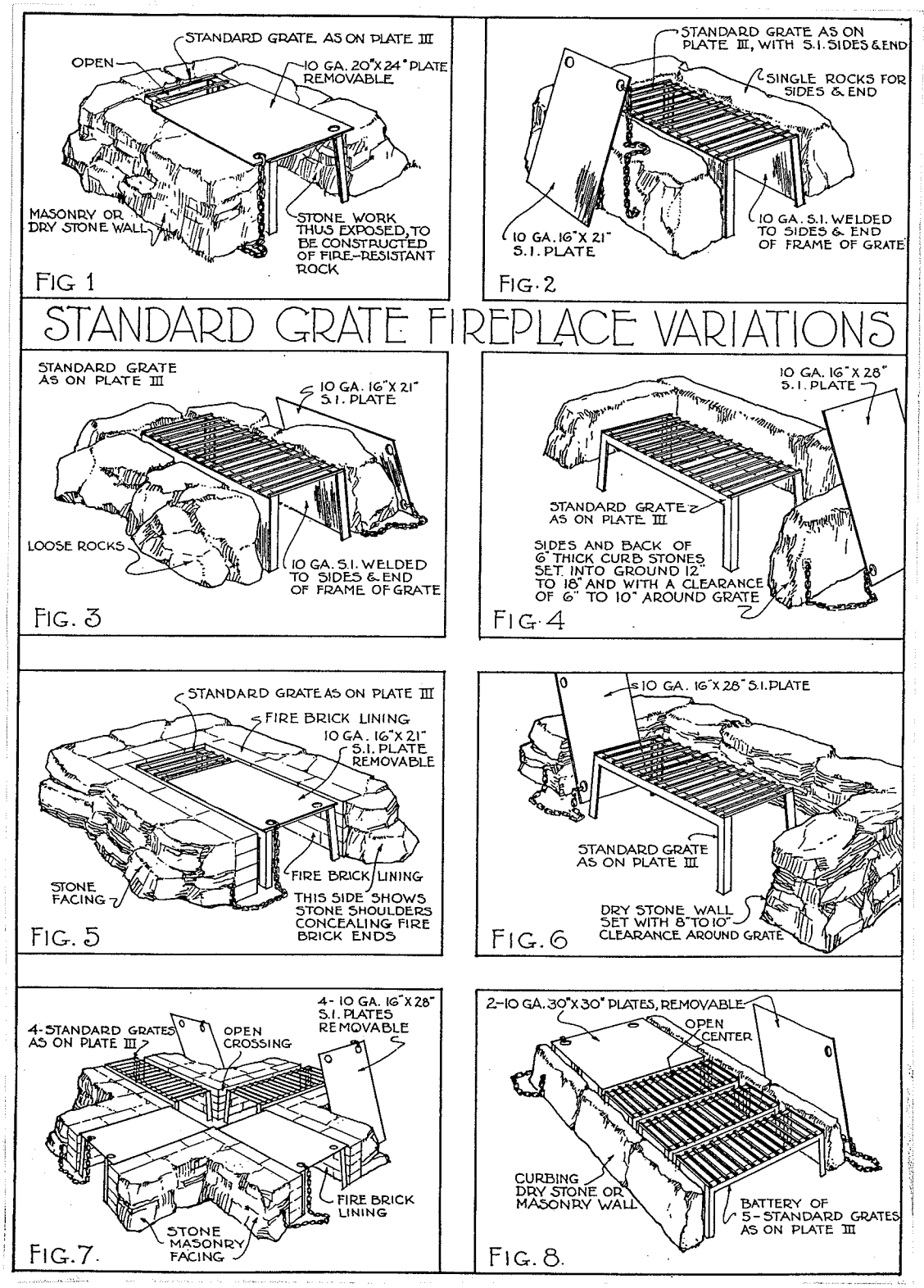

Figure 4. Standardized plans for fireplaces.
(US Forest Service, *Camp Stoves and Fireplaces* Plate III-A)

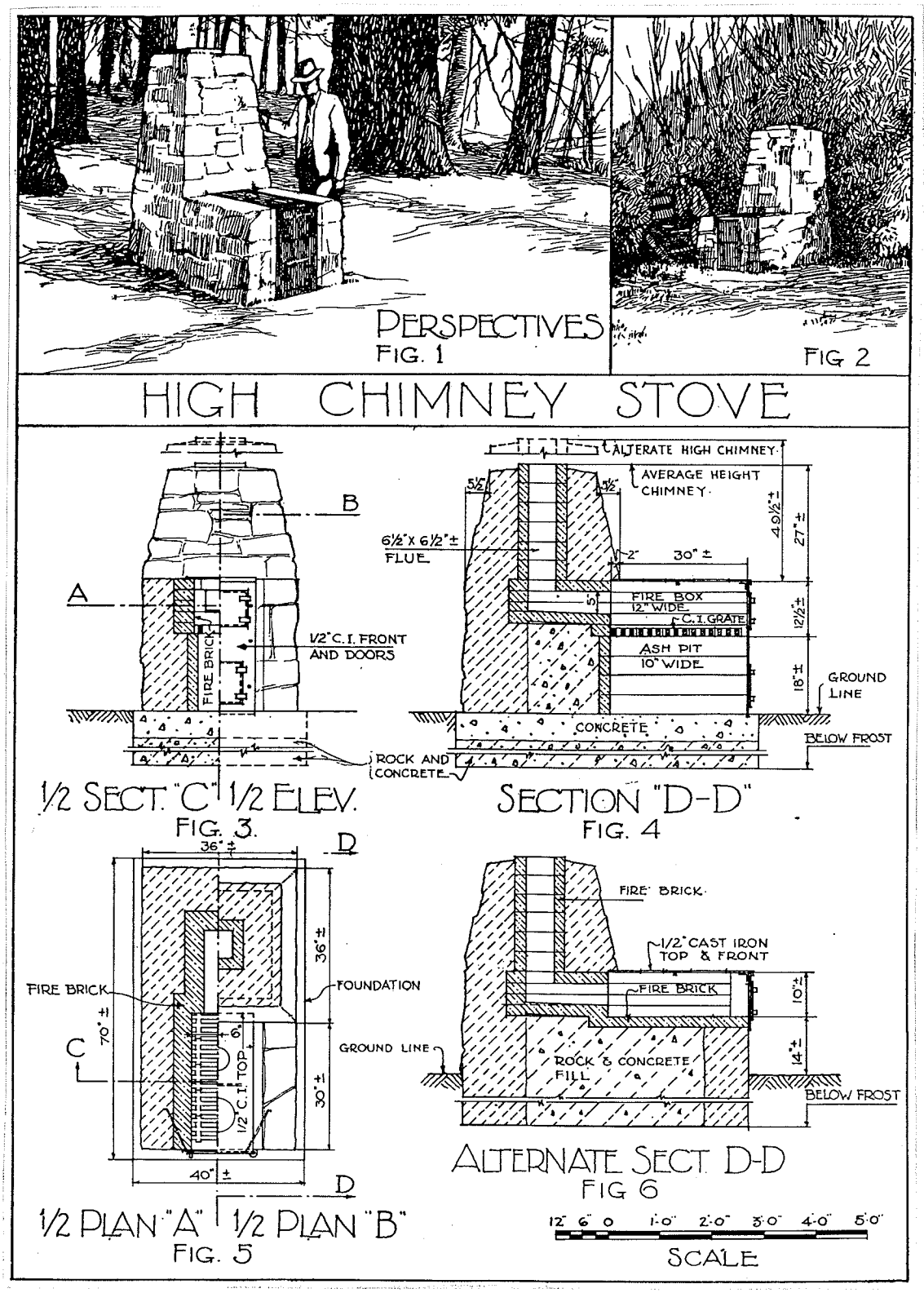

Figure 5. Standardized plan for "High Chimney Stove."
(US Forest Service, *Camp Stoves and Fireplaces* Plate XII)

Perhaps some of the most significant structures built by the CCC were the dams that created recreational lakes in the Black Hills. Most of these dams were either "earth fill with core trench" or "earth fill on bentonite base." Occasionally, concrete dams were constructed. The "earth fill with core trench" method was the typical method used in dam construction at that time and was used wherever cut-off trenches could be easily constructed. This method, however, was not suitable for much of the Black Hills, which in large part is underlaid with schist and thinly-bedded rocks that allow water to flow freely through seams and fissures (which accounts for the lack of many natural lakes).

To address this problem so that lakes could be constructed in areas that were desirable for recreational development, the CCC developed a method for dam construction which rendered the porous rock impervious to water flow. This method, known as "earth fill on bentonite base," consisted of filling water channels in the rock with bentonite solutions. Bentonite, a clay-like mineral, is a hydrous silicate of alumina, mined in northwestern South Dakota and eastern Wyoming. It swells to more than ten times its original volume when wet and is not easily eroded. When pressure is applied to a solution of bentonite, the mixture fills all voids open to the flow of water. It was an ideal substance for use in dam construction. Not only did this method solve a local problem in lake building, but it also established a new method of dam construction used in other states and also opened up a national market for a product mined and processed in the vicinity of the Black Hills.

Earth fill on bentonite base dams created Lakes Mitchell (see Figure 32), Major, Dalton, Roubaix, and Slate Creek. The dams that created Lakes Victoria and Glen Erin were concrete (the Victoria dam was damaged in the 1972 flood and was only partially repaired, leaving a shallow lake; Glen Erin dam was removed in 1978 when it was determined to be unsafe). The Lake of the Pines (now known as Sheridan Lake) on Spring Creek was the largest earth dam built by the CCC in South Dakota. The construction of this dam was a cooperative project between the CCC and the Works Progress Administration (WPA) between 1938 and 1940.[35]

In addition to the extensive Forest Service work accomplished by the CCC in South Dakota, camps under the supervision of the National Park Service were established at the Badlands National Monument (now a National Park), Wind Cave National Park, Jewel Cave National Monument (as a side camp from Wind Cave), throughout Custer State Park and various municipal locations.

The CCC, in cooperation with the WPA, constructed a new administration building, a new operator's building, two new residences, and a large garage/storage facility at Wind Cave National Park. In addition, three existing buildings were remodeled as residences. Other projects at the park included the construction or installation of an elevator shaft, a reservoir and water system, concrete stairs within the cave, game fences, and new signs at the park's entrance. In addition, the CCC also built bridges in the area, including a pigtail bridge on U.S. Highway 87. Work at Jewel Cave

[35] Derscheid, 54.

National Monument included the construction of a log administration building with public comfort stations, the installation of a sewer and water system, the development of the campground and parking area, and the repair and/or installation of game fences. Work at the Badlands National Monument involved razing old buildings and fences and surveying areas for future development, improvements to existing roadways, and installation of a water system and construction of a custodian's residence at Cedar Pass. A tile and brick checking station was constructed at the Pinnacles.

The CCC assigned to Custer State Park had the objective of making nature more enjoyable and accessible to the public. Recreational improvements in the state's largest park included the construction of dams at Horsethief Lake, Stockade Lake (see Figure 6), Center Lake and Bismarck Lake. Picnic areas and/or campgrounds were developed at each of these lakes, as well as other sites throughout and near the park (see Figure 7). At Sylvan Lake, the CCC collected the stone for the PWA-financed and WPA-constructed lodge; built seventeen rustic log and stone cabins (see Figure 8), a store and a filling station for use in conjunction with the lodge; installed water and sewer systems and developed parking areas and roadways. At Legion Lake, they installed a water system.

The CCC in Custer State Park constructed the park's museum, the herdsman's house, and several cabins at Blue Bell Lodge. They also developed the displays for the museum (see Figure 9). Stone fire lookouts replaced earlier wooden ones on Harney Peak and Mt. Coolidge and several bridges were built throughout the park, including a double arch stone bridge near Blue Bell Lodge (see Figure 10) and a pigtail bridge on Iron Mountain Road. Miles of roads and fire trails were developed in the park (again using existing trails where possible) (see Figure 11), as were the park's telephone system, several scenic points, and over fifty informational signs. The CCC was also active in fire suppression efforts.[36]

CCC companies assigned to the National Park Service developed at least three sizeable municipal parks in South Dakota. Enrollees from a camp on Farm Island near Pierre built a causeway to the island and developed a city park. Improvements made by the CCC in the park included picnic shelters, cabins used by Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, a cabin used by the Izaak Walton League, a trap and skeet shooting range, and portions of a 9-hole golf course. Another CCC camp (a veterans' camp) at American Island west of Chamberlain developed a park with modern tourist cabins, a bathhouse, racetrack, and picnic areas. Enrollees from camps in Custer State Park spent parts of two years at a side camp at Canyon Lake Park in Rapid City developing a road system, improving the dam and building a beach, and doing extensive landscaping. Men from this side camp also assisted in the construction of new fish-rearing ponds at the nearby Cleghorn Springs Fish Hatchery just west of Rapid City.[37]

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[36] Ibid., 56-57.

[37] Ibid., 57.

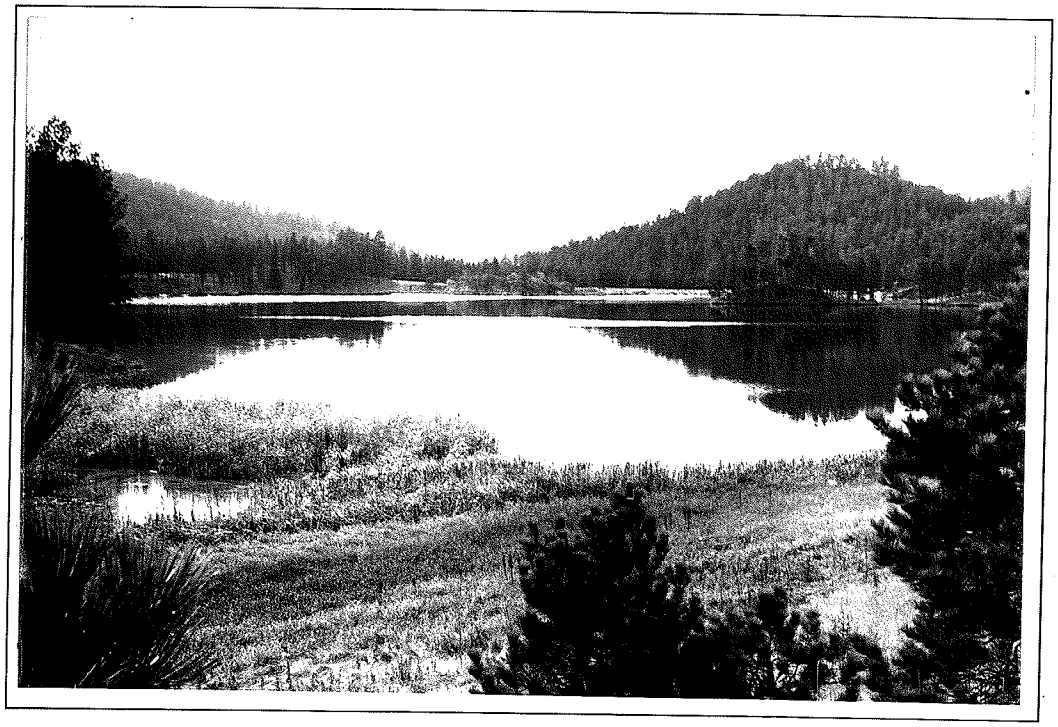

Figure 6. Stockade Lake, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 7. Construction of picnic shelter at Grizzly Bear picnic ground, Black Hills.
(Rise Studio, Rapid City, January 29, 1936)

Figure 8. Rustic cabin at Sylvan Lake Lodge, Custer State Park
(Dennis, 1997)

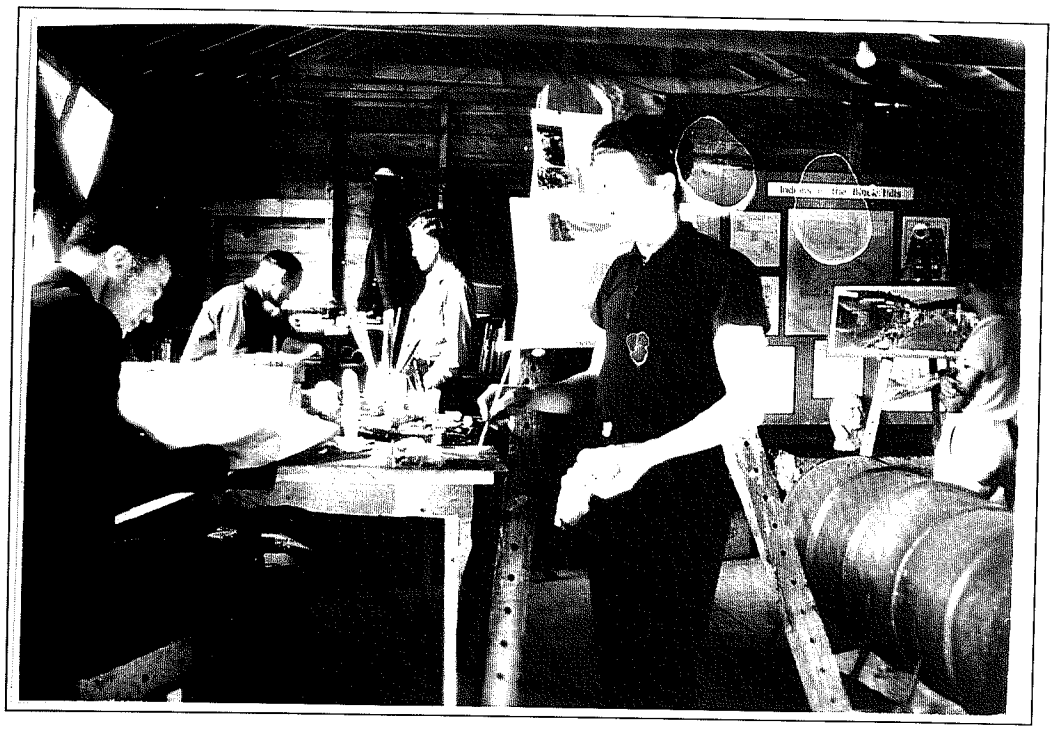

Figure 9. CCC enrollees preparing displays for Custer State Park Museum.
(Photo courtesy of Custer State Park)

Figure 10. Double arch stone bridge near Blue Bell Lodge, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

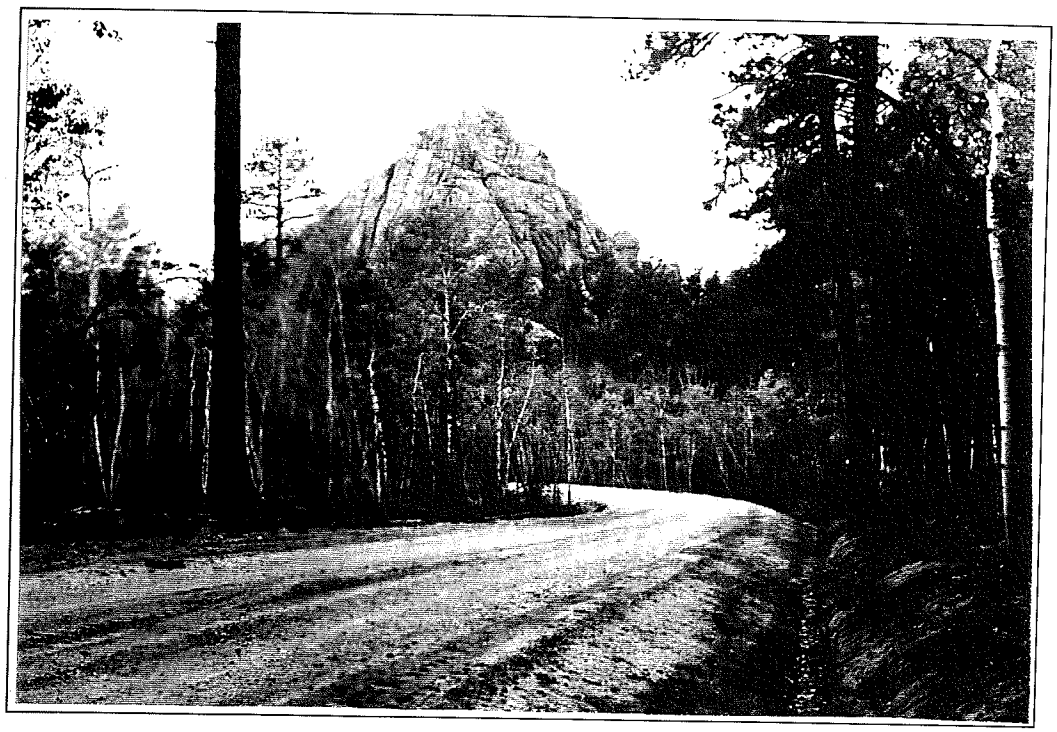

Figure 11. Custer State Park road constructed by enrollees at CCC Camp Lodge.
(September 1936; courtesy of Custer State Park)

The Soil Conservation Service (SCS), established in April 1935, supervised seven CCC camps in South Dakota. The primary objective of these CCC camps was to demonstrate effective conservation practices for control of wind and water erosion to farmers in Beadle, Brule, Buffalo, Clay, Lincoln, Lyman, Meade, Spink, and Union counties. These conservation practices included terraces, pasture furrows, sod waterways, contour lines, strip cropping and rough tillage.[38]

Perhaps the most lasting of the projects associated with the SCS's CCC camps are the shelterbelts and stock dams. According to one source, more than 22.2 million trees were planted in South Dakota by the CCC, a number of which were in shelterbelts in eastern and central South Dakota (the others were used primarily in reforestation projects in the Black Hills).[39] Hundreds of small stock dams were constructed throughout the drought-stricken state, a number of which were projects associated with the CCC.

South Dakota was one of six states included in the Great Plains Shelterbelt (known as the Prairie States Forestry Project after 1937), established on July 11, 1934 under Executive Order of the President. The program for the state was administered under the direction of A. L. Ford from headquarters in Brookings, where important information on soils, climate and agriculture was readily available at the state agricultural college. The program, designed as an emergency relief program, also used work crews from the WPA program. At least five nurseries have been identified as providing trees for the state's program. These included a CCC nursery at Farm Island near Pierre, which furnished 181,200 trees for the program in 1935 and another 2,000,000 trees in 1936. The Baltic Shelterbelt Nursery in Baltic, the Hanson Nursery in Brookings, and the Gates Nursery in Rapid City also provided a large number of trees. A nursery near Vermillion (name unknown) was established in 1937 to provide additional trees. As many as seventy species of trees and shrubs were planted. The most successful were the eastern red cedar, caragana, juniper, American plum, boxelder, Russian olive, green ash, cottonwood, American elm, Chinese elm, buckthorn, hackberry, western yellow pine and western chokecherry. The program, which came to an end on June 30, 1942, provided shelterbelts on 5,820 farms in South Dakota and included more than 41,500,000 trees and shrubs on more than 44,000 acres (see Figure 12).[40] The practice of shelterbelt planting was continued by the Soil Conservation Service after World War II.

In addition to establishing shelterbelts, enrollees from the SCS's CCC camps constructed numerous small stock dams throughout the state. The majority of stock dams, however, were constructed in association with other federal relief programs, including the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), the Civil Works Administration (CWA), and the Works Progress Administration (WPA). Stock dams were generally small earthen dams designed to retain runoff in small bodies of water usable by livestock.

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[38] Ibid., 58.

[39] Merrill, 175.

[40] Carlson, Paul H. "Forest Conservation on the South Dakota Prairies," South Dakota History, Vol.2, No. 1 (Winter 1971), 31-45.

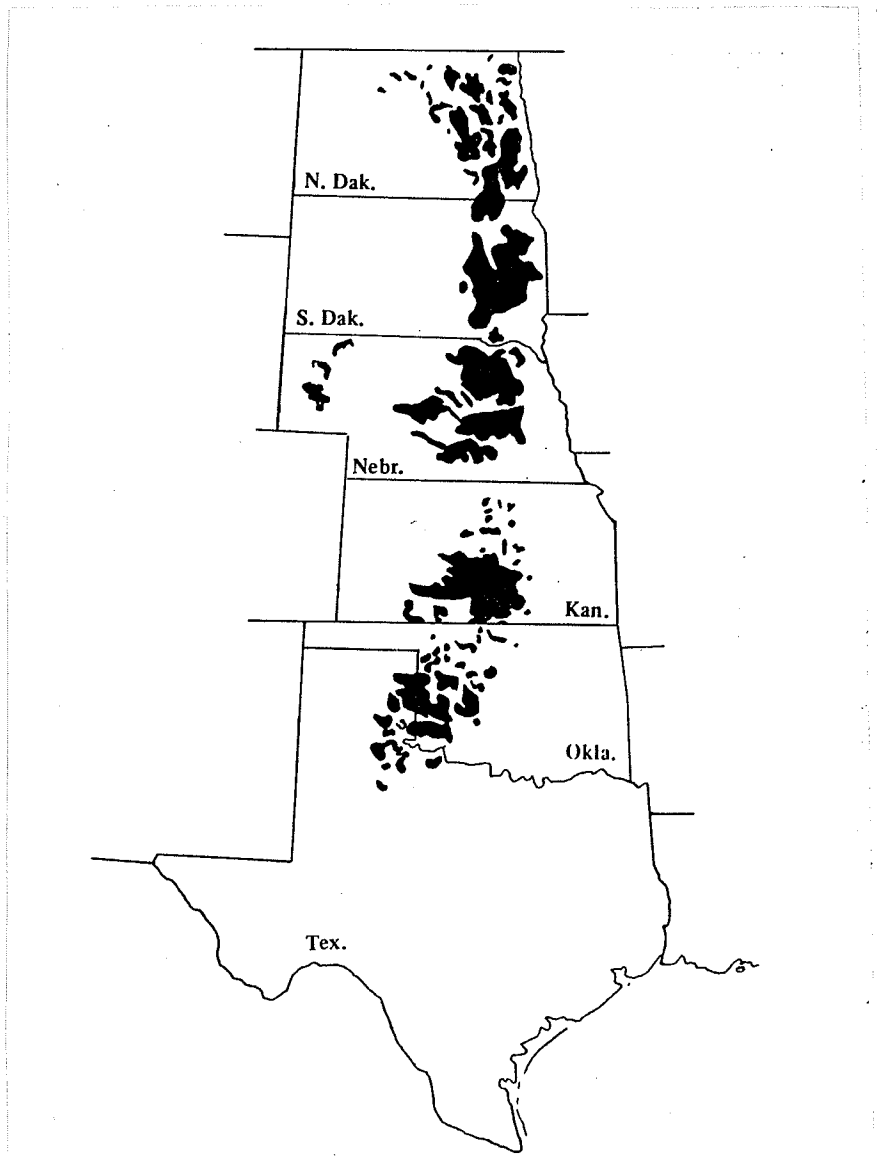

Figure 12. Major areas of shelterbelt planting in the Great Plains region, 1935-1942.
(Ralph A. Read, *The Great Plains Shelterbelt*, 1958)

The SCS's CCC camp enrollees also constructed larger dams in locations outside the Black Hills. These dams included the Third Street dam in Huron; the Fate Dam, Brakke Dam and Byre Dam in Lyman County; the Crow Creek Dam that created Lake Bedashosho in Buffalo County; the Dakotah Dam in Hand County; and the Dudley Dam in Spink County.[41]

[41] Derscheid, 58.

Other CCC camps in South Dakota included Camp Fechner across the road from Fort Meade (U.S. Army camp) and a Bureau of Reclamation camp in Butte County which had the responsibility for repairing and improving the Belle Fourche reservoir and 654 miles of federally maintained irrigation ditches. Three camps operated under the supervision of the Biological Survey, each doing work on wildlife and waterfowl refuges. These were located at Sand Lake, La Creek, and Lake Andes wildlife refuges. Temporary camps were established at various locations in eastern South Dakota, including Oakwood Park at Watertown, Black Pipe Creek south of Belvidere, Newton Hills State Park south of Canton, Lake Poinsett and Lake Andes.[42]

By its end, the CCC had provided employment to more than 32,000 men in South Dakota (of which approximately 26,000 were from South Dakota), including junior and veteran enrollees, Native American Indians, LEMs, and camp personnel. The estimated allotments to dependents by enrollees exceeded $6.2 million. Work accomplishments included construction of nearly 500 bridges, hundreds of miles of roads, 468 dams, hundreds of miles of telephone lines, millions of trees planted, over four million fish stocked, and millions of acres of erosion and animal control.[43]

Public Works Administration

In General

On June 16, 1933 Congress passed the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA). Title I of this act created the National Recovery Administration (NRA), a body designed to get prices and wages under control. The act also guaranteed labor the right to organize and bargain collectively and established a National Labor Board to negotiate disputes. Title II of the act created the Public Works Administration (PWA), with Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes as the Director.

The purpose of the PWA was to stimulate economic recovery by providing employment for workers in the building trades and in industries supplying the construction industry. It was hoped that placing large sums of money in circulation would stimulate industry and increase purchasing power. The PWA initially was allotted $3.3 billion dollars to fund its operations.

Federal financial assistance for public works projects was provided in the form of grants, loans, or a combination of grant and loan. Federal projects were paid for entirely by PWA appropriation, while states and their subdivisions could receive a grant of 30 percent of the cost of labor and materials together with a loan for any portion of the

[42] Ibid., 58-59.

[43] Merrill, 174-175.

balance for state and local public works projects. The grant allotment was increased to 45 percent in 1935. Non-public entities were eligible for loans but not grants.

Although the PWA did not specifically define project eligibility, the program did develop a classification of projects that were believed to best serve the public interest. The categories of projects included:

(1) The construction, repair, and improvement, of public highways and parkways, 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 improvement, 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 and equipment as might be approved by the Interstate Commerce Commission as desirable for the improvement of transportation facilities.[44]

The PWA continued to be the primary public works funding agency until mid-1935. With Title II of the NIRA set to expire, Congress enacted the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 and appropriated over $4.8 billion. This act provided for the continuation of the PWA through June 30, 1937. A number of agencies were created under this 1935 act, including the Works Progress Administration (WPA) which became the primary program for public works (the WPA is described later in this section).

Both the PWA and WPA funded construction projects, but the programs were substantially different. The PWA received applications for construction projects (other than repair or maintenance) where the total cost of the project was estimated to be more

[44] Jack F. Isakoff, The Public Works Administration (Urbana, Illinois: The University of Illinois Press, 1938), 17.

than $25,000. The PWA continued to make grants and loans for these projects. The PWA also considered requests for loans regardless of the cost or type of project. The WPA, on the other hand, provided grants only. Construction projects costing less than $25,000, as well as non-construction projects designed to employ professional, white-collar, and clerical workers were considered for WPA funding. Furthermore, applications that were rejected by the PWA could be submitted to the WPA for consideration.[45]

The PWA was continued until July 1, 1939 by the Public Works Administration Extension Act of 1937. The statute appropriated $59 million for additional grant funded projects. The Public Works Administration Appropriations Act of 1938 extended the life of the PWA to June 30, 1941 and provided an additional $965 million to the agency. This final appropriation required that all applications be submitted by September 30, 1938, that construction begin by January 1, 1940, and that the project be substantially completed by June 30, 1940.[46]

The PWA was not concerned with the architectural styles of buildings constructed through their program; they were concerned only with the soundness and feasibility of construction. Consequently, there was a wide diversity of styles used throughout the country reflecting the continued development of architectural styles of the day, as well as regional variations of a style. The standards that were set for construction, however, apparently resulted in noticeable improvement in overall quality of the buildings and structures.

The PWA financed more than 34,500 projects at a cost of a little more than $6 billion, employing up to half a million workers at a time. The scope of the work was far-reaching. In all but three of the nation's counties, there was at least one PWA project. Among the most common projects were courthouses, post offices, schools, hospitals, housing units, municipal water and sewer systems, and thousands of miles of street and highway improvements.[47] In addition, the PWA pioneered the policy of direct federal allotments to municipal governments. Many of the projects sponsored by the PWA are still in use today.

The PWA in South Dakota

During the first two years of the program, more than $6 million dollars of federal funding (combination of grants and loans) was allotted for South Dakota projects. According to the South Dakota State Planning Board's report on public works (1935), projects that were under construction or completed by April 1935 included:[48]

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[45] Ibid., 24-26.

[46] Ibid., 27-28.

[47] Watkins, 144-145.

[48] State Planning Board, Public Works, 21-22.

Bennett Co.: Martin – Waterworks = $37,000
Brookings Co.: Brookings – Waterworks = $5700; hospital = $32,400; school = $163,636
Brown Co.: Aberdeen – Waterworks = $655,000; sewerage = $150,000
Frederick – Waterworks = $16,000;
Groton – School = $66,000
Brule Co.: Chamberlain – Waterworks = $33,000
Clark Co.: Clark – Courthouse = $125,000
Clay Co.: Vermillion – Hospital = $25,500
Codington Co.: Watertown – Street curbs = $73,600; street improvements = $124,500; storm sewer = $7,273
Custer Co.: Buffalo Gap – Waterworks = $27,000
Custer – School = $83,636
Davison Co.: Mitchell – Sewerage = $174,000; storm sewers = $75,700; waterworks = $43,000; courthouse and county home = $235,000; city hall repairs = $14,100
Deuel Co.: Clear Lake – Waterworks = $2,800
Gary – Water tank = $1,300
Edmunds Co.: Ipswich – Courthouse = $93,300
Fall River Co.: Hot Springs – Sewerage = $43,200
Faulk Co.: Faulkton – Jail = $43,000
Gregory Co.: Burke – Courthouse = $14,300
Hughes Co.: Pierre – Courthouse = $72,000
Jackson Co.: Interior – Waterworks = $13,500
Lake Co.: Madison – Courthouse = $105,345; waterworks = $24,500
Lawrence Co.: Spearfish – Waterworks = $64,280
Lincoln Co.: Beresford – Waterworks = $19,000
Lyman Co.: Oacoma – Water improvements = $5,454
McCook Co.: Salem – Courthouse = $116,000
Spencer – Waterworks = $29,000
McPherson Co.: Eureka – Sewerage = $9,000
Miner Co.: Howard – Courthouse = $98,300
Minnehaha Co.: Sioux Falls – Storm sewers = $31,000; sewerage = $210,000; city hall = $220,000; schools = $404,000
Pennington Co.: Rapid City – Sewerage = $180,000; school = $352,727
Roberts Co.: Corona – School = $6,000
Sisseton – Jail = $11,200 (see Figure 13)
Sanborn Co.: Forestburg – School = $6,600
Spink Co.: Redfield – School = $105,500
Turner Co.: Marion Junction – Sewerage = $23,754
Union Co.: Rural county school - $4,700
Alcester – Waterworks = $17,500
Walworth Co.: Mobridge – Storm sewer = $22,000
Washabaugh Co.: Matoon – School = $3,637
Yankton Co.: Yankton – City hall = $101,000; street improvements = $11,700; street repair = $9,500; sewerage = $39,000

According to the same source, several projects were approved and financed in addition to those listed above, but not yet under construction by April 1935. They included:[49]

[49] Ibid, 23-24.

Aurora Co.: White Lake – School = $54,545
Beadle Co.: Huron – School = $109,091
Bennett Co.: Martin – School = $43,636
Bon Homme Co.: Springfield – School auditorium and gym = $29,090
Brookings Co.: Brookings – Swimming pool = $8,000
Charles Mix Co.: Geddes – School addition = $5,318
District 31 – School = $2,946
Codington Co.: Rural county school = $5,091
Germantown – 2 schools = $9,091
Kranzburg – School = $4,364
Watertown – Paving and street improvements = $55,454
Custer Co.: Sylvan Lake Lodge = $57,240
Davison Co.: Mitchell – 2 school additions = $47,272 + $132,727
Fall River Co.: Edgemont – Well = $41,000
Grant Co.: Malrose – School = $4,000
Twin Brooks – School = $4,364
Gregory Co.: Burke – Municipal building = $13,636
Hughes Co.: Pierre – 2 schools = $87,272
Lawrence Co.: Deadwood – Waterworks = $15,455
Lincoln Co.: Hudson – Auditorium and gym = $12,029
Meade Co.: Sturgis – School = $102,000 (see Figure 14)
Minnehaha Co.: Sioux Falls – 2 schools = $95,424
Moody Co.: Flandreau – Hospital = $25,000
Sanborn Co.: Woonsocket – School addition = $8,182
Spink Co.: Northville – School addition = $45,454
Redfield – Women's building at state school = $74,000
Sully Co.: Onida – Auditorium = $12,800
Turner Co.: Centerville – School addition = $30,909
Union Co.: Beresford – Power plant = $23,250
Walworth Co.: Mobridge – Street improvements = $73,500; auditorium = $100,000
Washabaugh Co.: Durland – School = $6,000
Yankton Co.: Yankton – Waterworks = $16,364

Not all projects that applied for grants or loans were funded. There were also some projects that were approved for funding but apparently never constructed. Unfortunately, neither the state nor the Federal Emergency Administration kept records as to which projects were actually completed.[50] Further research and survey work is needed to clarify which projects were funded but never built.

The Federal Emergency Relief Administration and the Civil Works Administration

In General

President Roosevelt signed a bill establishing the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA) on May 12, 1933. The program, which was seen as a temporary stopgap measure designed to meet an emergency need, was funded for two years. FERA

[50] A list of all projects approved for PWA funding in South Dakota (1933-1938) can be found in the appendices.

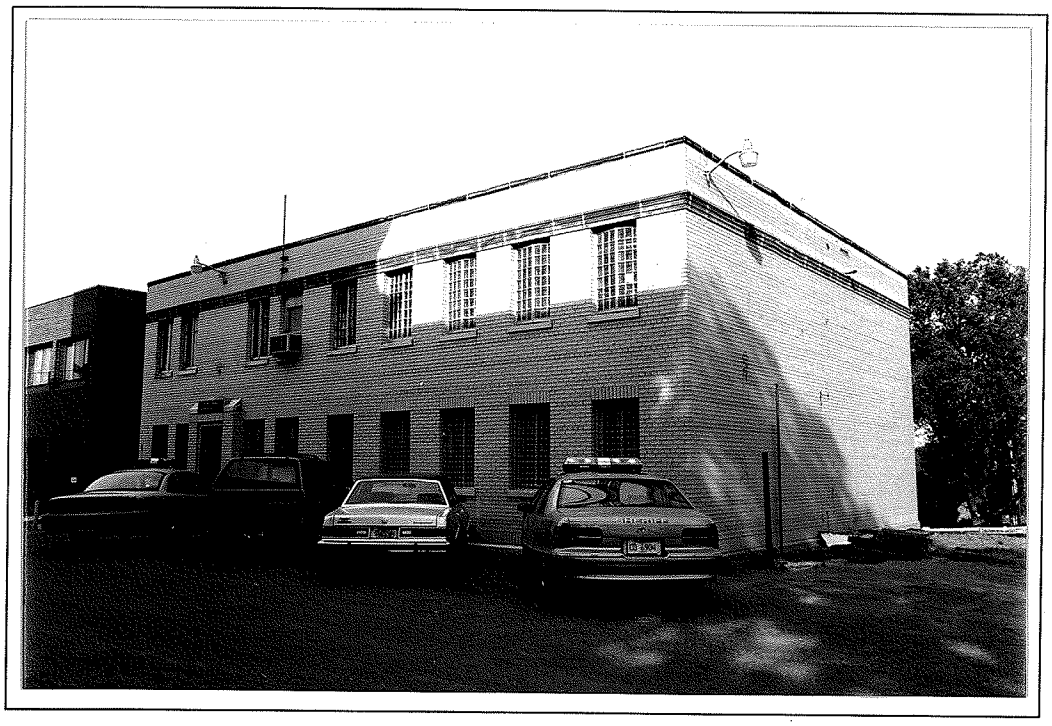

Figure 13. Roberts County Jail, Sisseton.
(Dennis, 1997)

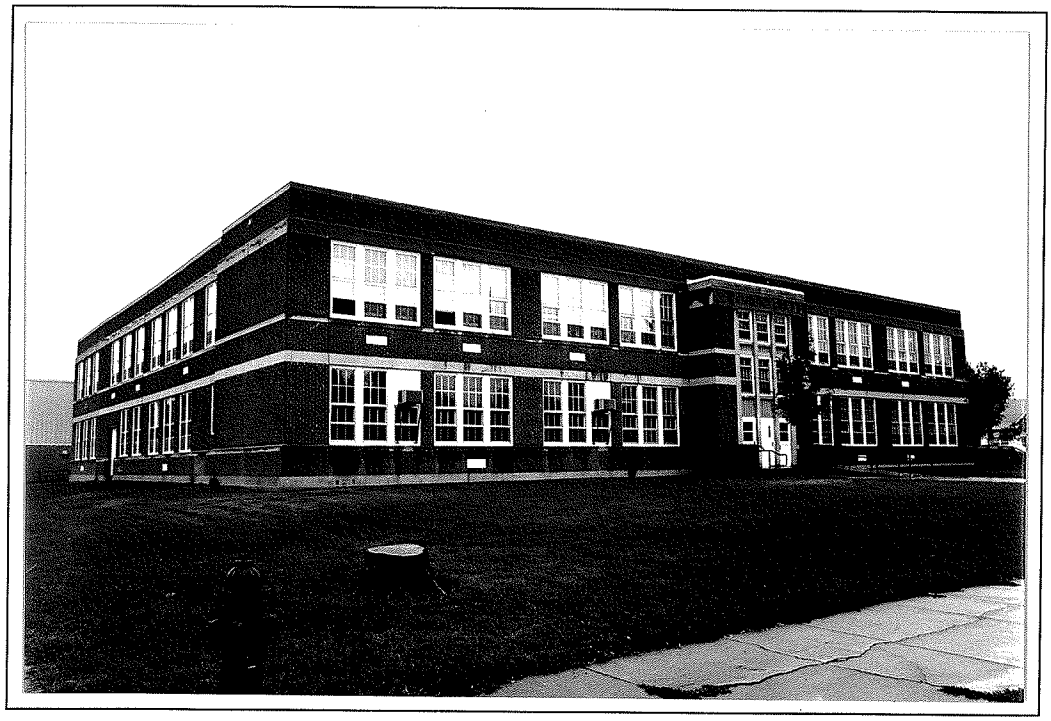

Figure 14. Sturgis High School, Sturgis.
(Dennis, 1997)

provided grants to State Emergency Relief Administrations (SERAs), which in turn distributed them to local agencies that actually gave out the money either as direct relief or as work relief. Work relief projects, developed by local agencies and monitored by the SERAs, were required to follow the rules and regulations developed by FERA administrators. FERA was given $250 million to allocate directly to states and another $250 million to allocate as "one-to-three" matching grants in which FERA provided one dollar for every three dollars provided by the states.[51]

Eligibility for direct or work relief was based on need. Each family or individual that applied had to pass a "means-test," which involved an investigation by the local relief department to establish need and determine the individual's or family's means to meet that need. In addition, they had to demonstrate continued need on a monthly basis. Because growing numbers of formerly middle-class professional and other nonmanual workers had become unemployed, FERA policies were developed to entice them onto the rolls by creating work projects that favored white-collar workers. These work projects included clerical work for government agencies and institutions; work in libraries, museums and art galleries; the operation of recreation programs; nursing and health care; conducting research on topics such as various population groups and the effects of the relief program; and conducting surveys of such things as historical buildings.[52]

Despite these policies, most early FERA work relief projects were continuations of projects established under the RFC work relief program. The majority of these projects were in construction such as repairing roads and public buildings or building new facilities. FERA also continued the "production-for-use" projects in which people on relief made consumer goods that were distributed to others on relief or used in public institutions. These projects included subsistence gardens, canning projects, fuel procurement, and sewing rooms. Additional projects were developed to meet the needs of specific segments of the populations and to address situations that warranted special attention. These new projects included transient camps, self-help cooperatives and a surplus commodities program.[53]

FERA policy on wages, rates, and hours was set forth in July 1933. The policy specified that people on work relief should receive a "fair rate of pay for work performed" and was further interpreted to mean the prevailing market wage for similar work. In what would become one of the most contentious of all FERA decisions, relief administrators set a minimum wage rate of $.30 per hour (regardless of the prevailing wage) and a maximum of 35 hours per week for manual laborers and 40 hours per week for office workers.[54] Despite these minimums, wages earned were sometimes so low that they had to be supplemented by direct relief.

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[51] Nancy E. Rose, Put To Work: Relief Programs in the Great Depression (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1994), 29-30.

[52] Ibid., 42-43.

[53] Ibid., 38-39.

[54] Ibid., 35-36.

FERA's work relief programs were interrupted in November 1933 when the Civil Works Administration (CWA) was established and FERA work relief resources were moved to that program (FERA continued to supply direct relief). As winter approached, Roosevelt was concerned that FERA would not be able to meet the demand for relief. Despite the activity of the programs established during the First Hundred Days of the New Deal, the economy had resumed its downward slide and nearly one-fourth of the labor force was still unemployed. In response to the need for a grand-scale program to address the concerns, the CWA was established on November 9, 1933 by executive order under the authority of the National Industrial Recovery Act. Headed by Harry Hopkins of the FERA, the CWA was designed to put four million unemployed people to work quickly. To jump start the program, projects and personnel were transferred from FERA and states were encouraged to develop new projects with the threat that they would lose any funds not put to use by December 15.

To assist local officials in developing work projects, the CWA suggested the construction of parks and playgrounds, feeder roads, water mains and sewer extensions, excavations, and special projects for white-collar professional workers. Work was to be confined to public property, had to be constructive, and had to have a cost ratio of 70 to 30 percent for labor and materials. Local sponsors were required to furnish supplies to maximize the amount of federal money that would be used for wages. Proposals for work projects came from municipal public works departments, parks departments, social service agencies, boards of education, and similar public bureaus.[55]

Within two weeks 800,000 people were working across the country on 180,000 CWA projects with a total payroll of $7.8 million.[56] The program grew quickly and at its height in January 1934, more than 4.3 million people were employed. Hourly wage rates were considerably better than under FERA, ranging from $.40 for unskilled workers to $1.20 for skilled workers. Work was limited to 30 hours per week. As a result, average payments to people on the work program more than tripled, increasing from $17 in October to $60 in January.[57]

The speed with which the CWA achieved its goals of employing large numbers of unemployed spread worries that future payrolls could not be met and ultimately led to the program's undoing. Hopkins reluctantly ordered a reduction in the program's work force on January 18, 1934. The total number of weekly hours was reduced to a maximum of 15 in rural areas and small towns and to 24 hours in urban areas. On February 15, Roosevelt allocated $450 million to close out the CWA and on February 18 announced that a new program under the FERA would replace the CWA.

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[55] Bonnie Fox Schwartz, The Civil Works Administration, 1933-1934 (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1984), 46.

[56] Watkins, 126.

[57] Rose, 51-52.

The CWA retains the distinction of providing work for more people at any one time than any other voluntary employment program in U.S. history. More than $62 million was spent in a few short months employing more than four million workers on thousands of projects. Among the most common projects were public construction projects including repair and construction of roads, bridges, schools, parks, playgrounds, hospitals, airports, flood control facilities, privies, and other various public works. Examples of these built resources can be found throughout the country today.

As the CWA was dismantled, its work programs again became the responsibility of the FERA. Once again, all participants had to meet a means-test and the $.30 hourly minimum wage was reinstated. Administratively, FERA was now divided into two programs: the Rural Rehabilitation Program for rural areas and small towns and the Emergency Work Relief Program for the urban areas. Projects were now mandated to use a maximum of labor and a minimum of machinery. Construction and repair of public property continued to be popular, as were projects for professional and nonmanual workers. Production-for-use programs also continued. New projects included school lunch programs and housekeeping aide projects. By the fall of 1934, it became clear that FERA's relief programs were not substantially decreasing unemployment or increasing production. It was decided to discontinue some of the programs as they had been known.[58]

The FERA and CWA in South Dakota

The South Dakota State Emergency Relief Administration received its first grant from the FERA in June 1933 and the last allotment in November 1935. The total funds granted by the FERA to the state amounted to $54,912,197. These funds were used to support several state programs, including Direct Relief and Work Relief, Emergency Education, College Aid, Transients, Rural Teachers, the Rural Rehabilitation Program, and various research projects. In addition to these grants, the state also received $8,622,000 worth of Federal Surplus Relief commodities, which were distributed to relief clients in the state through the state's division of commodity distribution.[59]

The extent of FERA projects that resulted in built resources in South Dakota is not clear. The South Dakota State Planning Board's 1935 report on public works indicates that all but one county (Armstrong) received some funding for FERA projects. The majority of counties received between a total of $50,000 and $650,000 between 1933 and 1935. Three counties (Minnehaha, Beadle, and Brown) received between $1,250,000 and $1,550,000. Spink County received between $950,000 and $1,250,000.[60]

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[58] Ibid., 58, 64-65, 88.

[59] State Planning Board, Public Works, 84.

[60] Ibid., 28.

Two main types of FERA construction projects apparently were funded in the state: highways and dams. Information about the total number of miles and the locations of roads constructed was not found. The majority of dams, however, were constructed in counties west of the Missouri River, with the largest concentration of dams built in Gregory, Tripp, Mellette, Haakon, Jones, and Stanley counties.[61] A number of dams started under this program were completed under the WPA. There is also evidence that public buildings may have been constructed with funds from this program. At least two public buildings have been identified in association with the FERA. They are the Centerville municipal building, designed by noted South Dakota architect Harold Spitznagel, which housed the city hall, fire station, and jail in a small one-story, concrete and brick building, and a large stone airport hangar at the Black Hills airport near Spearfish (demolished).[62]

A total of $8,772,938 in CWA expenditures were made in South Dakota during that program's short duration. Of that, federal funding accounted for $6,855,092; state funding accounted for $75,660; and over $1.8 million was funded by local communities.[63] Again, only one county (Armstrong) did not receive some benefit from the program. The largest amounts went to Minnehaha and Brown counties, with expenditures in Beadle, Davison, Codington, Spink, and Pennington not far behind. A map showing the range of expenditures by county is below (see Figure 15).

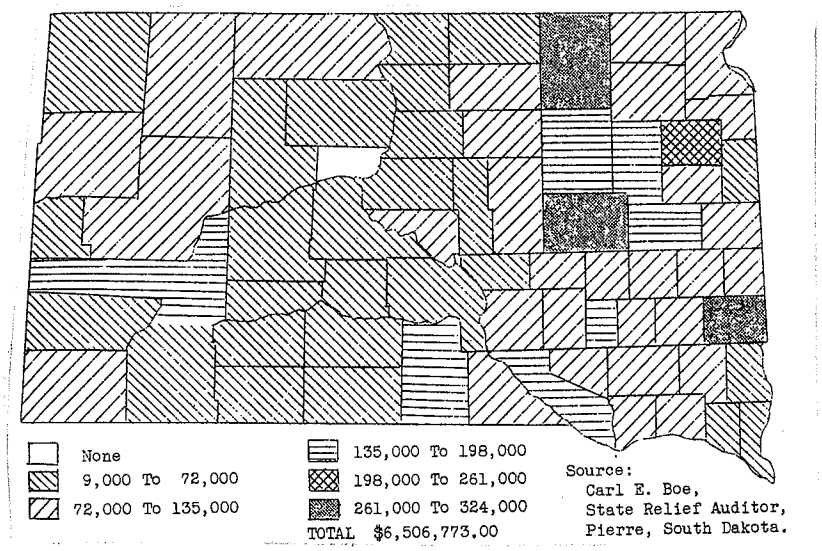

Figure 15. CWA Expenditures in South Dakota (by county).
(State Planning Board, *Public Works*, 29)

[61] Ibid., 20.

[62] David Erpestad and David Wood, Building South Dakota (Pierre, SD: South Dakota State Historical Society Press, 1997), 177.

[63] Arthur E. Burns and Edward A. Williams, Federal Work, Security, and Relief Programs (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1941), 136.

The CWA employed an average of 37,642 persons in South Dakota during its few months of operation.[64] Those employed through this program were apparently responsible for several construction projects in the state. Although no comprehensive list of CWA projects in South Dakota was located, it is likely that most projects included construction of public buildings, parks and playgrounds, roads and streets, water and sewer systems. There were also a number of dams constructed or started and later finished by the WPA. Only a handful of resources constructed by the CWA have been identified. These include the Campbell Bathhouse in the Dell Rapids City Park and the stone airplane hangar at Watertown. Further research is needed to identify additional resources in South Dakota that may be related to this program.

Once the CWA was discontinued in March 1934, South Dakota's FERA projects continued as before. After FERA relief funds were exhausted in South Dakota by December 1935, the State Welfare Commission, which had been created as a permanent body by the state legislature in July 1935, began its program of assisting local sub-divisions in the care of needy residents. County relief offices continued on as county welfare offices. Between January 1 and March 1, 1936, a total of $45,011 was disbursed through county welfare programs. Funding for state relief came from beer, liquor, and sales tax revenues.[65]

Works Progress Administration

In General

By the end of 1934, it was clear that Roosevelt's New Deal programs, while successful to some extent, had not yet resulted in a strong economic recovery and plans were begun to develop a broader program to address the continuing depression. In his annual message to Congress in January 1935, Roosevelt set the stage for the launching of the "Second New Deal" with a priority to establish a new works program. Federal funding was made available under the Emergency Relief Appropriations Act of April 1935 and more than 40 agencies went to work to operate the projects under the new works program. Central to the new works program, and perhaps the best known of all the New Deal era programs, was the Works Progress Administration (WPA), which was established by Executive Order on May 6, 1935. The name of the program was changed to Works Projects Administration in 1939 at which time the program was placed under the new Federal Works Agency.

As a work-relief program, the WPA consisted of projects initiated and sponsored by counties, cities and towns, as well as state and federal agencies. Harry L. Hopkins was appointed the chief administrator of the program, a post in which he served through

[64] State Planning Board, Public Works, 85.

[65] Ibid., 85.

1938. Regional offices were established as links between the states and the central administration and each state had a state administrator who was responsible for the operation of WPA projects within that state's jurisdiction. Most states also had district offices. Each project had a headquarters office, generally located in existing public buildings, with a project supervisor or superintendent.[66]

Need and employability were the two fundamental qualifications for WPA employment. Employability was simply a matter of health and physical fitness for the kinds of work available through the program. Need was established through a means-test, similar to that used under FERA.[67] WPA wages and hours were initially established as a fixed monthly "security" or subsistence wage. This meant that workers were paid even if time on the project was lost due to weather conditions or other factors beyond their control. Workers could work between 120 and 140 hours per month.[68]

Standards for wages and hours were adjusted four times over the course of the program's lifetime. The first adjustment came with the decision to pay prevailing hourly rates, while continuing to limit total monthly earnings to the security wage by assigning fewer hours per month to some occupational groups. The second revision involved an upward adjustment of the monthly wage schedule in order to meet rising costs of living and reduce wage differentials between some of the skill levels and geographic regions. The establishment of a system of uniform wages (based on the four wage classes of unskilled, intermediate, skilled, and professional) and uniform hours (130 hours per month), instead of the use of prevailing wages, was the third revision to the WPA wage system. The final change included an exemption of defense and war projects from the fixed maximum hours and earnings.[69]

The WPA's wage and hour system was not without problems and criticism. WPA workers were required to accept private sector employment if it became available, even if the rate of pay was below that of the WPA. In addition, an "18-month provision" mandated that people who had been working on a WPA project for eighteen continuous months had to be removed from the rolls and wait 30 days before they could be reassigned to another project. Since there were frequently more workers waiting for assignments than there were available placements, people often had to wait several months for re-employment. Average payments on the WPA generally remained below private sector wages. Sometimes too low to meet a family's need, they were often supplemented by other sources, such as direct relief, federal surplus commodities, and wages from private employment.

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[66] Final Report on The WPA Program, 1935-43 (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, Publishers, 1976 Reprint), 9-14.

[67] Ibid., 16.

[68] Rose, 98.

[69] Final Report, 23.

Construction projects, which had become a well-accepted form of work-relief, comprised the bulk of the work, absorbing approximately 75 percent of the money spent. The remaining 25 percent went for service projects for professional and non-manual workers and production-for-use projects. Projects for professional and non-manual workers included research and records projects on a variety of social and economic topics (such as housing facilities and health surveys), public records projects (such as indexing deeds and mapping), historical records surveys, education and recreation programs, libraries and museums work, Federal Arts Project programs, housekeeping activities, and public health work. Production-for-use projects, the primary source of work for blue-collar women, included sewing rooms, where garments and household products were created, and gardening and canning projects.[70]

Construction projects were under the direction of the Division of Engineering and Construction and included seven categories of project types.

(1) Municipal Engineering Projects included repair work on streets, alleys and sidewalks, water supply systems and purification plants, sewer systems and sewage disposal plants, parks and recreational facilities, and miscellaneous municipal improvements (not including public buildings). In the eight years of the WPA, more than 67,000 miles of urban streets were constructed, 24,000 miles of new sidewalks and paths developed, and 25,000 miles of curb laid. More than 8,000 municipal parks were developed and nearly 12,800 playgrounds (8,200 of these were school playgrounds) were constructed or improved. About 3,300 stadiums, grandstands and bleachers and 5,600 athletic fields were developed. WPA workers constructed or improved nearly 500 water treatment plants, built or improved about 1,800 pumping stations, installed or repaired more than 19,700 miles of water mains and distribution lines, and made more than 880,000 consumer connections. They dug 4,000 water wells and built or improved 3,700 storage tanks and reservoirs. More than 1,500 sewage treatment plants were built or improved and 200 incinerator plants constructed. More than 24,000 miles of storm and sanitary sewers were laid and 639,000 sewer service connections installed or repaired. More than 2,309,000 sanitary privies were newly built and nearly 40,000 improved. More than 815,000 storm sewer manholes and catch basins were constructed and another 423,000 repaired and improved.[71]

(2) Airport and Airway Projects included the construction and improvement of hangars and other airport buildings, the construction or reconstruction of runways, the installation of drainage systems and lighting systems, excavation and grading work, and airway marking work. The WPA's airport program had two distinct phases: those activities which preceeded and those that followed the declaration of a national defense emergency in 1940. During the earlier phase, projects followed general WPA guidelines. During the second phase, the WPA was called upon to conduct an accelerated program of airport construction and improvement in strategic areas throughout the country. Overall,

[70] Rose, 107-108.

[71] Ibid., 50-51.

WPA workers constructed 350 new landing fields and improved or enlarged nearly twice as many. They constructed and improved 5,925,000 linear feet of runways and 1,129,000 linear feet of taxi strips. New airport buildings numbered nearly 1,200 and another 2,800 were reconstructed or improved.[72]

(3) Public Buildings Projects included the construction and improvement of state, county, and city government buildings (including city halls, community buildings, auditoriums, and firehouses), educational and recreational buildings, city and county hospitals, penal institutions, and buildings at military and naval establishments. The total number of public buildings constructed during the eight years of the WPA was approximately 40,000. Improvements were made to more than 85,000 existing structures. More than 5,900 schools were built. Additions were made to 2,170 existing schools and another 31,000 were renovated or modernized. Library facilities were constructed or improved for more than 1,000 libraries. More than 9,300 auditoriums, gymnasiums, and other recreational buildings were constructed and another 5,800 received improvements. More than 225 hospitals were built, 156 existing facilities received additions, and another 2,170 were improved. More than 6,400 office and administrative buildings were constructed, as were more than 7,000 dormitories, 6,000 storage buildings, 900 armories, 2,700 firehouses, and 760 penal institution buildings.[73]

Throughout the WPA building construction program, certain architectural features and the use of particular materials developed. The WPA followed the newer tendencies toward simplification of architectural style as simplicity was best suited to the limited skills of the workers. The result was the construction of public buildings in regional variations of both the Art Deco and the more simplified Art Moderne styles. Reinforced concrete was used extensively in new construction work. When other structural materials were used, they were generally native to the region, easily accessible and inexpensive. It was not unusual for the production of materials (such as quarrying various stone) to be an activity associated with the WPA.

(4) Highway and Road Projects, also a category of projects within the Division of Engineering and Construction, included work on highways, roads, bridges, culverts, and gutters; roadside drainage; and roadside landscaping. Road projects were more numerous than any other kind of WPA project as they were greatly needed and could be put in operation with a minimum of preliminary engineering work. Minimum standards were encouraged (eventually required) and the use of native materials was supported. More than 572,000 miles of rural roads were constructed or improved by the WPA. More than 78,000 new bridges and viaducts were built and more than 46,000 others were improved. More than 1,000 tunnels were built in connection with road construction, 800 of which were railway tunnels, sewer tunnels, and cattle underpasses.[74]

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[72] Ibid., 51.

[73] Ibid., 52.

[74] Ibid., 53.

(5) Conservation Projects were concerned with water conservation, mine sealing, and erosion control and provided extensive WPA employment in only a few states. The WPA continued the FERA's program of dam construction of both large and small dams to assist with water conservation in drought areas. Small dams were generally earth dams, while larger dams were of concrete, core trench or bentonite earth construction. Erosion control including contour plowing, terracing, strip farming, and the construction of check dams. The total number of WPA dams numbered in the thousands and erosion control projects were widespread throughout the Plains States. In addition to these conservation efforts, the WPA also built and enlarged nearly 300 fish hatcheries and reconditioned another 160. Shelter houses, feeding stations, and sanctuaries were constructed for the protection of birds and wildlife.[75]

The last two categories under the Division of Engineering and Construction were (6) the Engineering Survey Project and (7) Disaster Emergency Activities. The Engineering Survey Projects included geodetic control surveys, boundary surveys, survey of underground structures, and riparian, stream and hydrographic surveys. Thousands of maps and hundreds of reports were published as a result of this program. The principal types of disaster emergency work included furnishing personnel and equipment; construction of dikes and strengthening of levees; evacuation of persons and property from danger zones; temporary establishment of water, sewer, gas and electric services; temporary emergency repairs to bridges and streets; operations incident to clean-up after a disaster; and employment of labor for shipment of foodstuffs, bedding, and clothing to disaster affected areas. The WPA assisted with disaster relief during floods, hurricanes, and tornadoes.[76]

WPA Service Projects included those programs designed to employ clerical, technical, and professional workers of both sexes, as well as unskilled and semiskilled women workers. The WPA continued projects developed under the FERA and CWA. The scope of services included Public Activities Projects, Research and Records Projects, and Welfare Projects. Welfare Projects accounted for the largest part of all service employment. Most service projects were sponsored by state, county, and local government agencies, although the WPA itself sponsored various projects including a national research project, a nationwide survey of historical records, and music, art, writing, and theater projects.

Those services provided under the Public Activities category included education, library, recreation, museum, music, art, writing, and theater projects. Education programs included adult learning programs and nursery schools. Library projects involved book repair services, clerical work, cataloging, indexing, and bibliographical work. In addition, library services were developed in rural areas where no services had previously existed. Recreation projects provided leadership and instruction in recreational activities of many kinds, including dancing, games, musical activities,

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[75] Ibid., 53-54.

[76] Ibid., 54-55.

photography, drawing, dramatics, arts and crafts, wildlife clubs, and discussion groups. Most recreation programs occurred in local communities; a few specialized projects provided recreational activities in state hospitals and public institutions. Museum projects employed workers in making models and visual aid devices, as well as classifying and indexing of art, archaeological and historical materials.[77]

Projects related to music, art, writing, and theater were placed together in a national project known as Federal Project No. 1. The WPA program itself provided central administration for these projects. Music projects involved teaching music and giving public performances by symphonies, orchestral ensembles, chamber music ensembles, operatic ensembles, vocal ensembles and soloists, dance orchestras, bands, and theater orchestras. The art projects included creative work in graphic arts, handicraft work, poster work, creating an Index of American Design, teaching arts and crafts, and preparing art exhibits. Countless oil paintings, water colors, etchings, sculptures, mosaics, stained glass, tapestries, rugs, ceramics, ironwork, and furniture were created through these projects. In addition, civic art centers and galleries were set up in some communities. State and local buildings were decorated with more than 2,500 murals produced under this program. The writers' projects employed workers to research and write about various subjects. Most notable was a series of state and local guide and tour books known as the American Guide Series. The theater projects were most active in the large cities where work was needy for actors and others working in the theater profession. The hopes for establishing municipal theaters in small towns were never realized.[78]

Research and Records Projects included two kinds of research projects and two kinds of records projects. Research projects included social and economic surveys and studies and research assistance projects. Records projects included public administrative records projects and the historical records survey.[79]

Welfare Projects, which provided employment for most of the WPA women workers, greatly expanded welfare services in communities. Primary activities of these projects included sewing and other goods projects, school lunch programs, gardening and canning projects, housekeeping aide projects, the surplus commodity distribution projects, and public health projects.[80]

Over the course of its life, the WPA employed more than 8.5 million people in 3000 counties on nearly 1.5 million projects. Expenditures during the eight-year period of the program total $10,750,501,000. State and local sponsors contributed more than

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[77] Ibid., 60-63.

[78] Ibid., 63-65.

[79] Ibid., 65-67.

[80] Ibid., 67-70.

$2.8 billion.[81] It may have been one of the more controversial programs, but one of the most far-reaching and best remembered.

The WPA in South Dakota

In South Dakota, the WPA was also far-reaching. Under the auspices of the State WPA Administration, the state was divided into five district administrative units. Offices were located in Aberdeen, Watertown, Sioux Falls, Pierre, and Rapid City. The State WPA Administrator was M. A. Kennedy. Originally the state was authorized to employ a maximum of only 16,000 workers, although this number was quickly increased.[82] At the peak of employment in September 1936, however, South Dakota had 49,469 workers in the WPA ranks. The numbers declined thereafter, falling to less than half of that the following quarter with only 23,785 WPA employees and only 19,565 by March 1937. The total number of hours worked in the state by WPA workers was 131,588,238 and the total amount of earnings was $52,166,091. The total amount of WPA funds expended for programs operated by the WPA in South Dakota was $61,224,127 (86.4 percent). Sponsors contributed an additional $19,602,494 (13.6 percent).[83]

In keeping with the national averages, the majority of South Dakota's WPA projects were construction projects under the Division of Engineering and Construction. The total amount spent in WPA construction projects in South Dakota was $62,737,058. Of that, 1.9 percent was spent on airports and airways, 10.3 percent on buildings, 10.2 percent on conservation projects, 43 percent on highways, road and streets, 2.9 percent on recreational facilities (excluding buildings), 2.8 percent on sanitation, 5.7 percent on water and sewer systems and other utilities, and the remaining 23 percent on engineering surveys and other projects.[84] A list of projects can be found in the appendices. It should be noted, however, that this list includes projects approved for WPA funding rather than projects completed. Further research and survey work is needed to determine which projects were completed and which are still extant today.

A total of 18,780 miles of highways, road and streets were constructed or improved throughout the state; 1,303 bridges and viaducts were built or improved; and 11,193 culverts were installed or upgraded. In terms of public buildings, 110 schools were built or added onto; 199 schools were renovated or improved; 373 other public buildings were constructed or added onto; and 379 other public buildings were renovated or improved. A total of 107 parks were developed or improved, as were 89 playgrounds and athletic fields, and 15 swimming and wading pools. Sixty-one utility plants were either constructed or improved, 138 miles of water mains and distribution lines and 115

[81] Watkins, 249.

[82] State Planning Board, Public Works, 85.

[83] Final Report, 110-112, 115, 124.

[84] Ibid., 126-127.

miles of storm and sanitary sewers were installed or improved. A total of 38,818 sanitary privies were constructed in the state. Five new airport landing fields were constructed and nine were renovated. More than 124,400 linear feet of new runway was built and an additional 19,455 linear feet was improved. Thirteen airport buildings were constructed or added onto and five were renovated.[85] Hundreds of small dams were constructed as part of the water conservation effort in the states. Many of these were actually started as FERA and CWA projects, but completed under the WPA when funding for the other programs ended.

South Dakota also participated in several WPA public service projects. More than 2.8 million garments were produced in sewing rooms; nearly 12,588,000 school lunches were served; 231,668 quarts of goods were canned; and 173,382 home visits were made by housekeeping aides. More than 3,500 adults enrolled in education activities and 352 children were enrolled in nursery school programs.[86]

Today, many of the improvements and construction projects produced under the WPA program still exist. Although no comprehensive survey has been undertaken to identify all remaining resources, several have been identified through various historic site surveys and fieldwork. Examples of resources identified through the course of this project include:

City halls in Spearfish, Faith, Sisseton, Flandreau and Mitchell (remodel) (see Figure 16)
Community halls, auditoriums and/or armories in Brookings, Pierre, Sturgis, Arlington, Flandreau, Wilmot, Volga, , Hill City, Vale, Athol, and Watertown (see Figure 17)
Schools in Kadoka, White Lake, Brookings and Baltic (remodel)
Gymnasium in Whitewood
Airport buildings in Huron and Watertown
Firehall in Belle Fourche
Museum in Rapid City (Sioux Indian Museum)
College/university buildings at South Dakota State University and South Dakota School of Mines and Technology
Park improvements in Sioux Falls (landscaping in Terrace Park), Rapid City (landscaping in Wilson and Canyon Lake Parks), Brookings (bandshell in city park), Dell Rapids (amphitheater in city park), Garretson (bathhouse, bridge, culverts, and landscaping in Split Rock Park); Flandreau (landscaping in city park) (see Figure 18)
Swimming pool and bathhouse in Alpena
Ponds, hatchery buildings, and caretaker's cottage at fish hatchery in Spearfish
Dam at Sheridan Lake (in cooperation with CCC) in the Black Hills
The Governor's Mansion in Pierre
Dinosaur Park and Skyline Drive in Rapid City
State National Guard Headquarters (Camp Rapid) in Rapid City (see Figure 19)

Because the WPA touched all corners of the state, there are sure to be many more resources constructed in association with this program that are still in existence. Further research will help to identify the type and locations of these historic resources.

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[85] Ibid., 135-136.

[86] Ibid., 134.

Figure 16. City Hall/Police and Fire Station, Sisseton.
(Dennis, 1997)

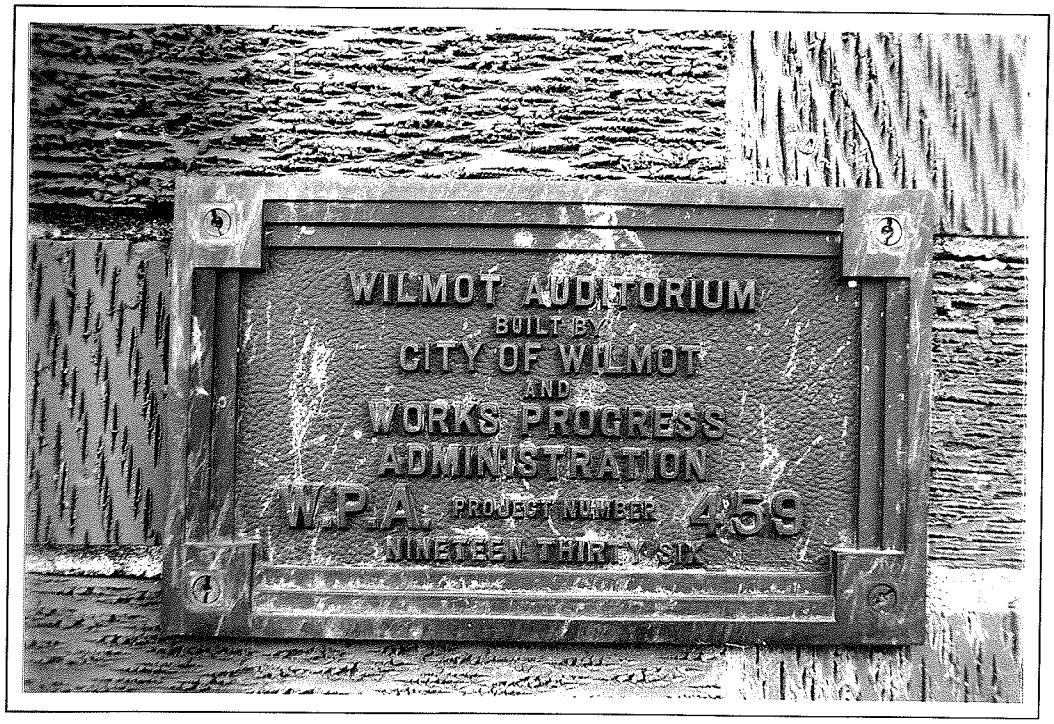

Figure 17. Plaque on Wilmot Auditorium indicating construction by WPA in 1936.
(Dennis, 1997)

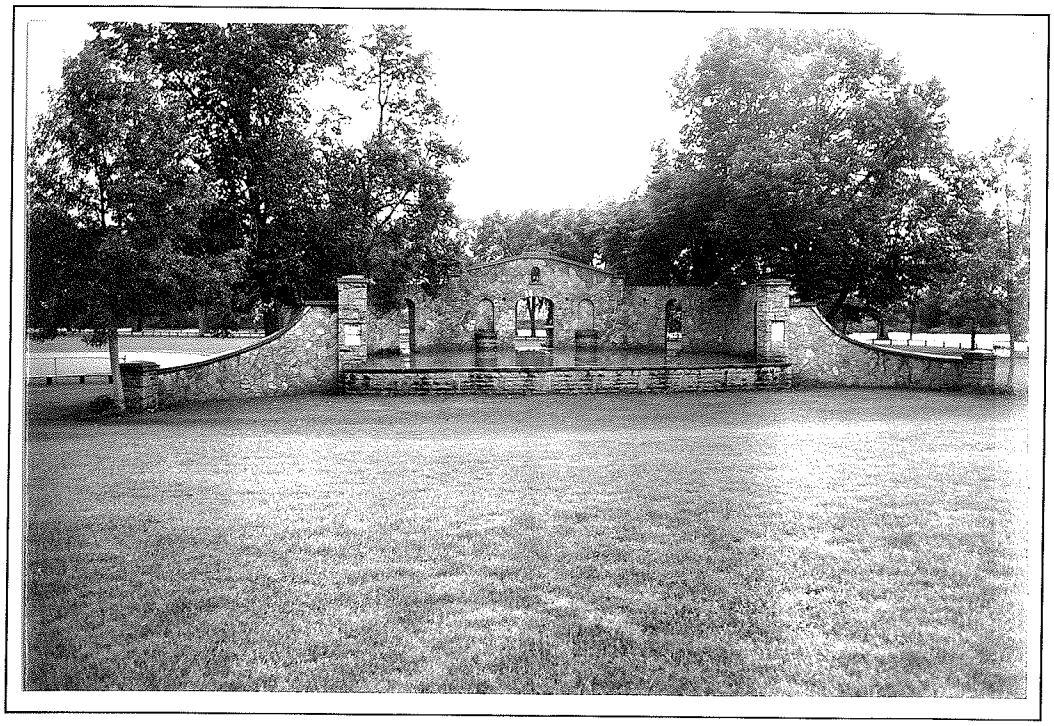

Figure 18. Amphitheater, City Park, Dell Rapids.
(Dennis, 1997)

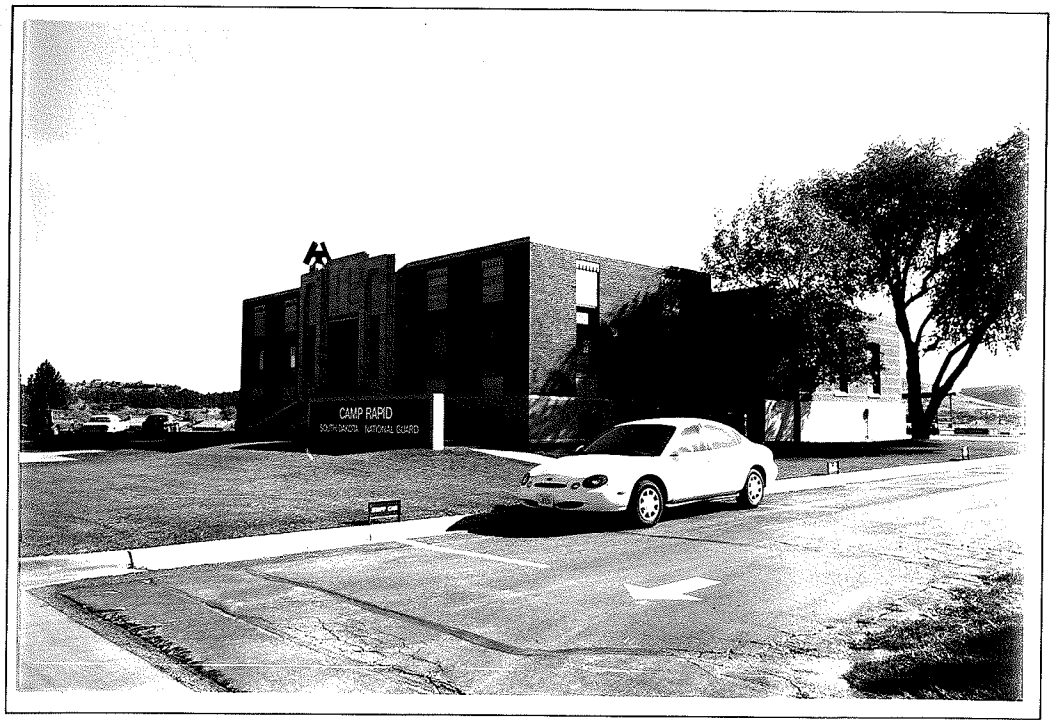

Figure 19. State National Guard Headquarters, Camp Rapid, Rapid City.
(Dennis, 1997)

National Youth Administration

In General

The National Youth Administration (NYA) was established on June 26, 1935 at the repeated urging of Eleanor Roosevelt who was concerned about the unemployed youth in the country who were not being reached by other New Deal programs. Funded with $50 million, it was placed under the auspices of the WPA program and Harry Hopkins' principal assistant, Aubrey Williams, headed the program until its end in 1943.[87]

The purpose of the NYA was to provide part-time work for two groups of youth: those who were in school but who needed financial assistance to continue their education and those who were out of school, unemployed and needy. Participants had to be between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four. To this end, the program had four primary objectives:

1. To provide funds for part-time employment of needy secondary school, college, and graduate students so that they could continue their education.
2. To provide funds for part-time employment of out-of-school youth on work projects designed to benefit the communities as well as provide work experience for the youth.
3. To establish and to encourage the establishment of job training, counseling, and placement services for youth.
4. To encourage the development and extension of constructive educational and job-qualifying leisure-time activities.[88]

To administer the program, each state had some form of a Youth Administration with a state director and a state advisory committee. Each state also had a district administrator (assigned to each WPA district) who was assigned to oversee the NYA program for that district and to work with project directors in the communities. Policy decisions and broad program provisions were established at the federal level in Washington, DC.

Youth interested in participation in the program had to apply either through their school or college or through the nearest NYA office. A quota restricted the number of youth employed at any given time, but a constant turnover of participants reduced the length of wait. National administrators set the rate of pay. High school students could earn up to six dollars per month, while college undergraduates could earn up to $25 per month. First year graduate students earned the same as undergraduates, but advanced graduate students received between $30 and $40 per month.[89]

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[87] Watkins, 258.

[88] Federal Security Agency, Final Report on the National Youth Administration Fiscal Years 1936-1943 (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1944), 24.

[89] Walter Person, "The WPA in South Dakota" (unpublished manuscript, c.1939), 45-46.

The NYA program was divided into two broad categories of work projects to coincide with the two groups of youth it was aimed at assisting. The first category was the Student Aid program where students who were still in school could work part-time and receive wages as an aid to remaining in school. Work projects under this program included numerous campus and community jobs. College and university students worked at jobs such as work in libraries, museums, educational offices, and research labs. High school students served as assistants to teachers, librarians, coaches, and playground supervisors.[90]

The second category of work projects was aimed at the out-of-school youth. These work projects were divided into four categories: (1) community development and recreational leadership; (2) rural youth development; (3) public service training; and (4) research projects. Community development projects could include construction projects, such as highway and road construction and repair, building construction or renovation, conservation work, and the development of recreational facilities. Non-construction projects included sewing, recreational leadership, museum work, school lunches, stenographic work, library service and book repair, research and statistical compilation, youth center activities, and workshop projects.[91]

Reorganization in 1939 transferred the NYA from the WPA to the newly created Federal Security Administration. It was moved again in 1942 to the War Manpower Commission in the Office for Emergency Management, a division in the Executive Offices of the President. The Labor-Federal Security Appropriation Act of 1944 ordered the end of the NYA that year.

During its eight years of operation, from 1935 to 1943, a total of $662,300,000 was expended, of which $467,600,000 went for wages for unemployed, out-of-school youth and $169,500,000 went to wages for students so that they could continue their education. Approximately 4.8 million youth were employed through the program. Of those, 2.8 million were given work experience and training on projects producing useful goods and services. The remaining two million were put to work in public and semi-public non-profit institutions.[92]

The NYA in South Dakota

South Dakota had an active NYA program. Funding for both the out-of-school and student aid programs was available. Between 1935 and 1938, the student aid program received $899,929 for wages for needy high school and college students. Approximately 85 percent of the recipients of student aid were high school students. In

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[90]Ibid., 46.

[91]Ibid., 47.

[92] Federal Security Administration, 234.

April 1938 (a representative month) 4,623 high school students earned an average of $4.19 for the month and another 728 college students earned an average of $11.32 for the month. Between 1935 and 1938, almost 400 high schools in 55 South Dakota counties participated in the NYA student aid program using $646,684 in funding. Sixteen colleges in the state also received funding for a total of $253,245 between 1935 and 1938. An average of 750 college students were employed each year of the program.[93]

During the first three years of the NYA program, the out-of-school youth work projects in South Dakota were funded for a total of $1,384,911. An average of 3,500 youth were employed at any given point in time and their average monthly wage was $14.51. No records have been located describing the type and location of work projects undertaken by this work program. It is likely that the NYA work program included construction projects, some of which may still be in existence. Further research is needed to identify historic resources associated with the NYA's programs.

Subsistence Homesteads and the Resettlement Administration

In General

In July 1933, the Division of Subsistence Homesteads of the Department of the Interior was created under the provisions of Section 208, Title II of the National Industrial Recovery Act and in December 1933, the Federal Subsistence Homesteads Corporation was created to serve as the Division's operating agency.

The purpose of the Subsistence Homesteads program was to promote the decentralization of the overbalance of population in large industrial centers; to promote economic stability by providing a system that combined payroll employment with farming and gardening; and to raise the standards of living and promote social welfare. To this end, the program developed communities composed of from 25 to 300 "subsistence homesteads." These homesteads consisted of a modern, but inexpensive, house and outbuildings, located on a plot of land upon which the family could produce a considerable portion of the food required to feed the family. The buildings were constructed according to standardized plans (see Figures 20 and 21). The homesteads were to be sold on liberal terms to families with annual incomes of less than $1,200 under a 30-year purchase plan. The average price of a homestead was $3,000. Homesteaders were selected from a list of applicants on the basis of "character, need, adaptability, and ability to pay for their homesteads."[94]

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[93] Person, 51.

[94] Federal Subsistence Homesteads Corporation, A Homestead and Hope Bulletin No. 1 (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, March 1935), 6, 15.

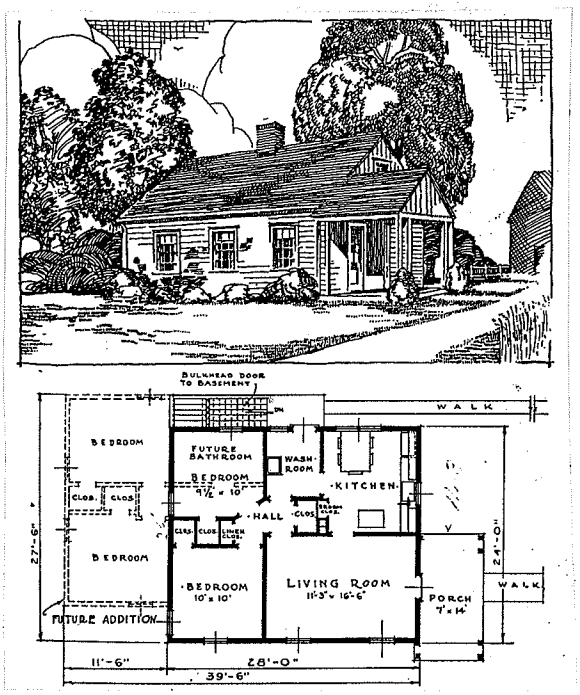

Figure 20. Plan #6514. (USDA Farmer's Bulletin No. 1738)

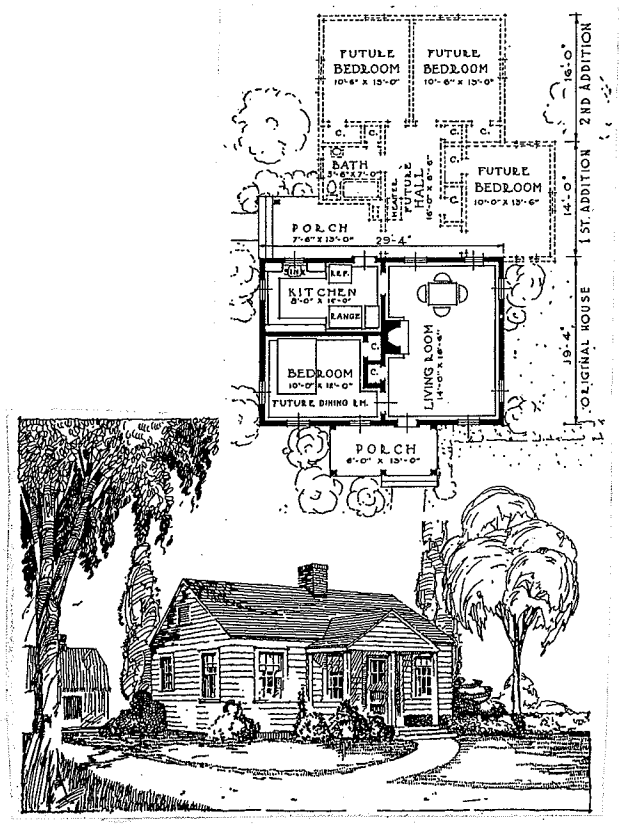

Figure 21. Plan #6515. (USDA Farmer's Bulletin No. 1738)

The first Subsistence Homesteads project was in Arthurdale, West Virginia. By spring 1934, a total of 64 projects had been approved with a projected 6,600 individual homesteads to be built. Of these, most were considered "industrial" type communities, rather than "farm communities." In the end only 34 of these proposed communities were constructed. A total of 3,304 units were built at a total cost of $30,112,467. The cost per unit was $9,114.[95]

During 1933 and 1934, the FERA also had a rural rehabilitation program which attempted to develop subsistence homestead communities. This program, however, was specifically aimed at assisting rural farming communities rather than industrial centers. All but four of the 28 total projects were farm villages or farms. A total of 2,426 units were constructed at a total cost of $21,559,325. The cost per unit was $8,887.[96] The Bureau of Indian Affairs sponsored a parallel program for relief on Native American Indian reservations.

In May 1935, Roosevelt decided to fold all rural rehabilitation and resettlement efforts into a new agency known as the Resettlement Administration under authority of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. R.G. Tugwell, Under Secretary of Agriculture, was selected as the chief administrator. Activities of the two aforementioned agencies, along with the Land Program of the FERA and the Land Policy Section of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, were transferred to the Resettlement Administration.

Continuing the work of the previous agencies, the Resettlement Administration was responsible for administering projects involving the relocation of destitute or low-income families from rural and urban areas, including the establishment, maintenance, and operation of communities; making loans to help finance the purchase of farm lands, food, livestock, and necessary equipment by farmers, farm tenants, croppers, or farm laborers; and purchasing land and devoting it to the best possible use. The agency divided its work into four principal development categories: land utilization, rural resettlement and rehabilitation, suburban resettlement, and management.[97]

As part of the agency's program, the development of Subsistence Homesteads continued. A total of 37 communities were developed under the Resettlement Administration. Most were farm communities, although there were also "garden cities," "forest homesteads," and "cooperative farms." Just over 5,200 units were constructed under this agency at a total cost of $56,423,535. The cost per unit was $10,834.[98]

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[95] Paul K. Conklin, Tomorrow A New World: The New Deal Community Program (Ithaca, NY: Cornell Press, 1967), 334.

[96] Ibid., 335.

[97] The Resettlement Administration (Washington, DC, September 1935), 4.

[98] Conklin, 337.

The Subsistence Homesteads programs proved controversial and suffered from many problems. The concepts of communal farming and structured social life imposed restrictions that many residents did not like. Non-participants envied the modern living conditions provided for participants and resented tax monies spent on the projects. Economically, the program was somewhat of a failure for the federal government. A grand total of 99 communities were developed, the majority of which were farm communities. A total of 10,938 units were constructed at a total cost of $108,095,328. The cost per unit averaged $9,691, a substantial sum for such a home. In addition, the federal government paid for the maintenance of the units until such time that they were sold to individual owners.[99] The subsistence homestead projects ended with the country's economic recovery and entry into World War II.

Subsistence Homesteads and the Resettlement Administration in South Dakota

A total of seven Subsistence Homesteads projects were planned for South Dakota, four of which were Native American Indian Subsistence Homesteads communities. In 1934, the Sioux Falls Farms Project (RF-SD-23) was started by the South Dakota Rehabilitation Corporation with funds from the FERA and further developed and maintained under the Resettlement Administration. It was an agricultural community project, consisting of 14 units of approximately 40 acres each. Additional acreage was used cooperatively for raising feed for a dairy herd. Thirteen families occupied the 821-acre farm site. Three existing houses were repaired and remodeled and ten new houses were constructed. Outbuildings included barns, chicken coops, hog houses, and in some cases garages, pigeon coops, and granaries.[100] The farms were sold to individual families when the Subsistence Homesteads programs ended. The Sioux Falls Farms Project was situated on the land that is now occupied by the Empire Mall and surrounding businesses in southwest Sioux Falls. The farm site was dissected by the construction of I-29. Despite intensive development in that part of the city, five units on the east side and two units on the west side of I-29 have survived. The area, however, is now primarily commercial and light industrial rather than rural farm land.

A second project was planned in 1934 by the South Dakota Rural Rehabilitation Corporation. The project (S-SD-53) consisted of 2,031 acres in Lawrence County on which a scattered farms project known as the Spearfish Farms Project was to be developed. The project never materialized and the land was eventually sold as surplus by 1943.[101]

The third project in South Dakota was known as the Eastern South Dakota Farms Project (RF-SD-28). Initiated by the Resettlement Administration in 1936, this was a scattered farms project located in Brookings, Lake and Moody Counties. Thirty-nine

[99] Ibid., 337.

[100] Farm Security Administration, "Report to the U.S. Congress, July 1943," 1101.

[101] Ibid., 1101.

units were established on a total of 5,988 acres. Each unit consisted of a house, barns, and chicken coops.[102] All units were sold to individual farmers. The location of each of these units has not yet been determined and further research is needed to locate them. One unit was identified in rural Brookings County, approximately six miles south and six miles east of Brookings, during a 1995 survey of related sites. Apparently the house remains, but the outbuildings have been demolished.[103]

Four Bureau of Indian Affairs Subsistence Homesteads projects existed in South Dakota. The Greenwood Colony, the White Swan Colony and the Choteau Creek Colony were developed in 1934. Each was a small project with only one to four units. The Rising Hail Colony, located on the Yankton Reservation in Charles Mix County, began in 1938 and grew to include eight units and a community barn. Interestingly, the structures on this project were constructed of chalkstone, quarried from the nearby Missouri River bluffs.[104]

Federal Art Projects

In General

In keeping with the ideals of the New Deal, the largest art programs ever undertaken by the federal government were created. It was felt that fine arts went hand in hand with a strong economy and that the two together created a distinctly American culture. In addition to providing employment for unemployed artists, it also was felt that art might actually help people "weather the Great Depression by giving them meaningful and hopeful communal (and governmental) symbols."[105]

The first of these programs was known as the Public Works of Art Project (PWAP). Initiated December 8, 1933 as a part of the CWA program, the PWAP lasted only five months and was terminated with the end of the CWA. It was administered under the Department of the Treasury with Edward Bruce as its leader. During its short life, it employed nearly 4000 Americans for a cost of just over $1.3 million (of which more than 90 percent went to wages). More than 15,660 pieces of art and craft were produced, including oil paintings, watercolors, prints, etchings, wood blocks, murals, sketches, sculptures, drawings, poster panels and carvings.[106]

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[102]Ibid., 1100.

[103] Michael A. Bedeau, "The Subsistence Homestead Program in South Dakota" (unpublished paper; Vermillion, SD: South Dakota State Historical Preservation Center, n.d), 5.

[104]Ibid, 5.

[105] Marlene Park and Gerald E. Markowitz, Democratic Vistas, Post Offices and Public Art in the New Deal (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1984), 5.

[106] Rebecca A. Pipe, "The New Deal Art Projects: An Overview" (unpublished paper, Vermillion, SD, 1985), 6-7.

Because of continued interest in providing employment for the artists and art for the masses, the PWAP was replaced by similar programs. In October 1934, the Treasury Department's Section of Painting and Sculpture (later known as the Section of Fine Arts) was created. The program, whose objective was to secure suitable art of the best quality for the embellishment of new federal buildings, was not designed as a work relief program. Artists competed for individual commissions and signed contracts for the completion of particular murals or sculptures. In the nine years of its existence, the Section gave out almost 1400 commissions and its work extended to all corners of the country. The largest number of art projects were murals on walls of newly constructed post offices and Federal courthouses, some of which were painted on-site. Projects from this program are those that are perhaps most often associated with the New Deal era. The program was officially ended on June 30, 1943 because of the war effort, but a few murals were painted under the Public Building Service as late as 1949.[107]

Two programs were created as work relief programs for unemployed artists. From 1935 to 1939, the Treasury Relief Art Project (TRAP) employed unemployed artists on work relief. Art produced by these artists was used to decorate existing federal buildings. From 1935 to 1943, the Works Progress Administration's Federal Art Project (WPA/FAP) also employed artists on relief. Their work, however, was used to decorate state and municipal buildings.[108]

The art-related projects of the WPA were set up under the WPA's Division of Professional and Service Projects, directed by Joseph Baker. In addition to the above-mentioned art projects, the Federal Art Project also included sections for music, drama and literature, providing employment for many artists and artisans. The WPA/FAP, which stressed creativity and experimentation in art, produced thousands of pieces. Within the art program, there were several categories of programs, including the Easel Project, the Mural Project, the Graphic Arts Division, the Poster Division, and the Sculpture Project. In addition, a number of community art centers and museums got their start under the FAP.

Federal Art Projects in South Dakota

South Dakota was the recipient of several pieces of art sponsored by the federal art projects. Most notable are the murals and sculptures found in several post offices constructed during the Great Depression. These are the result of the Treasury Department's Section of Painting and Sculpture (Section of Fine Art) program described above. The work was commissioned from artists around the country and included:

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[107] Park and Markowitz, 6-7.

[108] Ibid., 6.

Aberdeen Post Office and Courthouse: Laci de Gerenday, "The Building of Grand Crossing," 1940, walnut relief.

Beresford Post Office: David McCosh, "Spirit of Beresford," 1942, oil on canvas.

Flandreau Post Office: Matthew E. Ziegler, "Wheat in the Shock," 1940, oil on canvas (see Figure 23)

Mobridge Post Office: Elof Wedin, "Return from the Fields," 1938, oil on canvas.

Spearfish Post Office: Marion Overby, "Fish Story," 1943, three wood reliefs.

Sturgis Post Office: J.K. Ralston, "The Fate of a Mail Carrier – Charlie Nolin –1876," 1938, oil on canvas.

Webster Post Office: Irvin Shope, "The First White Man in South Dakota," 1939, oil on canvas.

Perhaps the most notable project in South Dakota to receive funding from a federal art project was Mount Rushmore. When carving on the mountain began in 1927, the nation's economy was strong and funding for the project seemed certain. The onset of the Great Depression, however, served to stall on-going progress on Gutzon Borglum's work. Progress was aided in part by private contributions, including donations from business, industry and individuals, and nickels, dimes and pennies from school children. In the end, however, federal appropriations of $836,000 would account for the largest portion of the $990,000 total cost.[109]

The only other identified project resulting from the federal art projects in South Dakota are the publications produced by the Federal Writer's Project. Further research is necessary to determine if any additional art projects funded through the WPA/FAP were placed in state and municipal buildings during the Great Depression.

SOUTH DAKOTA STATE PLANNING BOARD

In February 1934, South Dakota Governor Tom Berry appointed a temporary State Planning Board of eleven members following a request by the National Resources Committee for states to establish planning agencies. On March 1, 1935 the state legislature gave the Board legal status by establishing it as a permanent body. An appropriation of $20,000 was made for the biennium to cover traveling expenses, office supplies, rentals and incidental expenses. In addition to the state funding allotment, grants from the FERA and later the WPA and National Resources Committee assisted the State Planning Board in completing its work.[110]

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[109] T.D. Griffith, America's Shrine of Democracy (Sioux Falls, SD: Modern Press Incorporated, 1990), 38.

[110] South Dakota State Planning Board, Progress Report Vol. 2, No. 10 (Brookings, SD: Central Office, May 9, 1936), 2.

The National Resources Committee appointed Dr. C.W. Pugsley of Brookings as Consultant to the State Planning Board in September 1934. Dr. Paul Landis was appointed as Associate Consultant (Landis was replaced by Dr. T. Hillard Cox when he left the state for employment elsewhere). The consultants acted as technical advisors to the board and staff.

The Board was created to "make an inventory of the social and physical resources of the state and to determine points of stress and strain which constitute planning problems."[111] Eleven main fields of concern were identified, each assigned to a board member for the purposes of creating a sub-committee to attend to that specific issue. There were 74 individuals who served on the sub-committees, having been selected for their experience and interest in the particular field of work to which each was assigned. Members of the Board served without pay. The members of the Board and their committees were:

W.R. Ronald, Mitchell/Agricultural Resources (Chair, State Planning Board)
S.H. Collins, Aberdeen/Public Works (Secretary, State Planning Board)
Robert D. Lusk, Huron/Reforestation (Vice-Chair, State Planning Board)
Judge J.R. Cash, Bonesteel/Public Affairs and Social Welfare
Dr. James C. Clark, Sioux Falls/Recreation
I.D. Weeks, Vermillion/Education
Nick Caspers, Rapid City/Mineral Resources
Dr. P.B. Jenkins, Pierre/Public Health
Theodore Reise, Mitchell/Employment and Industry
Charles Trimmer, Pierre/Transportation
Charles Entsminger, Chamberlain/Rivers and Surface Waters[112]

In addition to planning on the state level, counties and cities were encouraged to set up planning agencies. All of the organized counties and a few cities and towns did create their own agencies. The county and city agencies assisted the state board by gathering information concerning local conditions and situations so that state level planning decisions could be broader and better informed. In addition, these county and city units were directly engaged in weighing WPA, PWA, and other public improvements with regards to planning problems in their locales.

It was this State Planning Board and its county units that were responsible for much of the planning for projects funded through federal relief programs. Although it did not have the authority to decide what projects should be funded through the many federal relief programs, the studies undertaken by the board served to bring together information that was needed in order for state and federal agencies to make decisions about project funding. The Board was abolished, after five years of extensive survey and planning work statewide, in June 1939.

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[111] Ibid., 2.

[112] Ibid., 2.

CONCLUSION

Despite all of the New Dealers attempt to end the country's economic crisis, it was war that finally broke the spell of economic depression. Federal relief programs had indeed helped the country's economy to some extent, but it was unprecedented federal government spending for national defense and war preparedness that put the nation firmly back on its feet. The bombing of Pearl Harbor in December 1941 provided a symbolic end to the era of the Great Depression.

Roosevelt had declared the United States a "neutral nation" when the war in Europe broke out in September 1939. But by June 1940 he authorized the sale of millions of dollars worth of surplus World War I materials. Although many of the New Deal programs were already in the process of being dismantled when Roosevelt was re-elected in 1940, he began to steer federal spending toward defense appropriations, using the remaining New Deal programs for defense activities.

Increased spending for defense greatly improved the nation's economy. By the end of 1940, personal income in the country was over $81 billion, more than $7 billion higher than any other time during the previous decade. By the middle of 1941, employment was up by more than two million jobs with thousands more created every day. Manufacturing productivity blossomed and retail sales increased by more than 16 percent. By the end of the year, personal income exceeded $104.2 billion.[113]

By the time the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor, most New Deal programs were merely administrative shells left to oversee the final operations of the programs. Those programs that continued after the country's entrance into the war did so primarily as defense-related programs. Within a few years, all of the New Deal programs were gone and when the war ended, the country was well on its way to a new era of economic wealth.

The New Deal left behind a legacy that includes thousands of built resources. Many of the resources remain today symbolizing the era of the Great Depression and the country's efforts to put America back to work. Numerous examples of these resources exist in South Dakota.

A number of South Dakota's federal relief construction resources have been identified, are recognized for their value and are subject to protective measures. Others have not yet been identified or have not yet been recognized as important links to the state's history. Still others have been lost. Future study and research is needed in the on-going effort to recognize and protect these valuable resources. They stand as symbols of the Great Depression, the federal relief construction programs, the hope for better times, and the commitment to work and public improvement.

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[113] Watkins, 341-348.

IDENTIFICATON AND EVALUATION OF RELATED HISTORIC RESOURCES

To date, there has been no comprehensive reconnaissance or intensive level survey of resources related to Federal Relief Construction in South Dakota. A number of related resources, however, have been identified through surveys of neighborhoods, communities, and counties, as well as in association with surveys of specific resource types, and are included in the statewide inventory of historic resources. Examples of resources related to this context which were identified through previous survey work include courthouses in Hughes and Aurora Counties; armories in Flandreau, Yankton, and Sturgis; auditoriums in Brookings and Watertown; post offices in Aberdeen, Milbank, and Gregory; city halls in Lead, Sioux Falls, and Faith; community halls in Vale and Fruitdale; and recreational facilities in Dell Rapids and Garretson. In addition, several resources were identified in association with a survey of Custer State Park.

Because no comprehensive survey has been conducted, a cursory windshield survey was conducted in conjunction with this project. After identifying a variety of resource types and possible locations of their construction, several cities and towns throughout South Dakota were visited to confirm the presence of some of these resource types. Certain resources types, such as those that were constructed below ground, were not included in these site visits and were not confirmed.

As a result of this windshield survey, it was determined that examples of many resource types still exist. The number of resources remaining appears to be proportionate to the number of resources originally constructed or improved under the auspices of federal relief programs. Generally speaking, those constructed in greater numbers have more resources remaining (such as stock dams and park improvements); resources constructed in fewer numbers are more rare (such as swimming pools). There may be resources, however, that were constructed or improved in sizeable quantities (such as water lines and roads), but due to deterioration over the years and the introduction of newer, modern materials, many of these resources have been replaced. Of those resources which are still in use, a number (particularly buildings) have been altered to accommodate changing needs. These alterations range from small additions to complete renovations. Some resources have been abandoned and left as ruins. There were also some resources which, although they appeared on lists of approved WPA and PWA projects, were not found at all, having either been demolished or possibly never constructed.

Resource types and related sub-types that might be found in association with federal relief construction in South Dakota are described on the following pages. Information about distribution and quantity is based on identified extant examples; further survey work will confirm the distribution and quantity of resources as they are identified. A list of related properties that have been listed on the National Register of Historic Places is included.

HISTORIC RESOURCES ASSOCIATED WITH FEDERAL RELIEF CONSTRUCTION IN SOUTH DAKOTA

A "resource type" indicates a generic class of related historic properties. For the purposes of this project, they are grouped on the basis of thematic association (such as Government Buildings or Conservation Structures) rather than in groups correlating to each federal program described in the Historic Overview section of this report (such as CCC or WPA). Each resource type includes sub-types, or specific structural types. The following sections describe these resource types and their corresponding sub-types, and provides examples of specific resources. Where it is known, distribution patterns (such as location and quantity) in South Dakota are included.

Government Buildings

Government Buildings from the Depression era are generally associated with the administration and operation of the federal, state, county, and municipal levels of government. They include the following structural sub-types:

Post Offices

Following World War I, federal construction was marked by an emphasis on efficiency. The stock market crash in 1929 and the subsequent depression, however, delayed the full implementation of the Public Buildings Act of 1926. In May 1930, Congress amended the Public Buildings Act and increased funding for public building construction. This legislation marked the beginning of the trend in public works projects during the 1930s. Following the creation of the PWA, which disbursed funds for federal construction projects, the number of post offices constructed during the decade was more than three times the number constructed during the previous fifty years. In its final report in 1939, the PWA characterized the local post office as the most typical and widely used of its building projects. The PWA financed the construction of 406 post office buildings nationwide.

Post office construction had been standardized in 1915. Four classifications (A-D) were established by which the level of annual postal receipts determined the size and materials for the post office building to be constructed. Class A buildings, for post offices with annual receipts of $800,000 and over, were constructed with materials such as marble or granite facing, ornamental bronze work, and mahogany. Class B buildings, for post offices with annual receipts from $60,000 to $800,000, were constructed with limestone or sandstone facing, marble or wood interior finishes, and restricted ornamentation. Class C buildings, for post offices with annual receipts from $15,000 to $60,000, were brick faced with stone or terra cotta. For post offices with annual receipts of less than $15,000, Class D buildings were constructed of brick with standard stock doors and sash and no ornamentation. These classes of standardization continued throughout the Depression. Minor modifications in design and materials were made by the Supervising Architect's office within the Treasury Department. Additional character-

defining features, regardless of Class designation, included lobby spaces with mail boxes, window-counter areas, large work rooms separate from the lobby areas, and Postmaster's Offices.

During the Depression era, a number of PWA post offices or post office additions were built in South Dakota. Only one was of the Class B variety. A five-story structure, designed to house several Federal agencies, was constructed in Aberdeen in 1937. This PWA building displayed a severe Moderne style of brick and Bedford limestone above a granite base. The remaining post offices constructed or expanded during this period were of the Class C variety. Each was one story faced with stone or terra cotta and was designed in either the Neo-Classical or the Colonial Revival style. These post offices and additions were built in Gregory, Lemmon, Sturgis, Mobridge, Webster, Winner, Flandreau, Beresford, Spearfish, and Custer (see Figure 22).

Art work was introduced into post offices during the Depression era as part of the Public Works of Art Program and the Treasury Department's Section of Painting and Sculpture (later called the Section of Fine Arts). Murals, paintings, and sculptures were added to Federal buildings, including post offices built in the 1930s.

A number of South Dakota post offices were embellished with art produced through the Treasury Department's art programs. Murals can be found in the Flandreau (see Figure 23), Sturgis, Beresford, Webster, and Mobridge post office buildings. Sculptures graced the post offices in Spearfish and Aberdeen.

Courthouses

There were nine PWA-financed courthouses constructed in South Dakota during the Depression era. Although designs were not standardized, most were three or four story buildings designed in variations of the Moderne styles. Building materials and finishes included brick, stone, concrete, terra cotta, terrazzo floors, marble, wood, steel casement windows, and cast-metal ornamentation.

Most courthouses from this era are distinguished by their massing and form. Typically larger, block-like buildings on elevated bases, courthouses usually display symmetry with a central entrance and uniformly placed window bays. Detailed surrounds and/or projecting bays often emphasize the central entrance. Interior character-defining features generally include large public lobbies, courtrooms, judges' chambers, and smaller offices. Occasionally courthouses were adorned with murals or sculpture sponsored by federal art projects. Further research and survey work is needed to determine which, if any, courthouses related to this context contain such artwork, as well as to which federal art projects they are related.

Courthouses constructed with PWA funding include Hughes County (1933), Clark County (1935), and Lake County (1935), all designed by architects Hugill and Blatherwick of Sioux Falls. Architects Kings and Dixon of Mitchell designed the

McCook County (1934), Miner County (1936), Davison County (1937), and Aurora County (1939) courthouses (see Figure 24). The Campbell County (1937) and the Edmunds County (1934) courthouses were designed by Roland R. Wilcken of Aberdeen.

Municipal Buildings

Municipal buildings, also called city halls or town halls, were a frequently constructed structural type nationwide during the Depression era. Stylistically, municipal buildings represent a range of architectural designs from Prairie style to Zigzag Moderne to vernacular adaptations of popular 20th century revival styles. Building materials included brick, concrete, and stone. One-story buildings were more typical in smaller communities while two or three story buildings were constructed in larger communities. Interior layouts varied but generally included various offices for city departments, a commission or council chamber, vault(s), and a public lobby. Approximately half of the municipal buildings constructed in South Dakota during this time period were financed with PWA assistance; the majority of the rest were financed with WPA assistance. As with courthouses, occasional municipal buildings were adorned with murals or sculpture sponsored by federal art projects. Further research and survey work is needed to determine which, if any, courthouses related to this context contain such artwork, as well as to which federal art projects they are related.

Municipal buildings were sometimes multi-functional, combining a number of uses such as office facilities, council chambers, libraries, auditoriums, police stations, fire stations, and jails. In at least one instance, a liquor store was included in the municipal building design when architect U. L. Freed designed the Faith Municipal Building (1940). Notable examples of municipal buildings were constructed in Sioux Falls, Yankton, Lead, Centerville, Flandreau, Sisseton (see Figure 16), Mitchell, Faith, and Spearfish (see Figure 25).

Police Stations, Fire Departments, and Jails

Although often included within municipal buildings, Police Stations, Fire Departments, and Jails were sometimes built as separate structures (though sometimes in combination with each other). These buildings were generally one or two-story structures of brick, stone, or concrete construction. Viewed as simple functional buildings, architectural ornamentation was often kept a bare minimum or absent. Characteristic features included garage spaces sufficiently large to house fire and/or police vehicles, office space, lobby space, private space for crews and staff such as kitchens and sleeping quarters, and in the case of jails, individual and/or group cells and secured windows and doors (often with bars or metal screening).

Examples of these buildings constructed in South Dakota include the brick and concrete Roberts County Jail (see Figure 13) and the stone Belle Fourche Firehall (see Figure 26).

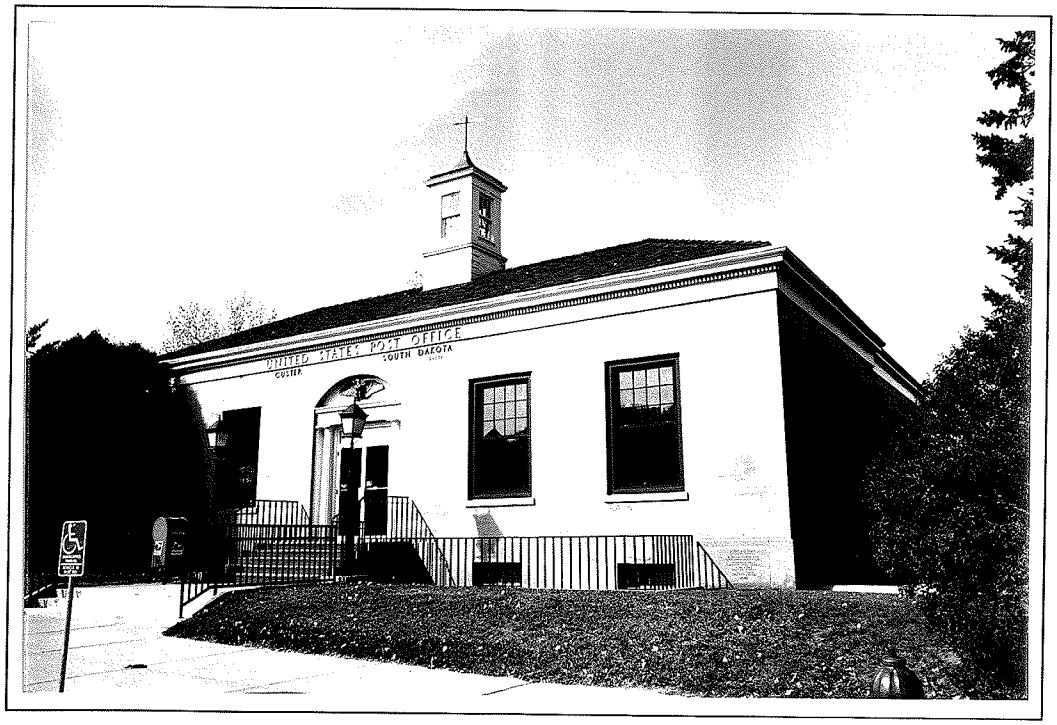

Figure 22. Post Office, Custer.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 23. "Wheat in the Shock" mural, Flandreau Post Office.
(Dennis, 1997)

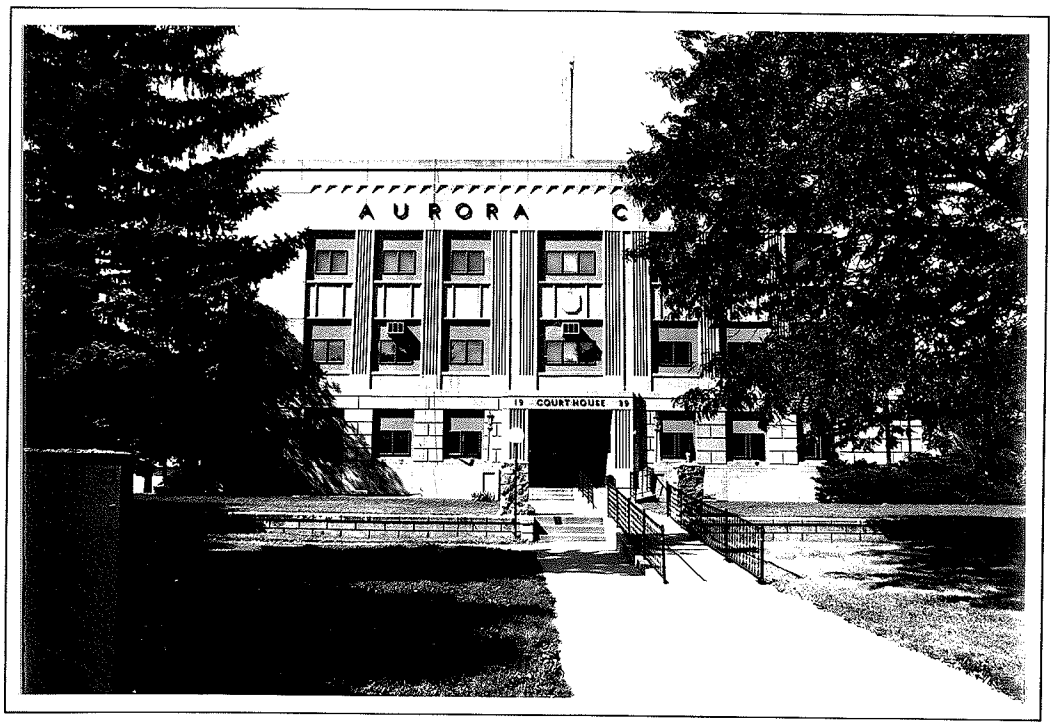

Figure 24. Aurora County Courthouse, Plankinton.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 25. City Hall, Spearfish.
(Dennis, 1997)

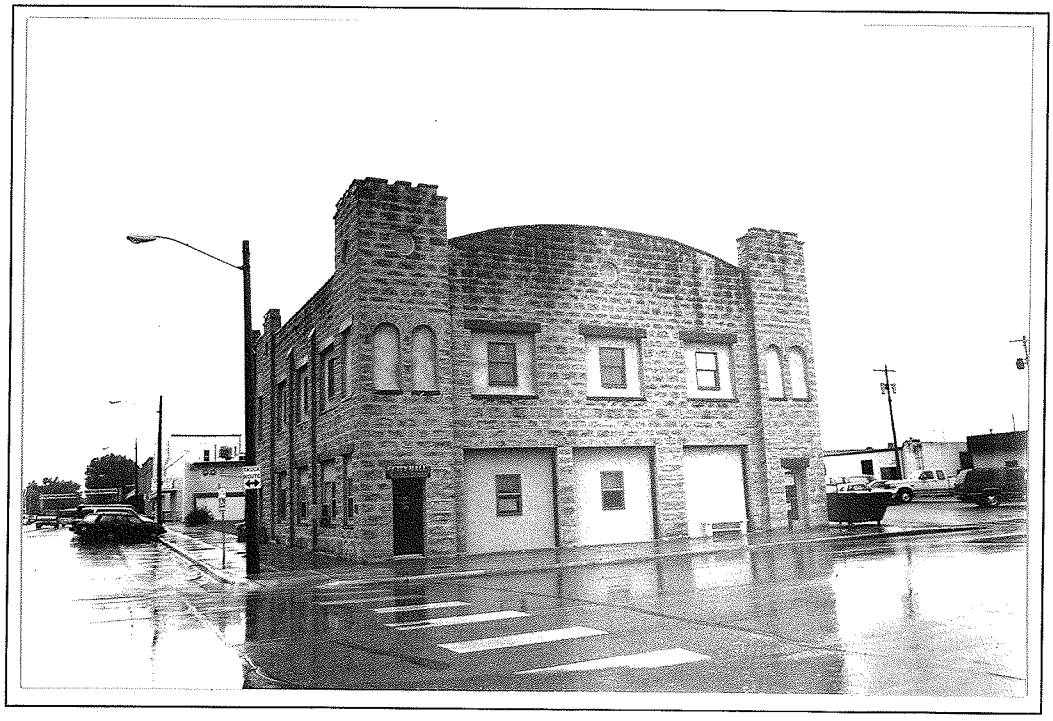

Figure 26. Firehall, Belle Fourche.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 27. South Dakota State University Armory, Brookings.
(Dennis, 1997)

Military Facilities

Military facilities include buildings and structures constructed at large scale military complexes such as Camp Rapid, as well as individual armories located in towns throughout the state and country. Armories, which served headquarters, drill centers and arsenals for National Guard and Army Reserve units, were usually large, imposing structures built with reinforced poured concrete and structural steel. Roof forms were commonly barrel vaulted or gable trusses. Often on raised basements, the main level included large open spaces used for drill floors and ceremonies; the basement level housed offices, weapon storage, and shooting ranges. The buildings are usually restrained in terms of architectural style, relying on simple decorative embellishments associated most frequently with Art Deco or Art Moderne styles for decoration. Occasionally, armories were unembellished, simple vernacular buildings. At least two South Dakota communities built auditorium-armory combinations, while other communities may have used their armories as auditorium space at times. Notable examples of this structural type were constructed in Pierre, Vermillion, Yankton, Watertown, Flandreau, and Brookings (see Figure 27).

South Dakota's National Guard Headquarters, Camp Rapid located in Rapid City, were constructed during the Depression era with funding from federal relief programs. Several buildings and structures were built during this period, including the brick administration building, a large warehouse, four mess halls, target and firing ranges, and roadways. Landscaping included a native stone wall and fence (see Figure 19).

Public Utilities

The construction of modern public utilities was one of the popular works projects associated with federal relief programs. Over one-third of the South Dakota applications for funding through the PWA was for construction or improvement of some form of public utility, as were many requests of the WPA, with the installation of water or sewer lines most common. The size and scope of these projects was generally related to the size of the community in which they were built. The larger the community, the larger and/or more numerous the associated buildings and structures were.

Public utility buildings housing water, power and heating, and sewage treatment plants shared a number of common physical attributes. In general, they were simple utilitarian buildings, although some were adorned with Art Deco and Art Moderne elements commonly associated with PWA and WPA projects. Materials were most often brick, reinforced concrete and/or stone. Windows were commonly industrial metal sash. In general, the size and form of the buildings were substantial enough to house complex mechanical operations.

Although there are repeated references to the construction of water towers, tanks and wells, water mains and distribution lines, storm and sanitary sewer lines, no

information pertaining to character-defining features was found in the literature reviewed for this project. Further research and survey work may provide detailed information about these resources, as well as the mechanical workings associated with these utilities. This property type includes the following structural types:

Waterworks

Waterworks include water towers and tanks, water wells, reservoirs, filtration plants, pumping stations, and softening plants, as well as water mains and distribution lines. Water treatment plants in general included space and mechanical apparatus for pumping water into and through filters, mixing and settling basins. Their internal configurations depended, in part, on their overall purpose.

Projects related to waterworks were built in most of the state's major towns, as well as in numerous smaller communities, including Stickney, Claremont, Lake Andes, Altamont, McLaughlin, Buffalo Gap, Highmore, Wagner, Sanator, Mobridge, Astoria and others. An example of a PWA Art Moderne style filtration plant and pumping station was constructed in Aberdeen. A more modest utilitarian building, adorned with subtle Art Deco elements, was built as part of the Mitchell water system (see Figure 28).

Power and Heating Plants

Power and heating plants includes buildings designed to house mechanical equipment needed to generate power and/or heat for the community. Although no specific information about the interior layouts of these facilities was found, it is likely that they were dependent, in part, upon the form of fuel used to generate the energy and therefore the type and size and layout of equipment needed.

Construction of community power and heating plants was approved for the towns of Flandreau, Isabel, Howard, and Sioux Falls.

Storm Sewers and Sewage Treatment Plants

The construction of sewer lines, storm sewers, and sewage disposal plants during the Depression era represented the first modern sanitation facilities in many communities. Sewage treatment facilities may have consisted of a single building in small towns or a complex of buildings in larger communities. Sewage facilities may have included a variety of equipment including flocculators, sludge tanks, clarifiers for treatment of filter effluent, pumps, air blowers, and mechanical generators to power necessary equipment. In addition to the treatment plants, sewer lines and service connections throughout communities were also constructed. Storm sewer construction included catch basins, manholes, and drainage lines.

Funding was approved for the construction of sewage treatment facilities in Flandreau (see Figure 29), Sturgis, Newell, Clark, Tripp, Kadoka, Ipswich, Dell Rapids, Lemmon. Selby and Veblen, as well as other communities throughout the state. Major storm sewer projects were undertaken in Brookings, Milbank, Redfield and Webster.

Sanitary Privies

In communities where sewage treatment facilities were not feasible, federal relief programs (primarily the WPA) constructed sanitary privies to improve overall community sanitation and reduce the risk of various diseases. Privies were square or rectangular, depending on the number of seats, and usually had a shed or gable roof. The largest majority was wood frame, although there may be examples of concrete construction. A small square window is a distinctive feature of WPA privies. More than 2.3 million sanitary privies were constructed nationwide, of which nearly 39,000 were constructed in South Dakota. According to WPA records, "sanitation projects" or "sanitary improvements" were listed in nearly all counties in South Dakota, although individual communities were not always mentioned.

Telephone Lines

The construction of telephone lines was a regular activity associated with some of the federal relief programs, in an effort to connect remote communities with larger towns and/or with each other. Typically, telephone lines included wires strung from wooden pole to pole along a designated route, often along highway right-of-ways. Glass and ceramic insulators were common equipment necessary to protect the poles from the wire. It is likely that most telephone lines from this era have long since been replaced with up-to-date equipment. The CCC was responsible for running telephone lines along various routes in the Black Hills. The WPA assisted in running telephone lines in rural counties, such as Perkins, Bennett and Haakon.

Educational Facilities

Educational Facilities represent one of the more important property types from the Great Depression era. Both the PWA and WPA programs sponsored the construction, addition to, or improvement of educational buildings. In South Dakota, the WPA sponsored the construction of or addition to 110 schools and the renovations of another 199 schools. Likewise, the PWA sponsored numerous similar projects. In addition, the construction, addition to, or improvement of college and university buildings, libraries and museums were among the projects sponsored by both these programs, as well as by the CCC. Property sub-types include:

Libraries and Museums

Although libraries and museums were among the types of projects sponsored by federal relief construction, few were built in South Dakota. In Flandreau, a library was included as part of the city hall's construction. The building is a small one-story, brick structure with decorative glass block work near the corner entrance. In Rapid City, additions to the Carnegie Library were constructed. Carefully matched, yellow limestone extensions to each side of the library were added by the WPA in 1938. Also in Rapid City is the Sioux Indian Museum, an Arts and Crafts style building constructed by the WPA with blocks of local limestone. In Custer State Park, the CCC constructed the State Park Museum using massive blocks of stone in a rustic style (see Figure 30).

In general, characteristics of libraries and museums included open spaces for reading rooms and exhibit displays, as well as smaller rooms for offices. Both types of facilities also may include spaces for collection holdings, perhaps in the form of shelves in the case of libraries, and as display cases and/or archival storage facilities in the case of museums.

Primary and Secondary Schools

Schools were among the most common types of buildings constructed by federal relief programs nationally. The PWA tended to fund large projects, including schools in Sioux Falls, Rapid City, Pierre, Brookings, Custer, Sturgis (see Figure 14) and Sisseton (see Figure 31). Designs for these larger schools were predominately rectangular two or three-story, brick and/or concrete buildings with horizontal bands of windows. Architectural styles varied and ornamentation was generally minimal. Smaller schools were the focus of the WPA, which replaced inadequate facilities in 32 cities and towns and 43 rural locations in the state. A wider range of materials was used for these schools, ranging from the small wood frame or brick one-room rural schools to reinforced concrete and brick.

Interior characteristics of large schools typically included rows of classrooms accessed by central corridors, primary staircases centrally located and secondary stairs located at each end of the building, an office (or suite of small offices) for administration, restrooms, and a faculty lounge. A number of large schools included classroom space for what was then called mechanical arts and domestic arts (generally larger spaces than regular classrooms, sometimes located in basements or wings of buildings). Some large schools also included auditoriums (often centrally located) with stages, fixed seating, and occasionally balconies. Gymnasiums were usually large open spaces with high ceilings. Characteristics may include bleachers (on one or more sides), locker and shower rooms, and hardwood floors designed for sports. Occasionally, a small stage may be at one end, especially if the school did not have an auditorium.

Characteristics of small, one-room schools were relatively uniform, based on standardized plans set forth by South Dakota law. Typically, these schools were square

or rectangular buildings with hipped roofs set on an elevated basement. A small entrance vestibule was most often centrally placed on the primary façade. Fenestration patterns included two small windows on one side and several large windows on the opposite side, a design adapted to provide better lighting and less eyestrain, more blackboard space and better seating arrangements. The main floor was primarily a large open space, sometimes with small coatrooms at the rear of the classroom space. The basement, also most often a large open space sometimes used for games and recreation, housed any mechanical and/or plumbing included in the school (not all schools were equipped with indoor plumbing).

Examples of the larger schools can be found in Sturgis and Sisseton, while examples of smaller concrete or brick schools can be found in Kadoka and White Lake. Examples of the small one-room, wood frame or brick schools are dotted throughout the countryside. Perhaps one of the most unique schools, which included four classrooms, an auditorium, a kitchen, bathrooms, and a heating plant, was constructed at Wanblee using locally made, rammed-earth blocks.

Additions to schools were also frequent construction projects, with gymnasiums and auditoriums among the most common types. An example of a notable addition to an existing school is the old Washington High School in Sioux Falls. An example of a gymnasium addition can be found in Whitewood. Additions were generally constructed to "match" the existing school facility, using similar building materials and architectural styles.

College and University Buildings

College and university buildings constructed through the federal relief programs were generally large, multi-story structures built with brick and reinforced concrete. Among the types of buildings constructed are classroom and laboratory buildings, administration buildings, dormitories, and others. Typical classroom and laboratory buildings included double-loaded corridors, with numerous classrooms or labs along both sides of the hallways. Classroom and lab size may have varied, ranging from small classrooms to larger lecture rooms. Public space was generally minimal, extending to small entrance ways, corridors, and restrooms. Space for faculty offices, usually in small rooms, was sometimes included. Administration buildings, also most often double-loaded corridor style buildings housing a variety of college and university administrative functions, were often large, prominent structures, two or three stories in size. These formal buildings were often symmetrically designed with prominent central entrances. Administration buildings may have included ceremonial space, such as an auditorium or theater. Dormitories, which provided residential living space for students, were generally two or three stories of double-loaded corridors, with student rooms located along both sides of the hallways. Public space may have included a large lobby, smaller lounge space, kitchen and dining rooms, and restrooms. Depending on the dormitory, a library or study hall may have been included.

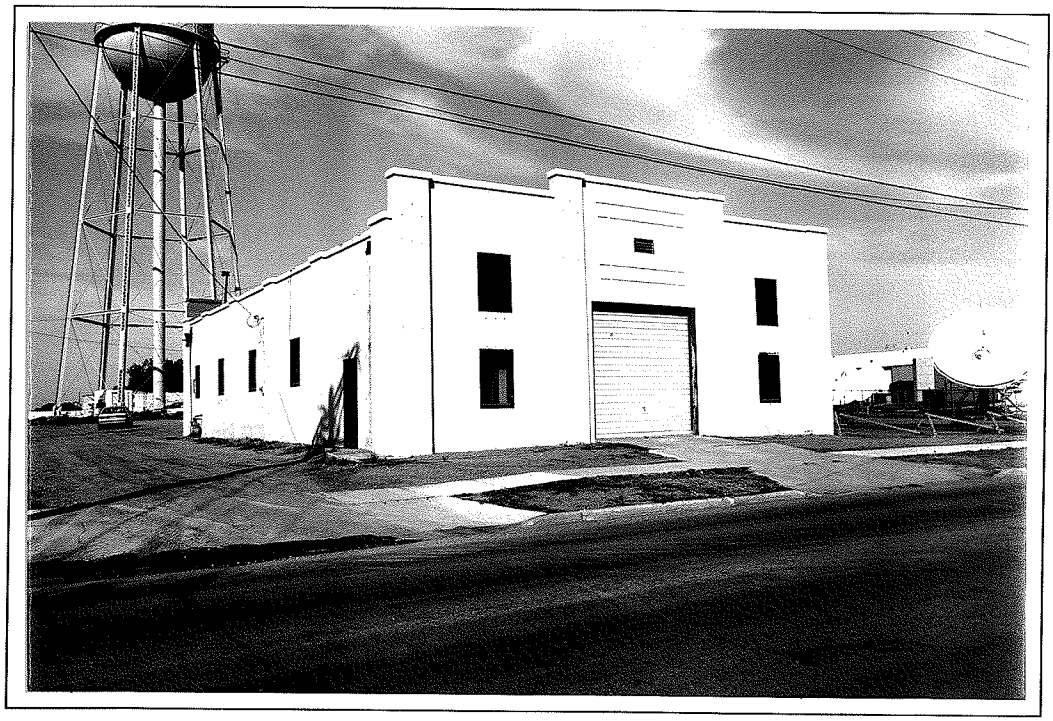

Figure 28. Waterworks, Mitchell.
(Dennis, 1997)

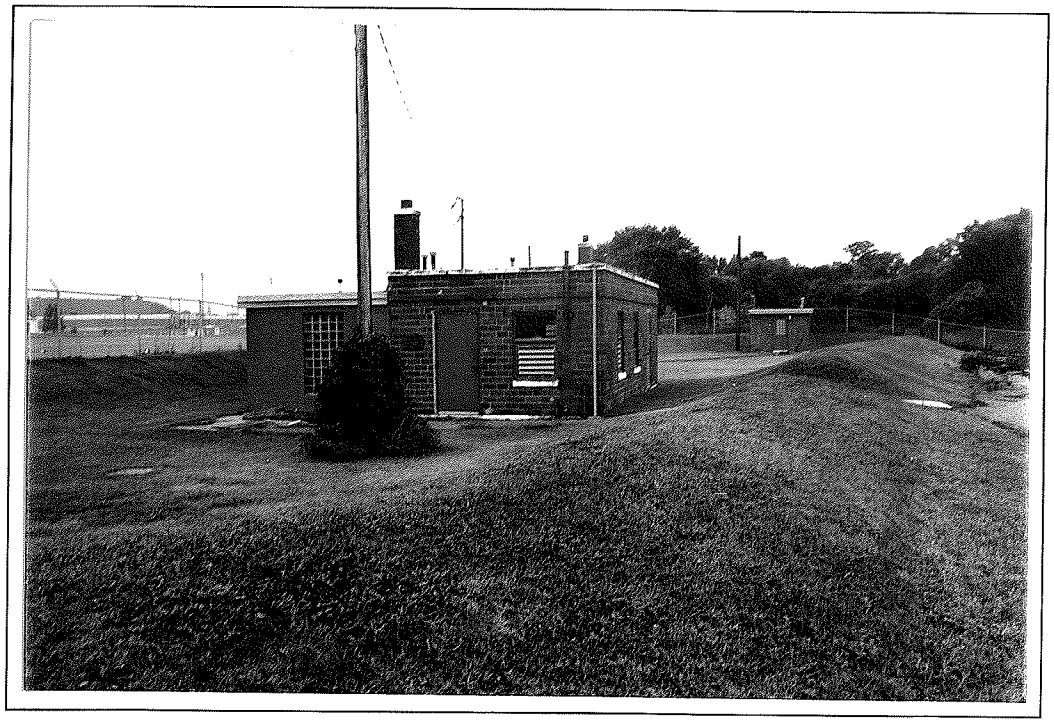

Figure 29. Sewage treatment facility, Flandreau.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 30. Museum, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 31. Public School, Sisseton.
(Dennis, 1997)

In addition to new construction, a number of existing college and university buildings were expanded as new additions were built. Examples of both can be found on the campus of South Dakota State University in Brookings. Buildings constructed during the Great Depression at SDSU include a classroom building for the agricultural program, an addition to the old armory, a new ROTC armory, an addition to Pugsley Union, and Scobey Hall, a dormitory. Other examples include an addition to the physical plant at Black Hills State University, an administration building at South Dakota School of Mines and Technology, and an addition to the administration building and recreational facilities at the University of South Dakota.

Conservation Structures

Conservation structures were constructed throughout the state of South Dakota in an effort to manage water, soil, forest, and wildlife resources. Conservation efforts were important to the state and the resulting resources were among the most significant resources within the state and were funded through several of the federal relief construction projects, including the RFC, the CCC, the PWA, the WPA, and the FERA. Hundreds of dams were constructed, thousands of trees were planted as part of the eastern South Dakota shelterbelt efforts, and thousands of acres terraced and strip farmed under the auspices of federal relief programs. In addition, forest conservation efforts were undertaken throughout the Black Hills and wildlife refuges and fish hatcheries were constructed as conservation efforts during the Great Depression.

Although descriptive information pertaining to some conservation structures was readily available and is included below, further research and survey work is needed to determine character-defining features of a number of conservation related resources including irrigation ditches (sod waterways), terraces, contour lines and pasture furrows. It is not known at this time if intact examples of some of these property sub-types may still exist in South Dakota. Property sub-types include:

Lakes, Dams and Waterways

Hundreds of dams and lakes were constructed throughout the state to provide for more dependable livestock water supplies, occasional irrigation, and recreational purposes. Typically, dams were either "earth fill with core trench" or "earth fill on bentonite base." Larger dams included riprap (embankments of stone) from the base to the crest of the front section. Dams were usually built to a height of approximately six feet above the anticipated water level for safety purposes and spillways were of heavy masonry or reinforced concrete. Occasionally, reinforced concrete was used for the dam construction as well.

The CCC in the Black Hills developed a new technique of using bentonite for the base and core of dams (described in the Historic Overview), a noteworthy engineering accomplishment. Dams which created Lakes Mitchell (see Figure 32) and Major were

the first two constructed with the experimental use of bentonite. As the method proved successful, it was used for other dams throughout South Dakota and was a technique eventually used in other areas of the country.

Figure 32. Spillway and fish ladder of Lake Mitchell dam, Black Hills. (Dennis, 1997)

One of the largest dams built by the WPA in South Dakota was the Richmond Dam eight miles northwest of Aberdeen. When filled with water, the lake covered more than 1,000 acres and was, at the time of construction, one of the state's largest artificial lakes. Other large WPA projects included the Amsden Dam (near Andover), the Faulkton Dam (ten miles southeast of Faulkton), the Pukwana Dam (three miles northwest of Pukwana), the Murdo Dam (two miles north of Murdo), and the Fordham Dam (fifteen miles southwest of Clark). The large dam that created the Lake of the Pines (now known as Sheridan Lake) in the Black Hills was a joint effort between the WPA and the CCC. The CCC was responsible for several dams and lakes in the Black Hills (as

noted in the Historic Overview). In addition, the CCC was responsible for the Fate Dam (four miles northeast of Presho), the Brakke Dam (five miles east of Presho), the Byre Dam (three miles northeast of Kennebec), the Crow Creek Dam (thirteen miles north of Chamberlain), the Dakotah Dam (approximately six miles southwest of Miller), and the Dudley Dam (five miles northeast of Hitchcock). All of these dams created lakes which provided for swimming, fishing, boating and general recreation, as well as for water supplies for some communities (such as the Murdo Dam) and occasional irrigation for nearby parks or farm fields.

In addition to several sizeable dams and lakes, most of which were constructed for recreational purposes, there are numerous smaller stock dams which dot the landscape. These dams were typically earth fill with core trench. Where the dams were large enough to warrant them, concrete or masonry spillways were constructed. Stock dams generally made use of the natural contours of the land, making the most of natural snow and rain run-offs in areas that would provide ponds deep enough to provide safe water supplies for livestock. The majority of these dams were constructed in the drier counties west of the Missouri River.

In addition to constructing dams and lakes, the WPA was involved in a number of projects in which channels of natural waterways were altered to correct for problems with flooding. Examples of these projects included redirecting or improving the channels on the James River in Huron, Rapid Creek in Rapid City, the Big Sioux River in Watertown and Sioux Falls, and the Whetstone River at Big Stone Lake. The project at Big Stone Lake, which involved the construction of a huge dike in addition to redirecting the channel of the river, was a cooperative project between federal relief projects in South Dakota and Minnesota.

Providing irrigation to drought-stricken areas was also an important aspect of federal relief program conservation efforts. The most significant irrigation project in South Dakota was the Belle Fourche Project. As a Bureau of Reclamation Project, the CCC was involved in the building and maintenance of dams, levees, canals and 654 miles of federally maintained ditches for irrigation and power generation in Butte County. Orman Dam, the water reservoir for the project, was improved and upgraded as part of the overall project. This resource was recently reviewed by the National Park Service for designation as a National Landmark.

Wildlife Refuges and Fish Hatcheries

The Bureau of Biological Survey (under the U.S. Department of Agriculture) operated three CCC camps and one side camp for the improvement of wildlife refuges in South Dakota. These camps were located at Sand Lake, La Creek, and Lake Andes Wildlife Refuges; a side camp was located at Waubay Migratory Waterfowl Refuge. At Sand Lake National Wildlife Refuge, a 945-foot long dam, 9 feet high, created a lake used as an experimental area for growing suitable waterfowl food and for experimentation with diseased ducks. A nursery with two million seedlings and 900

acres of cropland were developed to provide wildlife cover and food. Seventy miles of fence, forty miles of truck trails, several islands, a root cellar and an eight-stall garage for service vehicles were also constructed. Similar projects occurred at La Creek National Wildlife Refuge and Waubay Migratory Waterfowl Refuge. At the Lake Andes National Wildlife Refuge, creeks to the north of Lake Andes were diverted to send their waters into the lake and an overflow channel was constructed on the southwest shore of the lake. Further research and survey work is needed to determine which resources constructed during these projects may still be intact.

Improvements and additions to the Spearfish National Fish Hatchery in Spearfish and the Cleghorn Springs State Fish Hatchery in Rapid City were also projects sponsored by federal relief construction. Ponds were constructed and improved at both sites and a new hatchery building was built at the Spearfish hatchery (see Figure 33). The ponds and the building were constructed of stone. In addition, a one-and-a-half story, wood frame caretaker's cottage was constructed at the Spearfish hatchery. The Spearfish hatchery is listed on the National Register. A flood in 1972 damaged the hatchery at Cleghorn Springs so severely that any remains of resources associated built during the Depression were demolished when the hatchery was reconstructed in the mid-1970s using state-of-the-art ponds, equipment and architecture.

Forestry Stations

The CCC in the Black Hills was responsible for the construction of a number of forestry stations (ranger stations) buildings and structures for the United States Forest Service (USFS). Typical complexes included an office building, a ranger's dwelling and garage, warehouses, gas and oil houses, and various shop structures. At least two Black Hills ranger stations included powder caches, structures used to store explosives used in some construction in the Black Hills. Stylistically, the structures were generally rustic in nature and constructed of logs and stone, although the ranger's house at the Rochford station was a Craftsman style bungalow. The powder caches were small utilitarian structures built of concrete and stone.

Few examples remain of these depression era structures, as reorganization efforts of the USFS resulted in the abandonment of the stations. According to the Forest Service, most stations were dismantled or surplused upon the USFS's departure from the facility. Identified examples of buildings and structures associated with this context are the ranger's dwelling and garage at Custer (see Figure 34), the ranger's dwelling and outhouse at Summit Ridge, two dwellings and a garage in Deadwood, a powder cache and garage/storage shed located in Nemo, and a powder cache near Silver City at Pactola Lake. The ranger's house in Rochford reportedly exists, but has been substantially altered beyond recognition. The office building at Nemo was apparently converted to and used as a residence for a number of years before being relocated or demolished. All that remains of the Savoy Ranger Station are ruins of a stone chimney.

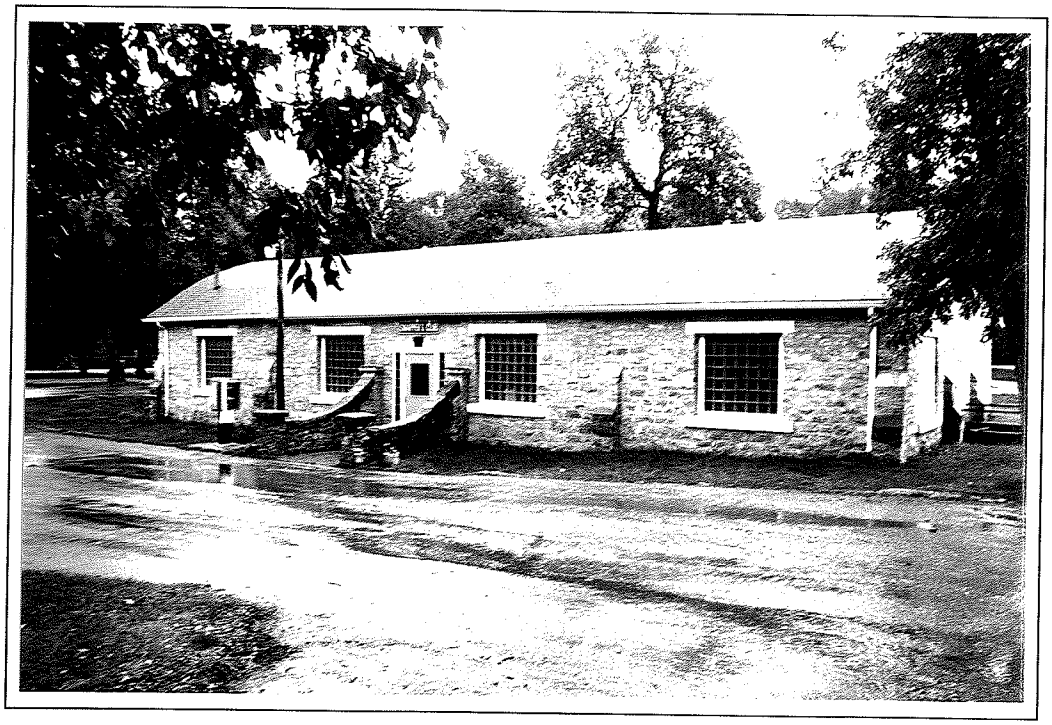

Figure 33. Fishery building at Spearfish Fish Hatchery.
(Dennis, 1997)

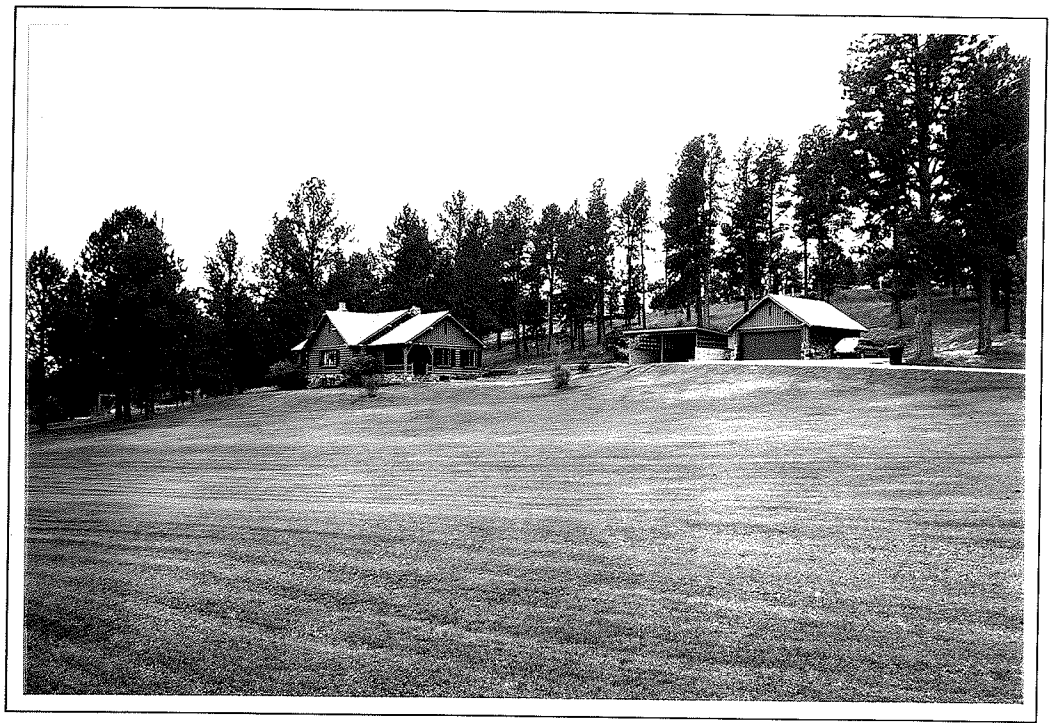

Figure 34. Forest Service ranger's dwelling and garage, Custer.
(Dennis, 1997)

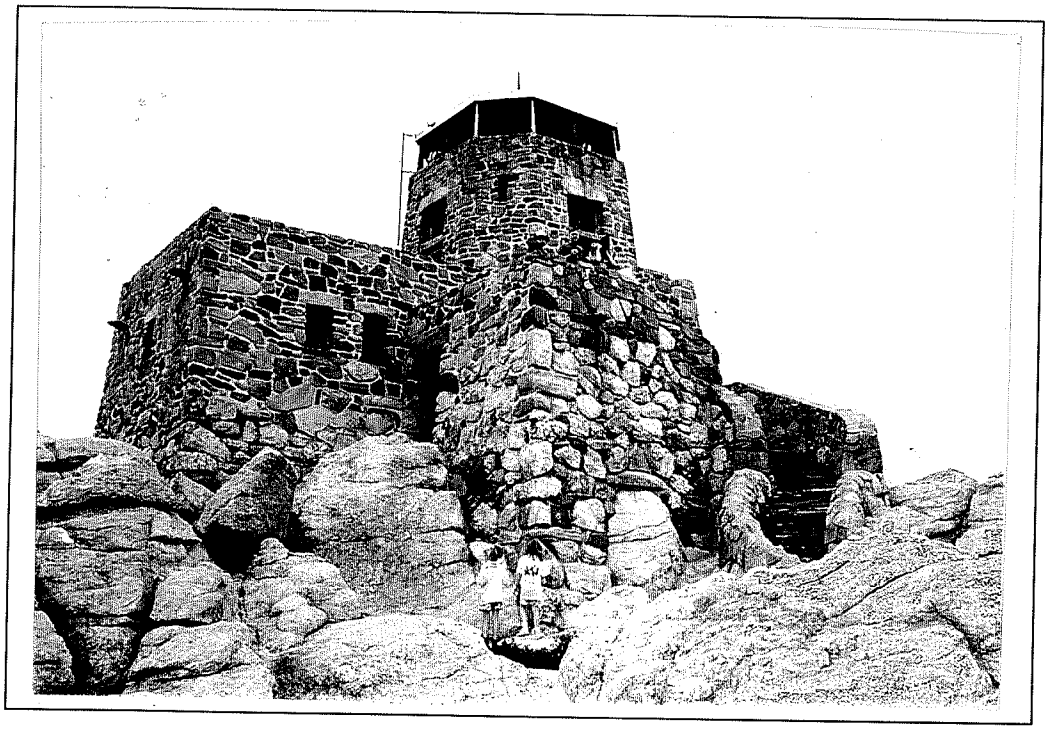

Figure 35. Harney Peak Lookout, Custer State Park.
(Photo courtesy of Custer State Park)

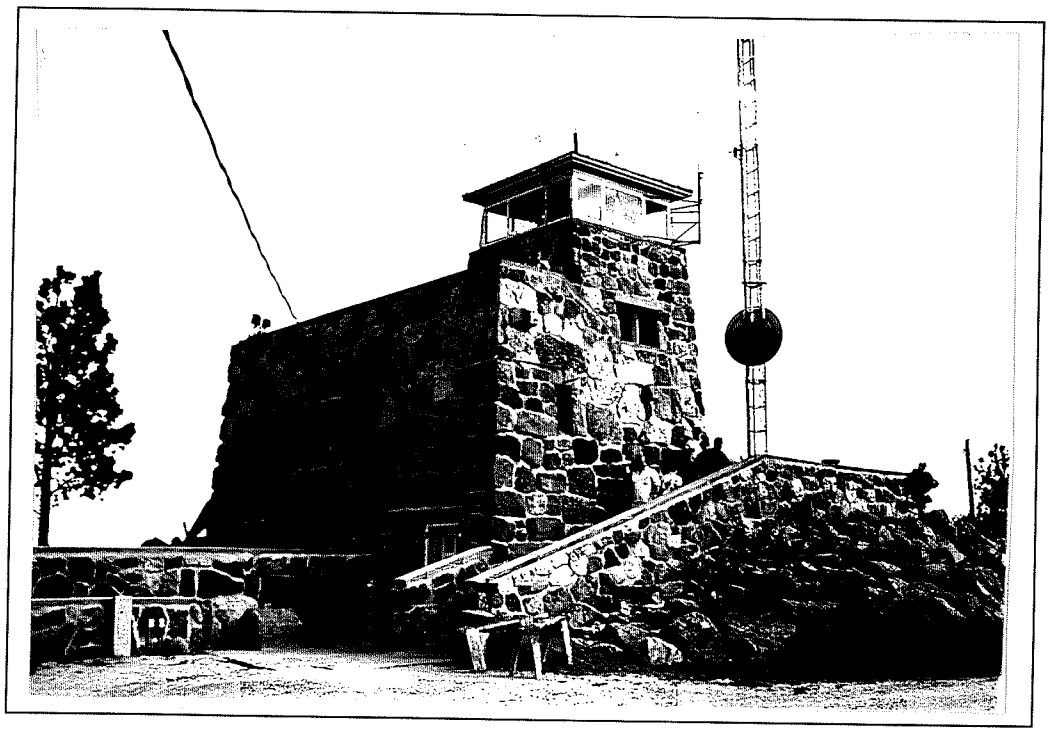

Figure 36. Mt. Coolidge Lookout, Custer State Park.
(Photo courtesy of Custer State Park)

Fire Lookouts

Fire lookouts were also constructed in the Black Hills, primarily by the CCC. Reportedly a number of wooden lookouts were erected at strategic locations and staffed by CCC enrollees 24 hours a day during fire season. Lookouts were reportedly established on Cicero, Moon and Signal Peaks, Bear Mountain, and others (the exact number and location of these lookouts is uncertain, as CCC records are inconclusive. Further research and survey work is needed to determine which, if any, of these resources still exist). In addition to wooden lookouts, at least two steel and concrete lookouts, located at Cement Ridge and Summit Ridge, were built. Strictly utilitarian in style, each lookout varied in height according to needs of the site. The frameworks of lookout tower were constructed on concrete foundations and were essentially tapered square frameworks topped by a one-room tower cabs (observatories). The cab measured roughly seven feet by seven feet and was accessed via steps that zig-zagged back and forth through the tower framework. The lower portion of the cab walls was enclosed with solid materials (wood or metal). In some cases, the upper portion of the cab walls was enclosed in glass.

Rustic stone lookouts were built on Harney Peak and Mt. Coolidge. The octagonal Harney Peak lookout, the stairs to the lookout, a small dam and a pump house, all constructed by the CCC, have been listed on the National Register. The lookout on Mt. Coolidge is similar in construction, although it is rectangular with a square observation deck (see Figures 35 and 36).

Shelterbelts, Terraces, Contour Lines, and Pasture Furrows

Conservation efforts in South Dakota included projects aimed at minimizing wind and water erosion. Eleven CCC companies, under the direction of the Soil Conservation Service, constructed terraces, pasture furrows, irrigation ditches/sod waterways, and contour lines for contour farming to reduce runoff. They also demonstrated strip cropping and rough tillage and planted several shelterbelts to reduce wind erosion. The first erosion control project in the state was established on the Karnstrum Farm four miles northeast of Wolsey and was known as the Wolsey-Shue Creek Project. Inadequate fencing was removed and new fencing constructed, wind-blown silt was plowed into the fields, and several conservation practices were applied to prevent wind erosion. Further research and survey work is needed to determine if any of the CCC's work on this project still exists, as well as to further define the characteristics associated with the conservation practices of terracing, contour lines, and pasture furrows.

Shelterbelts, large stands of trees strategically placed to reduce wind erosion on farmland, were planted in eastern South Dakota by the CCC and WPA as part of the Great Plains Shelterbelt (later known as the Prairie States Forestry Project). As many as seventy species of trees and shrubs were planted, the most successful of which was eastern red cedar, caragana, juniper, American plum, boxelder, Russian olive, green ash, cottonwood, American elm, Chinese elm, buckthorn, hackberry, western yellow pine and

western chokecherry. Shelterbelts were planted on 5,820 farms and covered more than 44,000 acres in the state. Because of the life expectancy of some of the species, it is likely that examples of shelterbelts from this era may still exist. It should be noted, however, that continued maintenance and planting, as well as self-sown seeds, may have altered the stands of trees over time. At least five nurseries (listed in the Historic Overview) provided trees for the state's program. Further research and survey work is needed to determine if any of these nurseries still exists.

Social and Recreational Facilities

Social and Recreational Facilities were among the most commonly constructed property types during the Great Depression. Federal relief programs provided funding assistance to construct buildings and structures that for many communities had been previously unaffordable. A number of communities were able to upgrade outdated facilities. In addition, an increase in leisure time and the growing number of automobiles increased the demand for recreational facilities. Social and Recreational Facilities were sponsored by several federal relief programs, with the WPA responsible for the majority of projects in South Dakota, and include the following sub-types:

Auditoriums and Community Buildings

Dozens of Auditoriums and Community Buildings were constructed in South Dakota as a result of federal relief programs. They varied in scale and design, representing large and small structures in a variety of architectural styles, ranging from simple vernacular to the distinctive Moderne style often associated with WPA-construction. Materials also varied and included wood, reinforced concrete, brick, and stone. Large auditoriums sometimes had barrel vault roofs. Fenestration patterns varied. As community gathering space, auditoriums and community buildings usually included large open spaces for various ceremonial purposes. Sometimes used as a community gymnasium and/or theater, some were equipped with hardwood floors and/or stages. In addition to the large spaces, an office, a kitchen, and restrooms may have been included. Occasionally, community buildings were multi-functional incorporating public services into the building.

Examples of large scale, reinforced concrete auditoriums can be found in Arlington and Volga (see Figure 37). A brick and tile auditorium exists in Wilmot. Examples of small scale wood frame community buildings can be found in Vale and Athol (see Figure 38).

Fairgrounds and Rodeo Grounds Structures

A number of state and county fairgrounds benefited from federal relief projects, including some in South Dakota. Fairgrounds Structures include exhibit halls, stock

pavilions, grandstands, storage sheds, barns, show and rodeo rings, and occasionally sale barns. Rodeo grounds structures generally included grandstands or bleachers and show rings with attached entry chutes. Projects were approved for both the construction and improvement of these buildings and structures, as well as general landscaping for the grounds and the installation of utilities such as water, sewer and power. Little information was found describing these structures as related to this context and therefore, further research and survey work is needed to determine additional character-defining features of each resource type.

Examples of WPA-approved projects in South Dakota include grounds improvements at the Butte County fairgrounds at Nisland (listed on the National Register) (see Figure 39), construction of /repair to a large log grandstand and improvements at the rodeo grounds in Deadwood, construction of buildings and installation of water and electric lines at the Bennett County fairgrounds in Martin, construction of a pavilion and stock barn at the Gregory County fairgrounds in Bonesteel, construction of exhibit halls at the Harding County fairgrounds in Camp Crook, construction of exhibit halls at the Day County fairgrounds in Webster, and general "improvements" at the State Fairgrounds in Huron. Research and survey work is needed to determine which of these projects, as well as others, were completed and which, if any, remain.

Sports and Recreation Structures

Sports and Recreation Structures include gymnasiums, field houses, and recreation centers, as well as stadiums and grandstands. A number of athletic fields were also constructed. The size, materials and styles of the buildings and structures varied. Some were small, others sizable. Typical of construction associated with federal relief programs, some were stylistically vernacular, and others ornamented with Art Deco or Art Moderne elements and motifs. Materials included wood, brick, concrete and/or stone. Character-defining features may include hardwood floors and basketball courts, locker rooms and shower facilities, training rooms, and equipment storage. Some gymnasiums included bleachers for seating. Some recreation centers may have included swimming pools. Stadiums and grandstands generally included bleacher-style seating under a canopy roof structure, sports fields (such as baseball diamonds) or open grounds (for events such as rodeos), and some form of fencing. Sports and recreation structures were sometimes built near or adjacent to school facilities. A reinforced concrete gymnasium was built adjacent to the school in Whitewood.

Swimming Pools and Bathhouses

Swimming pools and bathhouses were also popular during the Great Depression, although few were built in South Dakota. In-ground pools ranged from small wading pools to full-size structures and were of reinforced concrete construction. Most were surrounded by concrete decking. Larger pools may have included a diving area with

Figure 37. Community auditorium, Volga.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 38. Community hall, Athol.
(Dennis, 1997)

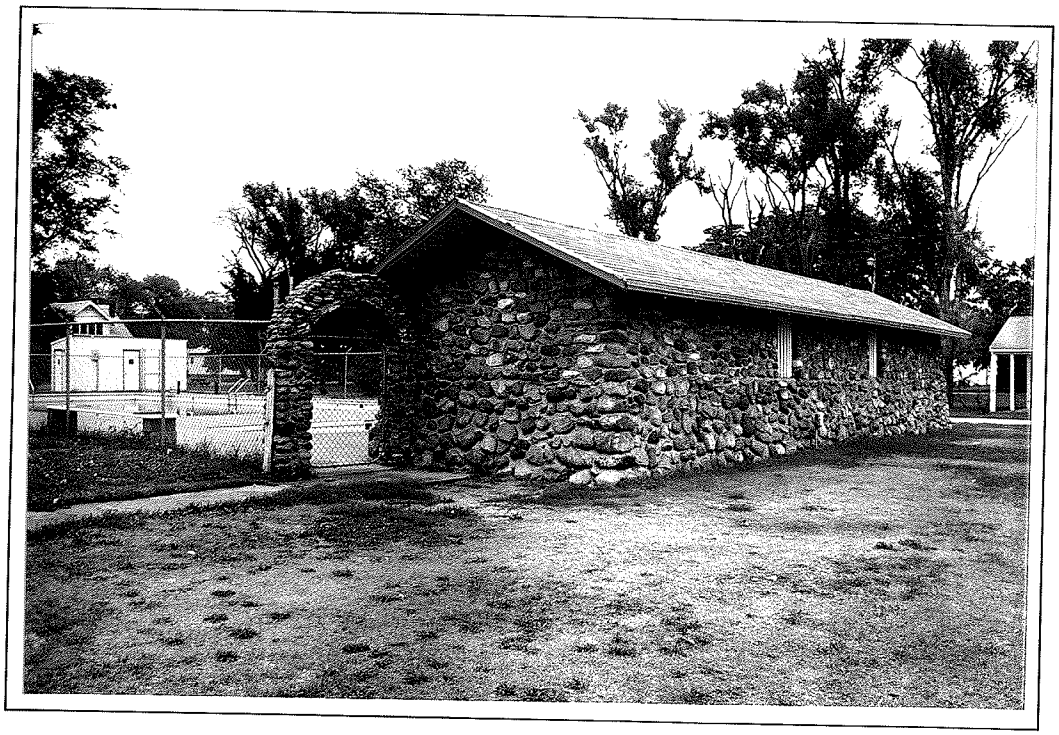

Figure 39. Swimming pool and bathhouse, Alpena.
(Dennis, 1997)

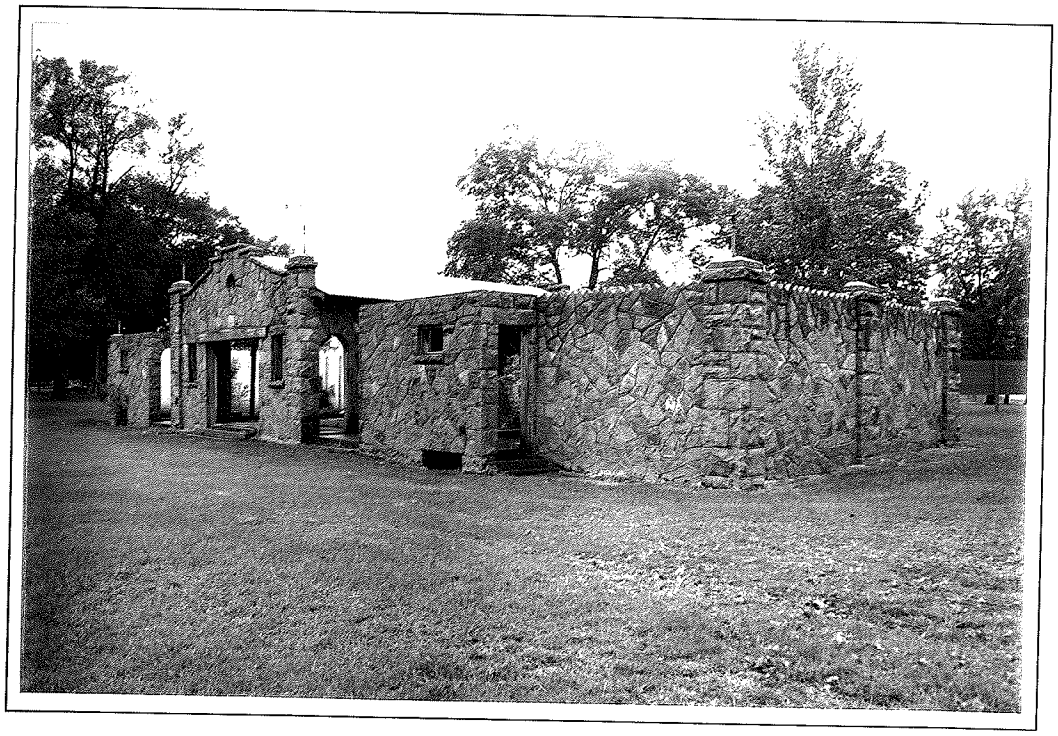

Figure 40. Beach bathhouse, City Park, Dell Rapids.
(Dennis, 1997)

diving board(s). Bathhouses were built either in conjunction with swimming pools or as facilities at beaches along rivers or at lakes. Styles varied and the use of local building materials, such as cut quarried stone or field stone, was common. The typical layout of bathhouses included a central block, used for public space and administrative service, flanked by a wing on each side housing dressing rooms for men and women. Some bathhouses may have included shower and restroom facilities in the dressing areas. Roofs were usually flat; windows were limited to the central portion of the building. Floors were usually poured concrete.

Examples of swimming pools can be found in Alpena, which also has a small WPA-built rubble stone bathhouse (see Figure 40). Quartzite stone bathhouses were constructed in Dell Rapids City Park (CWA-built) (see figure 41) and Split Rock Park in Garretson (WPA-built). All three have central sections flanked by wings.

Parks, Campgrounds and Picnic Grounds

Based on the idea of making nature more enjoyable and accessible, parks, campgrounds and picnic grounds were constructed throughout South Dakota. Construction and improvement projects were funded through several federal relief programs and resulted in the development and improvement of numerous parks, camp and picnic grounds throughout South Dakota. A large number of these projects were funded through the CCC and WPA.

Parks, which tended to be developed for individual communities, ranged in size from small parks, such as the improvements made to the community park in Piedmont, to large-scale parks, such as Farm Island Park in Pierre. Campgrounds and picnic grounds also varied in size and were often developed in conjunction with state parks and forest service land. Improvements included picnic shelters and sanitation buildings, recreation buildings, pathways and bridges, curbing, landscaping, bandstands and amphitheaters. In keeping with the emphasis on nature, natural settings were emphasized and "rustic" architecture, with its massive elements, was the dominant style. The use of native building materials, such as logs and stone, was common. Projects under the auspices of the U.S. Forest Service (predominantly CCC projects) utilized standardized plans (occasionally modified) for buildings and structures in campgrounds and picnic grounds. These plans emphasized the use of native materials in a rustic mode. Some projects, such as bandshells, were less rustic and more "Moderne" in appearance, with occasional hints of classical imagery. Bandshells, typically of concrete construction, were of the quarter-sphere variety and may have been architect-designed.

Farm Island Park in Pierre was perhaps one of the most extensive undertakings in park development during the period, encompassing a 1600-acre island in the Missouri River. A CCC camp was stationed there and was responsible for the construction of the causeway to the island, lodges for the Boys Scouts and the Girls Scouts, a community building, cabins, and general landscaping improvements. Farm Island Park structures clearly illustrate the use of rustic architecture for park improvements. Split Rock Park, a

community park in Garretson, was started with a grant from the RFC for the construction of a dam. Continued funding through the WPA resulted in the construction of a beach and stone bathhouse, a stone arch bridge, three stone culverts, and extensive landscaping. In Rapid City, the WPA and the CCC sponsored construction of picnic shelters and stone ponds and waterways at Canyon Lake Park. WPA funding paid for the development of gardens, wading pool, and an ice skating rink in Rapid City's Wilson Park and for the construction of the native stone amphitheater in the Dell Rapids City Park. The Japanese Gardens at Terrace Park in Sioux Falls were developed, in part, with assistance from the WPA. Reinforced concrete bandshells in the Moderne style were constructed in the Brookings City Park (designed by Albert Pugsley) and Huron's Campbell Park (designed by F.C.W. Kuehn). Perhaps one of the most unusual parks developed with federal assistance is Dinosaur Park in Rapid City. The park, atop the ridge that divides the city, includes several life-sized dinosaurs constructed of concrete (see Figure 41).

Numerous picnic areas and campgrounds were developed throughout the Black Hills by the CCC. An excellent example of the rustic style of architecture using massive stone and log elements is Grizzly Bear picnic area on Iron Mountain Road near Mt. Rushmore. This picnic ground (originally developed as a campground) was developed by a CCC crew stationed at a camp in Custer State Park. Development of the grounds included construction of a large log and stone shelter house with a massive stone stove/fireplace, a stone and log latrine, a well house, a mile of road with a dozen spurs for individual camps, two parking areas, outdoor camp stoves, picnic tables and benches. Construction of the road included culverts and bridges (see Figures 42 and 43). General landscaping included preparation of the site to add an additional twelve individual camp sites if the demand warranted. Examples of other campgrounds and picnic grounds include Steamboat Rock (near Nemo), Haselrodt (near Custer), Spring Creek (just west of Rapid City), Roubaix Lake (off Highway 385), and Stockade Lake (near Custer). Although original structures at some of the campgrounds and picnic grounds have since been replaced, there are examples of the original structures found in various locations. For example, the picnic ground at Stockade Lake includes several examples of the camp stoves based on the standard Forest Service plan for "High Chimney Stoves" (see Figure 44).

Resorts and Lodges

Tourism had been long established as one of the state's economic mainstays by the time Great Depression hit. The abundance of federal relief program labor resulted in the construction of and improvement to resorts, lodges and tourist cabins throughout the state, especially in the Black Hills, a popular tourist destination.

Perhaps one of the more significant projects was the construction of the new Sylvan Lake Lodge, designed by South Dakota architect Harold Spitznagel (see Figure 45). This lodge, exemplifying the use of native materials in a modified rustic mode, is constructed of native granite and knotty pine set in a decorative chevron pattern. The lodge, with its massive fireplaces and chimneys is decorated on the interior with

Figure 41. Two of the concrete dinosaurs at Dinosaur Park, Rapid City.
(Dennis, 1997)

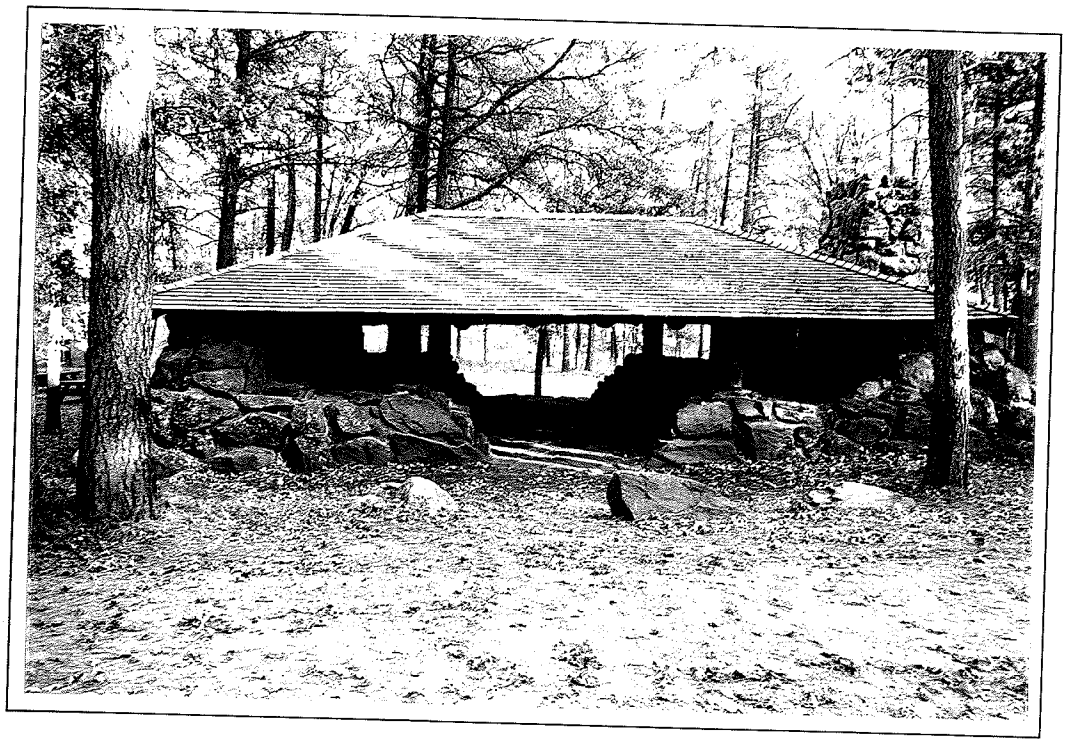

Figure 42. Picnic shelter, Grizzly Bear picnic ground, Black Hills.
(Dennis, 1997)

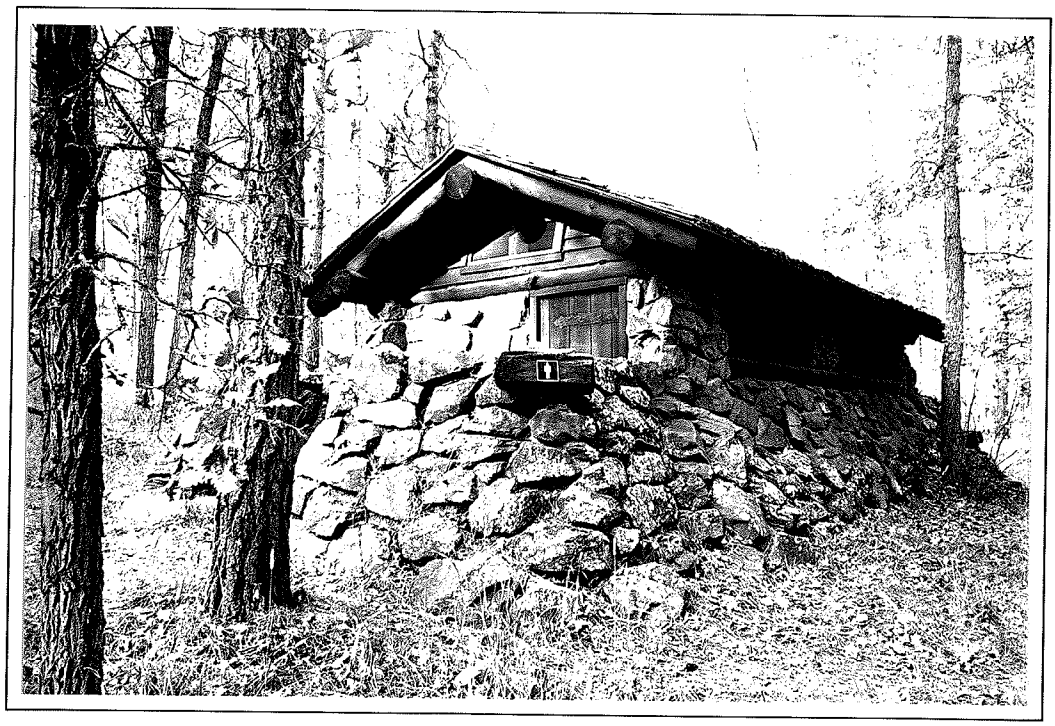

Figure 43. Latrine, Grizzly Bear picnic ground, Black Hills.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 44. "High Chimney Stove," Stockade Lake campground, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

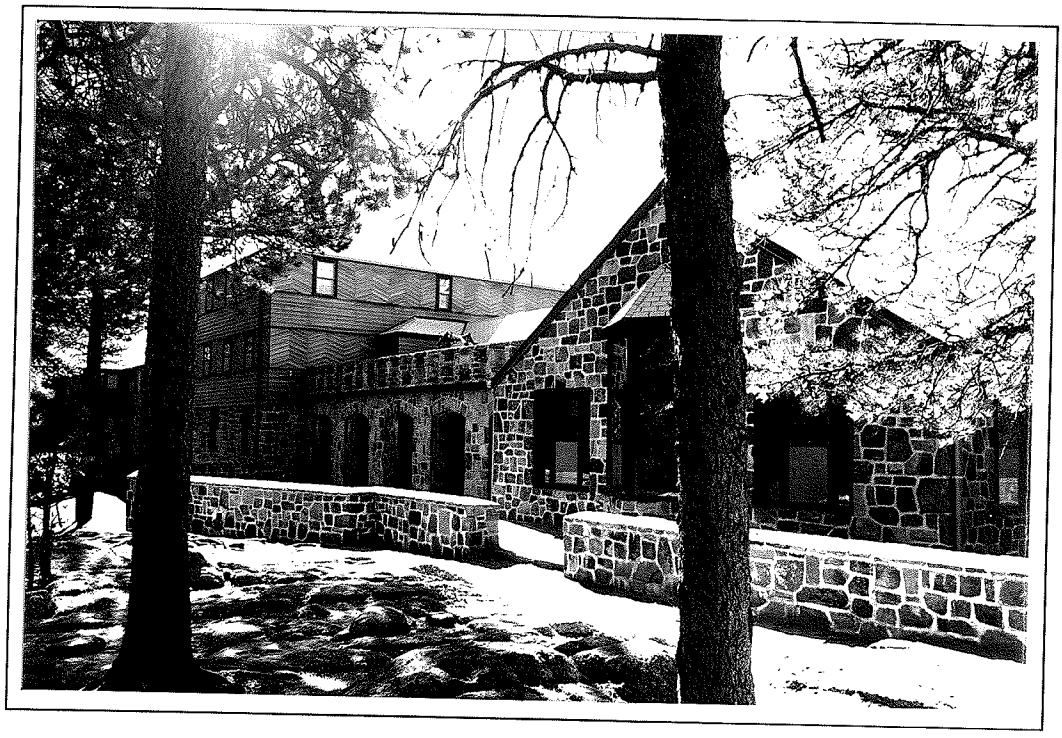

Figure 45. Sylvan Lake Lodge, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

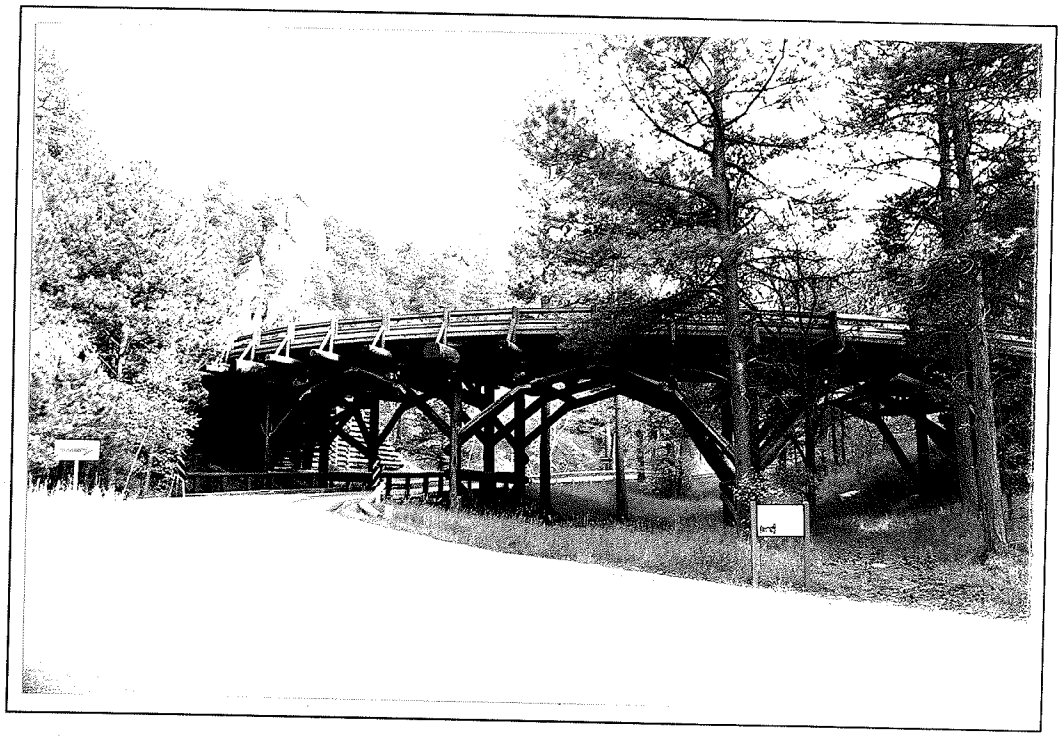

Figure 46. Pigtail bridge, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

American Indian motifs designed by Erica Lohmann. The project was funded in part by the PWA after a fire destroyed the original lodge in the mid-1930s; labor was provided by the WPA and CCC. While the WPA did the majority of actual construction on the building, the CCC collected and hauled the stone used for the building, built the sewer and water system, and developed the road and parking at the lodge. In addition, the CCC constructed seventeen rustic cabins, a store, and a filling station, all designed to harmonize with the lodge and the surrounding environment at Sylvan Lake. Four of the cabins were double cabins (making eight units), nine were two-room cabins, and four were one-room cabins. All were one-story buildings constructed of logs, each with a massive stone fireplace and chimney. The store and filling station were wood frame and log buildings.

The CCC also developed a number of tourist cabins near Blue Bell Lodge, which was designed and constructed by J. P. Eisentraut in 1927 and sold to Custer State Park in 1935. The lodge itself is an excellent example of rustic architecture using log and stone construction. The cabins were designed to complement the lodge and were also of log and stone construction, similar in style to the cabins at Sylvan Lake.

Legion Lake Resort was developed by the American Legion of South Dakota. After being granted permission to dam Galena Creek, build a store and restaurant, and develop a campground for public use, the Legion received funds through the RFC for construction of the dam. The work provided work for a number of men with preference being given to veterans. The earthen dam was completed in February 1933 and the store, restaurant and campground opened later that year. At the time of its construction, Legion Lake was the largest manmade lake in South Dakota. The resort was sold to Custer State Park in 1936 and a new water system for the resort was developed and installed by the CCC. The WPA also provided improvements with the addition to the restaurant and the construction of a playground, two log bathhouses, a swimming dock, a diving tower, and a number of wood frame cabins at the resort.

Scenic Byways

The use of the automobile by tourists had grown in popularity throughout the 1920s. In response, a number of scenic byways were created or improved for auto-touring under the auspices of federal relief programs during the 1930s. Construction projects included tasks such as surveying road sites, excavating and grading, bridge and culvert building, landscaping including the construction of fences and stone walls, and the development of scenic overlooks and viewpoints. Depending on the project, some road surfaces were paved with macadam, others were improved as gravel roads. Bridges and culverts were a variety of concrete, stone, and log and stone.

Among the related projects in South Dakota was Skyline Drive in Rapid City, originally funded as a FERA project, but completed as a WPA project. Skyline Drive is a scenic byway that winds its way along the ridgeline of the hill that separates the east from the west portions of the city. The winding road was lined with log guard rails and stone

retaining walls, built with limestone quarried nearby. A number of scenic turnouts were created, giving views of the Black Hills to the west and the prairie to the east and north. Dinosaur Park (mentioned above) is located on Skyline Drive. Although the roadbed itself has been repaved repeatedly over the years and the log guard rails were replaced after they deteriorated, much of the original rock wall work remains, although in a deteriorated condition. The byway is still a popular attraction for tourists in the area.

Other important scenic byways developed and improved during the Depression were roads in the Badlands National Monument. Work on the roads began after the monument was authorized in 1929, with a route from near Pinnacles to Cedar Pass and another from Scenic to Sheep Mountain constructed between 1932 and 1935. The FERA and the WPA may have completed some of this work. After the monument was officially established in 1939, CCC camps were established there. One of the projects on which the CCC worked was to improve the earlier roadways, including the removal of two tunnels, graveling and maintenance of the roads, the development of scenic turnouts and the construction and placement of signage. Much of the early work by the WPA and CCC on these byways has been altered with further improvements to the roadbeds (widening, paving, straightening to accommodate larger and faster vehicle travel) and replacement of early signage. Thousands of visitors travel these byways each year.

Federal relief programs also provided funding for improvements on established scenic byways. This work often included the construction or replacement of bridges and the improvement of roadbeds with gravel or concrete paving. Because the use of concrete as a building material was labor-intensive, it was the most frequent choice for bridge construction throughout the state. The use of stone was a second labor-intensive choice (further information on road and bridge construction can be found in the Transportation Systems section).

In Custer State Park, the CCC was engaged in bridge building on the park's scenic byways. Although concrete was used in part of the construction, stone and log construction were frequent. Perhaps the most significant examples of scenic bridges include the pigtail bridges on Iron Mountain Road. These rustic style bridges, built with ponderosa pine logs, were integral to the scenic byway design in which the roadway spirals back over itself, enhancing the picturesque qualities of the Black Hills setting (see Figure 46). Designed by former governor and U.S. Senator Peter Norbeck, in cooperation with the Custer State Park Board and the U.S. Forest Service, a number of these pigtail bridges were work projects for various CCC camps. The bridges built in the 1930s, however, deteriorated over time and in the 1950s, modifications were made to prolong their life. Rotting timber was replaced, steel I-beams were added between the stringers to reinforce the decking, and concrete was poured around the piles to prevent further moisture penetration. Since that time, all but one of the bridges has been further rebuilt and modified. With the exception of the one, which is listed on the National Register, the appearance of the bridges has been somewhat altered, although they still function as pigtails.

Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects

Institutional Buildings and Social Welfare Projects include those buildings and structures associated with the institutional facilities and social welfare programs. This property type is divided into the following structural types:

Hospitals

Hospitals were constructed in a number of communities nationwide during the Great Depression. In South Dakota, modern two-story buildings were constructed in Brookings and Belle Fourche (see Figure 47) and a smaller, one-story building was constructed in Flandreau. For some communities, these hospitals were the first modern medical facilities in their towns.

State hospital facilities were also expanded or improved with funding from federal relief programs. Improvements and new construction included the PWA-funded Women's Ward Building (designed by Walter J. Dixon) at the state mental institution in Yankton and the PWA-funded girl's building (designed by Hugill and Blatherwick), at the School for the Feeble-Minded in Redfield. The WPA provided funding and labor for the construction of a hospital at Camp Wanzer, a summer camp for tuberculosis patients, near Silver City. (The camp was abandoned by the South Dakota Tuberculosis Association in 1949 when it was determined that Pactola Reservoir would flood the camp and the buildings were used by the Bureau of Reclamation while Pactola Dam was being built; all buildings associated with the camp were eventually moved or demolished.) Federal funds were also used to establish or improve hospital facilities for Native American Indian patients during the period. Examples of these facilities include the Indian Health Services in Sisseton and Sioux Sanitarium in Rapid City.

Hospitals were generally funded through the PWA program and therefore represented a variety of architectural styles. Building materials also varied, although brick with stone or concrete trim was a popular combination for hospital construction. Hospitals of the time were often rectangular, L-shaped, or U-shaped with a conspicuous public entrance. Typical plans included double-loaded corridors with patient rooms and wards located on each side of the hallway at one end or wing of the building and waiting rooms, offices, kitchens, utility rooms, and operating rooms located on each side of the hallway at the other end or wing of the building. Nursing stations were strategically located near the patient rooms, but with easy access to the service wing.

County Poor Farms and Welfare Offices

Federal relief programs also provided assistance in the construction or improvement to homes for the indigent (often referred to as county poor farms or homes) and welfare offices. Several related WPA projects were approved, but further research and survey work is needed to determine which, if any, were actually completed. Examples of these approved projects include construction of buildings at the poor farms

in Charles Mix and Minnehaha County, and improvements at the poor farms in Lake, Turner, Douglas, Clark, and Brown counties. Research and survey work may yield additional information pertaining to the location of other related projects, as well as information about character-defining features of each.

Completed projects that have been identified in South Dakota include the Butte County Welfare Office in Belle Fourche and the Pennington County Home for the indigent in Rapid City, which was recently razed. Both were built with assistance of WPA funding and labor.

Although no definitive information about general character-defining features was found, it is probable that these resources varied architecturally, depending upon their use. Based on the design of the Butte County building, welfare offices probably included a combination of public and private space designed to accommodate the administration of county assistance programs. The Butte County Welfare Office was a one-story wood frame building built from plans prepared by the South Dakota Emergency Relief Administration. The vernacular eaveless, hipped roof building, designed to be converted to a duplex residence if later desired, has since been altered.

Buildings at county homes or poor farms may have included various building types designed for residential facilities, such as dormitories, administration buildings, farm outbuildings, and others. Further research and survey work is needed to determine character-defining features for each. The Pennington County building was a two-story reinforced concrete structure detailed with Art Deco elements.

Housing Projects

South Dakota did not have any large scale urban housing projects, but was the recipient of housing projects developed for the Subsistence Homestead and Resettlement Administration programs. The Sioux Falls Farms Project in Minnehaha County consisted of fourteen units (portions of seven units remained as of 1997) and a community barn (razed in 1996), while the Eastern South Dakota Farms Project consisted of 39 units scattered throughout Brookings, Lake and Moody Counties. Each farm unit consisted of a small house, a barn, and a chicken coop. Additional outbuildings may have included a garage, a hog house, a granary, and/or a pigeon coop.

Four Bureau of Indian Affairs subsistence homestead projects were built in South Dakota. The Greenwood Colony, the White Swan Colony, and the Choteau Creek Colony each consisted of one to four units, similar to those above. The Rising Hail Colony, located on the Yankton Reservation in Charles Mix County, included eight units and a community barn. The Rising Hail Colony is listed on the National Register.

These farm units were developed or adapted from a set of several standardized plans, designed to fit regional styles and needs. In some instances, existing farmhouses were remodeled for a subsistence homestead unit. The house style used in South Dakota

resembles a vernacular Cape Cod cottage. The eaveless, one-and-a-half story wood frame house included a living room, kitchen with dining area, two small bedrooms and a bath on the first floor and additional bedroom space on the upper floor. A central chimney pierces the roof just below the ridge line. Depending on the plan used, either a small shed roofed stoop or gable roofed porch extends from the front or the end of the house. Original windows were six-over-six double hung wood sash. A number of these houses were built on full concrete basements.

Outbuildings associated with these farm units were vernacular in style. All were wood frame construction on concrete foundations. All were typically sheathed with horizontal shiplap siding; wood shingles covered the roofs. The barns were one-and-a-half story barns, relatively small in scale. The lower portions were typically sheathed with horizontal shiplap siding, while the upper level was sheathed with vertical boards. Occasionally the barns were enlarged by shed roof extensions along one side. Chicken coops were smaller, one-story buildings. The roof form was such that the gable's ridgeline was off-center, giving a steeper rise to one slope and a longer, gentler rise to the other. Four six-over-six double hung sash windows were situated along the south side of the building and a door was located at one end of the building. Pigeon coops were smaller versions of chicken coops, similar in style, but only two windows long. Hog barns were small, single-story structures with gable roofs, and double doors in one end and windows along the sides for ventilation. Granaries were taller, shed roof structures, approximately one-and-a-half stories tall. A single doorway provided entry at the front corner of the building. Single-car garages, built to accommodate the smaller cars of the 1930s, were relatively narrow. Original doors were double-leaf board and batten doors hung by side hinges.

Work Camp Buildings and Structures

Buildings and structures constructed to house relief workers and to conduct the operations of various projects are included in this structural type. Work camp facilities were built primarily by the CCC, although there were a handful of WPA camp sites which housed transient men. Camps usually included a variety of buildings such as barracks, kitchen and mess halls, recreation buildings, office buildings, officers' quarters, latrines and showers, hospitals and infirmaries, and maintenance and equipment buildings. Three major types of camps were built, depending on location, available building materials, terrain features, number of enrollees, and time of construction. These camp types included tent camps, rigid camps, and portable camps. Despite their differences, they took on a generally uniform appearance and style indicative of being constructed within Army guidelines. Because all tent camps and most rigid and portable camps were dismantled after the end of the Great Depression, there are only a few examples of camp-related buildings remaining (the following descriptions pertain only to rigid and portable camps).

Site plans for each camp depended in part on the size of the camp and the terrain in which it was located. There were, however, consistent elements including a centrally

located flagpole in front of the administration building or office. In addition, a camp also had at least four barracks, a kitchen and mess hall, a recreation hall, a hospital or infirmary, officers' quarters, truck garages, a latrine and a shower building. Additional buildings and structures may have included lighting plants, spring or well pump houses, blacksmith shops, tool houses, laundries, and cellars. Patterned after army posts, camp layouts were built in a circle, rectangle, crescent or U-shape with the buildings facing an open, grassy "parade ground" or "quad" which served as the hub of the camp. In some cases, a road circled the hub, forming a company street.

Rigid buildings were of wood frame construction and generally constructed in accordance with standardized plans (occasional modifications were made). Siding was either horizontal or vertical board siding. Roof forms were usually gable, although some shed roof were used, and roofing materials varied depending on availability. Foundations also varied and may have included concrete in some locations, while other buildings were placed on log post and pier supports. Barracks were usually 20 feet wide by 60 to 100 feet in length. Doors were located at each end and a series of six-paned awning type windows were located along each side. The interior space was undivided, providing an open space for a row of beds along each long wall. The recreation buildings were 20 feet wide by 80 to120 feet in length and contained writing and reading rooms, a library and a lecture hall. Window and door configurations were similar to the barracks, although doors also may have been located along the long walls. The kitchen and mess hall was typically T-shaped, with a 20x60-foot mess hall and 20x80-foot kitchen and storeroom. A small supply building, approximately 20x60 feet, with cook's quarters may have been located nearby. Door and window configurations in kitchen/mess halls and supply buildings varied.

Hospital and infirmary buildings ranged from small 14x28-foot buildings to larger 20x60 to 80-foot buildings (sometimes the larger buildings housed both the hospital and infirmary in one building). Hospital interiors were typically divided into two rooms, one a patient ward and the other the operating room, while infirmaries were separated into two spaces by a half-wall. Both hospital and infirmary buildings had doors in each end; awning style windows were located in each end by the doors.

Shower and washrooms ranged from 14x56 feet to 20x60 feet, with the shower room located at one end and wash basins located at the other end, with a dressing room situated between them. There were up to three entrances along the front of the building and windows located at each end and along each long side. Latrines ranged from 12x20 feet to 14x32 feet and generally had shed roofs instead of gable roofs. With the exception of a small section boarded off for officers, the remainder of the space was open with urinals along one end and pit-type holes located in a row through the center of the building. There were two doors, one for officers, the other for everyone else. Awnings style windows were located along each long side and the end opposite the urinals.

Limited descriptive information was found about the other building types. Administration or headquarters buildings also varied in size, although a typical building may have been 16x24 feet. It is likely that door and window configurations were similar

to other buildings; the interior layout of space is uncertain. Officers' quarters were typically in buildings smaller than barracks, but no definitive descriptive information was found. Reportedly, officers' quarters at some camps were log buildings as opposed to wood frame and were furnished with stone fireplaces and chimneys. Garages were typically 22 or 24 feet by 50 feet with an open front along a long side, creating a shed-like structure. Shed roofs on garages were common. Storerooms, cellars, blacksmith shops, and spring/well pump houses were likely small buildings, similar in construction and design to the rest of the camp's buildings.

Portable camp buildings were first constructed in 1934, but did not become the standard building type until more than two years later. These buildings consisted of interchangeable prefabricated parts arranged in six-foot sections bolted together. They rarely, if ever, had foundations. Roofing was either rolled roofing or shingle. Exterior sheathing was usually board and batten, although clapboards were sometimes used. Interior walls were finished with horizontal shiplap or vertical tongue-and-groove. Windows continued to be of the six-pane, awning variety. Most portable buildings were smaller than their rigid counterparts, although barracks and mess halls became larger. Dimensions listed in the 1937 manual included: 20x120-foot barracks, 20x160-foot mess hall, 20x40-foot officers' quarters, 20x30-foot headquarters building, 20x35-foot bathhouse, 10x15-foot latrine, and a 20x60-foot school buildings (a recreation hall is no longer mentioned). There were eventually twenty-three building types available as portable buildings.

Camp Lodge (SP-4), a CCC camp in Custer State Park, is the most intact example of a camp complex in the state (see Figures 48-50). Several of the original, rigid type buildings are standing and are used to house the operations of the Black Hills Playhouse, a summer theater associated with the University of South Dakota. In addition to Camp Lodge, two log cabins, built as quarters for officers and foresters at Camp Custer (F-12) are now in private ownership. The building used for the officers' quarters at Camp NP-1 is now used by Wind Cave National Park. A two-story building used as a barracks for Camp SCS-4 in Huron is located on the State Fairgrounds and is now used for poultry and small animal displays at the State Fair. There are also foundations and remnants of fireplaces from camp buildings scattered throughout the Black Hills. During the dismantling of some of the camps, area residents were allowed to relocate buildings for their own uses. Reportedly, a number of buildings from Camp Pactola (F-4) were moved to Silver City. It is possible that buildings from other camps have been relocated as well.

Transportation Systems

One of the largest groups of projects funded by federal relief programs was the project group involving Transportation Systems. A significant portion of funding by all relief projects was used to build structures related to this property type throughout the South Dakota. This property type is divided into the following structural types:

Figure 47. Community hospital, Belle Fourche.
(Dennis, 1997)

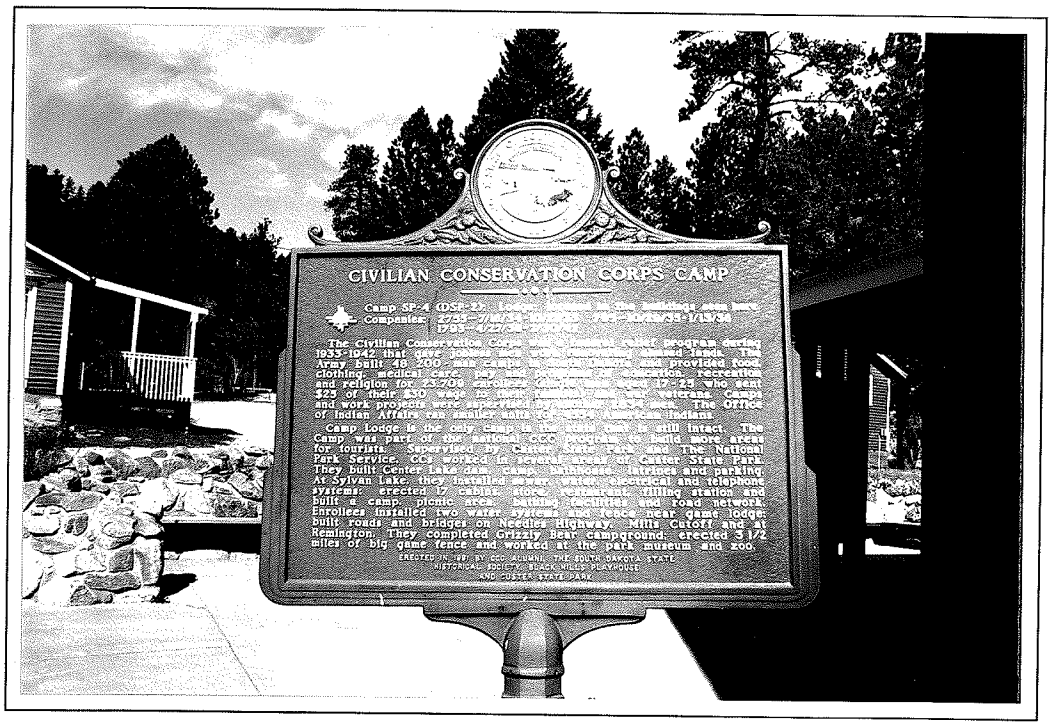

Figure 48. Commemorative plaque at Camp Lodge, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 49. CCC hospital/infirmary building, Camp Lodge, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

Figure 50. Three of the remaining barracks buildings, Camp Lodge, Custer State Park.
(Dennis, 1997)

Highways, Streets, and Sidewalk Projects

Highways, street and sidewalk construction accounted for the largest share of federal expenditure during the Great Depression, with nearly half of the WPA funding alone being spent on highways, streets and sidewalk projects. A total of 18,780 miles of highways and roads throughout South Dakota were constructed or improved by the WPA, with hundreds (perhaps thousands) more constructed through the FERA and CWA.

Highway projects varied, depending on the need of the locality for which it was constructed. In some instances, it involved creating a road where none had existed before, but more often it involved improving an existing highway. Improvements may have included widening, straightening, grading and regraveling, finishing with high-type surface materials such as concrete, bituminous, or other hard surface materials, and/or the installation of guard rails and gutters. Some highways projects included the construction of bridges, viaducts or culverts (see following section of Bridges). No records were found indicating which of South Dakota's highways were treated in which ways, although it is known that some cross-state highways, such as the Custer Battlefield Highway (Highway 16) was paved, at least in part due to funding and labor from programs such as FERA and the WPA. Concrete paving on this highway began in 1931 at a rate of one mile per week, making it the first paved highway across the state to the Black Hills. As of 1997, small portions of this highway in Minnehaha County still retained the original concrete (although patched in some areas). Further research and survey work may determine if additional sections are intact, as well as examples of other highway projects.

Street projects generally involved improvements such as widening and paving. A number of street projects included the construction of curbs and sidewalks, although the construction of these also occurred independently of street projects. Streets were paved with hard surface material such as macadam, bituminous material, or concrete. Curbs were often concrete, although in some areas of the state, cut stone was used for curbing material. Sidewalks usually were made of concrete, although examples of walkways made of brick or stone may be found. The majority of sidewalks were along streets, but some were constructed in parks and other areas. The aggregate used in the concrete for these projects was often crushed stone from local or nearby quarries. In the southeastern part of the state, crushed quartzite was sometimes used giving the concrete an appearance of being flecked with various shades of pink, purple and gray.

Bridges

Bridge construction in South Dakota during the Great Depression was extensive. The WPA alone built or improved 1,303 bridges and installed or upgraded another 11,193 culverts. The majority of state highway bridges constructed during this period were of reinforced concrete, a material that required more labor than would have steel bridges. Bridges on county highways and in cities and towns were sometimes

constructed of stone, another labor-intensive method of construction. Stone used for bridges usually was quarried at nearby locations (see Figure 51).

Some stone bridges were constructed in finely crafted designs. A picturesque 111-foot long, five-span arch bridge, constructed of uncoursed gray and pink quartzite, crosses the Big Sioux River in Watertown. The bridge, designed by the State Highway commission in 1935 and constructed by the WPA, serves as an ornamental landscape feature in a city park, as well as a functional bridge. A four-span stone arch bridge was constructed by the WPA in Garretson's Split Rock Park and a two-span stone arch bridge was constructed by the CCC over French Creek near Blue Bell Lodge in the Black Hills. Perhaps the most outstanding collection of stone arch bridges, however, is found in Turner County. Taking advantage of subsidized labor to reconstruct old wooden bridges, Turner County turned to stone as a building material and currently maintains records on 180 stone arch bridges that survive, all built during the Depression.

One of the projects sponsored by federal relief funding involved the elimination of traffic hazards, particularly those caused by railroad grade crossings. Approximately thirty grade-crossing elimination projects were undertaken in South Dakota. Viaducts were constructed over railroad crossings by changing the grade of the roadway and constructing a viaduct (bridge) over the railroad tracks. These viaducts were typically of steel or concrete I-beam construction with concrete balustrades. The support piers were of concrete construction. Two of these projects are located on U.S. 12 in Brown County where the highway crossed the Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Paul and Pacific Railroad tracks. Further research and survey work is needed to identify locations of additional remaining examples of these Depression-era viaducts.

Airport Facilities

Federal relief programs, including the WPA and CWA, provided for the development, enlargement and/or improvement of airports throughout the country. Work included construction or improvement of hangars and other buildings; construction or reconstruction of runways; the installation of drainage systems and lighting systems; clearing, excavating and grading work; and airway marking work. Although seen as valuable work, airport projects gained importance near the end of the Great Depression when attention was focused on defense projects in preparation for World War II.

In South Dakota, work was accomplished under the auspices of the FERA, CWA, and WPA programs. Five new airport landing fields were constructed and nine were renovated and more than 124,000 linear feet of new runway was built and an additional 19,455 linear feet were improved. A number of taxiways were also constructed, as were aprons in front of hangars. Concrete was used when possible, although a number of landing fields had oiled runways.

In addition, thirteen airport buildings were constructed or enlarged and five were renovated. Stone hangars and/or administration buildings were constructed at

Watertown, Hot Springs, Mitchell, Huron, and near Spearfish (serving Lawrence County and the northern Black Hills). The hangars varied in size, but were basically rectangular with segmentally arched roof trusses. Administration buildings were simple, vernacular buildings, rectangular in shape with flat or gable roofs. Only those constructed of stone were described in the literature; further research and survey work is needed to determine materials and further character-defining features of non-stone airport buildings.

For hangars constructed with stone, it was used for the two side walls and the rear wall; the front wall was enclosed with large doors. The sides walls commonly were buttressed. Window lintels, sills and decorative elements were concrete or different colored stone, providing a contrast in texture and color. Windows varied, but may have included double hung wood sash or industrial metal casement windows. Detailing was similar on stone administration buildings. In addition to the hangars, a stone control tower was erected at the Black Hills airport near Spearfish. It had a two-story central portion flanked by single story shed roof wings and was topped by a gable-roofed lookout tower that had banks of windows on each side.

The only extant examples of airport facilities that have been identified are the stone hangars at Watertown and Huron and the administration building at Huron (see figure 52). Depression-era buildings at the Black Hills airport have been demolished. Further research and survey work is needed to determine the location and existence of additional airport-related projects that were a result of federal relief programs in South Dakota.

Figure 51. Stone culvert at Grizzly Bear picnic ground, Black Hills.
(Dennis, 1997)

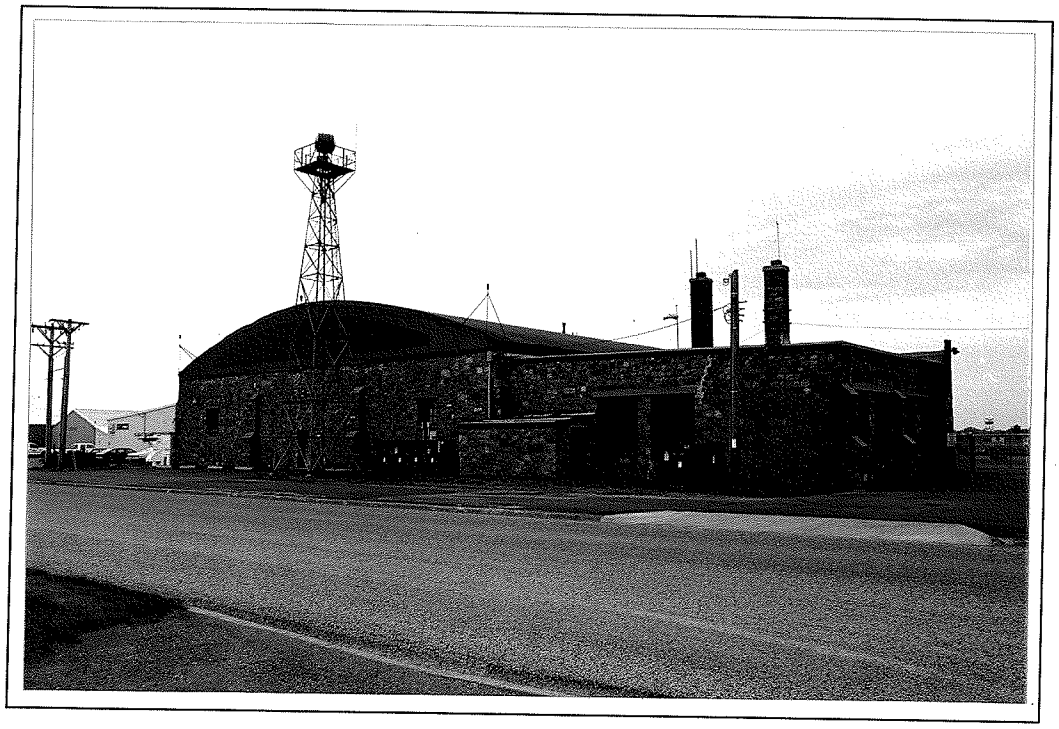

Figure 52. Airport hangar and administration building, Huron.
(Dennis, 1997)

National Register Properties

A number of resources associated with federal relief construction in South Dakota are listed on the National Register of Historic Places. The following resources were constructed as a result of or with the assistance of federal relief programs between 1929 and 1941. In some cases, the construction involved addition(s) and/or improvements to existing structures or the construction of portions of that which is listed. National Register properties include:

Courthouses in Aurora, Hughes, Jerald, Lake, McCook, and Ziebach counties
Spearfish City Hall
Mitchell City Hall (remodel)(located in Mitchell Historic District)
Lead City Hall (located in Lead Historic District)
Fort Sisseton (restoration)
Rapid City Historical & Sioux Indian Museum
Custer State Park Museum
Rapid City Carnegie Library (additions)
Washington High School (additions) (in Sioux Falls)
The Experimental Rammed Earth Wall Building at South Dakota State University
Spearfish Fish Hatchery
CCC Camp Custer Officer's Cabin (near Custer)

Harney Peak Lookout Tower, Dam, Pumphouse and Stairway
Mobridge Auditorium
Butte County Fairgrounds
Dinosaur Park (in Rapid City)
Wind Cave National Park facilities
The Governor's Residence (in Pierre)
Rising Hail Colony (in Greenwood)
Split Rock Park Bridge (in Garretson)
Pigtail Bridge on SD Hwy 87 (north of Norbeck Lake)
Stone Arch Bridge over French Creek (near Blue Bell Lodge in Custer County)
Mt. Rushmore National Memorial

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING HISTORIC RESOURCES

Evaluation is the process by which the quality of significance and integrity of an identified resource is determined within its historic contexts. Criteria for evaluation are set forth in the National Register of Historic Places guidelines (see National Register Bulletin #15, "How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation"). These criteria address the significance and integrity of historic resources, including buildings, sites, structures, objects, and districts.

Although these criteria pertain specifically to resource eligibility for the National Register, they are the basis for state and local evaluation as well and may be used for determining local landmark eligibility.

Significance and integrity as they pertain to this context are discussed in the following sections.

Significance

The National Register criteria recognize that historic resources may have associative value, design or construction value, or information value. When evaluated within its context, a resource must be shown to be significant in at least one of the following areas to be considered potentially eligible for listing on the National Register:

Criterion A: Events/Patterns of History

Criterion B: Person(s)

Criterion C: Design/Construction

Criterion D: Information Potential (most commonly applied to archeological sites)

All resources associated with federal relief construction in South Dakota share a common associative attribute in that they were created under the auspices of one of the various federal relief programs that funded (wholly or in part) or carried out construction, engineering and conservation projects in the state between 1929 and 1941. Generally speaking, construction on resources evaluated in association with this context must have been begun after October 29, 1929 and been substantially complete by the end of 1941.

All eligible resources associated with this context will be significant under Criterion A. They are important for their direct association with an unprecedented federal initiative to stimulate the nation's depressed economy through an aggressive series of public works and relief programs. These programs significantly affected the social history of the nation at that time and for decades to come. Secondarily, resources associated with this context may also be considered for the direct economic impact of the projects. The results of these programs in South Dakota were far-reaching, touching all corners of the state. The efforts to promote the well being of the unemployed resulted in a significant expansion of public buildings, structures and sites, as well as extensive conservation efforts and direct relief to needy families.

In addition to the significance these resources hold under the category of social history and economics, most may also qualify under another category of significance reflective of the property's original function. For example, the CCC in South Dakota pioneered a new method of construction for recreational dams making them also significant under the category of engineering as well as entertainment/recreation. Murals and sculptures, which graced many new post offices at that time, developed in conjunction with federal art programs also would be significant under the category of art. Suggestions for these additional categories of significance are found in the following discussions about each property type.

Resources associated with this context, which clearly embody distinctive characteristics associated with federal relief construction projects, may be considered eligible under Criterion C. Distinctive characteristics include use of hand labor and fine craftsmanship, the use of local building materials and construction methods, and regional adaptations of architectural styles, including the then-popular Art Deco and Art Moderne styles, as well as the use of standardized plans for certain property types. In addition, if a property represents the work of a master or possesses high artistic values, it may be eligible under this criterion as outlined in the National Register guidelines.

Relatively few properties will be considered under Criterion B in this context. For a property to be considered eligible in association with a person or persons, the property must be associated with the person's productive life and it must be shown that that person gained importance within his or her profession or group. The property must represent the most important property associated with the person, or be the last remaining property associated with that person, to be considered eligible. Properties in this category will most likely be of local significance in this context, rather than of statewide significance. If the person is an architect, artist or engineer, the property may be eligible under Criterion C.

Properties may also be eligible under Criterion D if it can be demonstrated that they have yielded or are likely to yield information important to history in the context of federal relief construction in South Dakota.

There are certain types of resources that are usually not considered eligible for listing on the National Register. Of these, there are three that might be encountered in evaluating resources associated with this context. They include moved resources, reconstructed resources, and commemorative resources. If a resource fits any of these categories, it must meet the National Register's Criteria Considerations to be considered eligible. Details of these considerations can be found in National Register Bulletin #15.

Generally speaking, resources are considered locally significant. If a specific resource represents the only known example in the state of a particular property sub-type within a general property type, or is one of the few remaining examples of that property type associated with a specific work program, it might be considered significant on a state-wide level.

Resources constructed as part of a larger complex are evaluated in terms of the broader contexts associated with the complex. An individual resource constructed as part of a complex is not usually considered eligible unless a sufficient number of components survive from the original complex which can interpret the historic function of the complex. In the case where an individual resource, constructed as part of a larger complex, is the only remaining resource associated with that complex, it might be considered eligible in the absence of a sufficient number of components associated with the original complex. An individual resource might be considered eligible if it represents a significant example of an architectural style, an engineering or construction method, or the work of a master, or it alone best represents a significant person's productive life.

Resources built in great numbers, of which many still exist, are usually considered eligible as contributing resources in a larger context such as a district or cultural landscape. A single resource of which there are many examples remaining is usually not considered eligible as a single resource unless it represents a significant example of an architectural style, an engineering or construction method, or the work of a master, or it alone best represents a significant person's productive life.

Integrity and Condition

Integrity is the authenticity of a resource's historic identity, or its intactness of historic form and original construction materials. Integrity is essential to the resource's ability to convey its significance. Alterations, either historic or contemporary, should be examined for compatibility. There must be identifiable evidence in all or some of the seven aspects of integrity discussed below for a historic resource to be considered eligible for the National Register. Which aspects must have integrity should be determined on a case by case basis, as some aspects are more important in conveying significance than others (the National Register Multiple Property Documentation Form, which was

completed in conjunction with this context study provides further guidance for assessing integrity of specific resource types and sub-types).

Condition of a historic resource should not be confused with integrity. Condition is generally defined as "state of repair." A resource can be in poor condition, but retain a high degree of historic integrity. The reverse also may be true when a resource is in good condition, but may have lost a great deal of its historic integrity. Ideally, a resource will have a high degree of integrity and be in good condition, but it is not necessary for a resource to be in good condition in order to be considered eligible for the National Register or as a local landmark. The use of condition as a criterion for evaluation, however, may be useful when deciding which resources to preserve. Those that are determined to be significant and have a high degree of integrity, but are in poor condition, may be a lower priority for preservation simply for practical reasons.

A resource must possess sufficient integrity to convey its significance within its context. Generally, a resource will possess several, and usually most, of the following seven aspects of integrity.

(1) Location: Is the resource in its original location or has it been moved? Because the relationship between a resource and its historic associations is usually destroyed if the resource is moved, the resource should remain in its original location. Buildings, structures and objects moved from their original locations must meet Criteria Consideration B for moved properties as indicated in the National Register guidelines.

(2) Design: Is the original design intact? A resource should retain a combination of elements that convey its original design. These elements may include the form, plan, organization of space, structural systems, technology, materials, and style. Generally, a resource should retain its overall original form and massing. Subsequent additions to resources should be either set back so as to not obstruct the original form, should be of a compatible scale, and should not be on the primary façade of a building. Window replacement in buildings may be acceptable if fenestration patterns remain intact. Enlargement of window and door openings may render a building ineligible if the alterations significantly change the wall to opening ratio. The filling in of openings, if the original openings are still readable, may be considered on secondary facades only. Original plans and organization of space should be evident, even if the use of the space has changed over time. Textures and colors of original surface materials should remain intact. The type, amount and style of ornamentation must reflect the original design. In the case of designed landscapes, the original arrangement and type of plantings, as well as the overall site plan should be intact. A resource need not retain its original function if its historic physical integrity is intact.

(3) Setting: Has the character of the setting stayed the same or has it changed? The physical environment in which the resource exists should reflect it historic features, including topography, vegetation, simple constructed features (such as paths or fences), and the relationships between the resource and its surroundings.

(4) Materials: What portion of the original materials is intact? A resource must retain the key exterior materials dating from the period of its historic significance. Retention of original materials is essential for resources constructed under federal relief programs that emphasized use of local building materials. If a resource has been rehabilitated, historic materials and significant features must be preserved. A resource whose historic materials have been lost and then reconstructed may be eligible only if it meets Criteria Consideration E for reconstructed properties as indicated in the National Register guidelines.

(5) Workmanship: Does the resource show craftsmanship of the period? Because labor-intensive work relief and construction was paramount in the federal relief programs, resources should retain the physical evidence of workmanship. This workmanship should illustrate aesthetic principles and technological practices associated with federal relief programs, as well as individual, local, and regional applications of both. A resource should retain evidence of federal relief workers' labor and skill, as well as design and materials.

(6) Feeling: Does the resource evoke an aesthetic or historic sense of the past? A resource should retain sufficient original physical features that, when taken together, convey the resource's historic character. This will generally include the combination of original design, materials, workmanship and setting. Because feeling depends on individual perceptions, its retention alone is never sufficient to support eligibility for the National Register.

(7) Association: Is this the site of a historic event or activity or is the site associated with an important person(s) historically? To retain association, the direct link between the resource and its association with an important historic event or person must be sufficiently intact to convey that relationship to an observer. Association, like feeling, requires the presence of original physical features that convey the resource's historic character. Because association depends on individual perceptions, its retention alone is never sufficient to support eligibility for the National Register.

Rating

After significance and integrity are evaluated, resources may be rated in relation to their significance, integrity and condition. Rating allows for the determination of a resource's status within a district or as one of several individual structures within a city or county. Although rating criteria may differ from community to community, it will generally include standards for eligibility for local landmarks and local historic districts, as well as National Register-eligible resources.

For individual resources, rating may be a simply as dividing them into "Eligible" and "Ineligible" categories, depending on their level of integrity. To be considered eligible, a resource would need to be determined to be significance within its context and retain sufficient integrity to convey that historic significance. Resources determined to

be significant, but which have been altered or remodeled in such a way that they no longer convey their historic significance would be considered ineligible. It may be possible that these resources could be re-evaluated and rated as "eligible" if the alterations to the resources were reversed and appropriate restoration work completed.

Depending on the needs of the community, additional rating categories may be helpful. Occasionally a system which rates individual resources as "Primary," "Secondary," and possibly "Tertiary" is used to determine which resources are of greater importance to the community. For example, in the case of this context, a community may determine that a one-of-a-kind resource in their community (such as a swimming pool or courthouse) is more important than a resource type of which there may be several examples in town (such as sidewalks or street projects). One-of-a-kind resources would possibly be rated as "Primary" while other resources as "Secondary."

For resources within a district, each resource may be rated for its potential to contribute to historic district. Those resources determined to be significant and have a high degree of integrity may be considered "Historic/Contributing." Those resources determined to be significant, but which have been altered or remodeled in such a way that they no longer convey their historic significance, may be considered "Historic/Non-Contributing (in current condition)." It may be possible that these resources, if restored properly, could be re-evaluated and rated as "contributing" to a historic district. Non-historic resources which are within the district may be considered "Non-Historic/Non-contributing."

CONCLUSION

This context study sets the stage for identifying, evaluating and protecting significant historic resources related to federal relief construction within the state of South Dakota. It identifies a number of resource types and sub-types and the federal relief programs that contributed to their development, but by limits of its own definition, this study is meant to be a general overview. Therefore, certain aspects of this study deserve further research and intensive study.

A key focus for future study will be the documentation of specific resources constructed or improved under the auspices of the federal relief programs described in this document. A comprehensive survey of related resources would provide a better understanding of individual resource types and sub-types, as well as the scope of the impact of federal relief construction on South Dakota's communities. In addition to a comprehensive survey of resources, further in-depth research into specific programs and the resources for which they were responsible may shed additional light on the numbers and locations of resources built during the Depression era, as well as providing further definition to character-defining features of specific resources.

Thematic studies related to specific resource types may also be of interest for future studies and surveys. A number of these have been completed, including a study on courthouses, schools, bridges and federal art projects in post offices. Other studies may include dams, swimming pools, city or community halls, city parks, auditoriums and armories, and tourist-related facilities. Another possible study might relate to the South Dakota architects who designed the buildings constructed under the federal relief programs. A number of architects were practicing in the state during the Depression era and were involved in the design of buildings such as courthouses and city halls.

Archaeological research studies might include the location and examine of CCC and WPA work camps. Although the locations of some of the camp sites have been determined, others have yet to be pinpointed. Finding the exact site of these camps and undertaking archaeological examination may reveal further information about each camp.

In addition to activities related to identification and evaluation, efforts should be made to protect resources related to this context. Protection may include nomination to local landmark registries and/or the National Register of Historic Places. For resources eligible for the National Register, a multiple property submission has been prepared and submitted. The State Historic Preservation Office can assist in the addition of resources to this multiple property listing. Additional avenues for resource protection may include activities such as planning and zoning or restoration and rehabilitation work.

South Dakota is rich with resources related to federal relief construction during the Great Depression. Because they are significant and irreplaceable resources, it is important to identify and protect these resources as part of the state's heritage.

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CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS CAMPS IN SOUTH DAKOTA 1933-1942*

Camps were named and numbered. Names generally came from the camp's association with a nearby town or landscape features. Camp numbers were proceeded by a letter designation indicating the camp's affiliation. These letter designations included the following categories, which were sometimes used in combination and may have been changed over the course of the camp's duration if the focus of its work changed.

Camp designations include:
F = Forest Service
NP = National Park Service
SP = State Park Service
S = State Forest
SCS = Soil Conservation Service
BR = U.S. Bureau of Reclamation
BF = U.S. Fish and Wildlife
D = Drought Relief
SE = Soil Erosion Service
P = Private Land

The following year-by-year list of camps includes the camp designation, the camp name and the nearest town, which served as the post office for the camp.

1933 Camps

The following camps were established in 1933:

F-1	Mystic	Mystic
F-2	Horse Creek	Hill City
F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-5	Rochford	Rochford
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-9	Hill City	Hill City
F-10	Rockerville	Rapid City
F-11	Haselrodt	Custer
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-13	Mayo	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer

* Information from Lyle A. Derscheid, The Civilian Conservation Corps in South Dakota (1933-1942), 2nd Edition, Brookings, SD: South Dakota State University Foundation Press, 1991.

F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-16	Oreville	Hill City
F-17	Calcite	Tilford
S-1	Pine Creek	Keystone
S-2	Doran	Custer
SE-207	Farm Island	Pierre
(no #)	Lake Kampeska	Watertown (Veteran's summer camp; company also worked at Oakwood Park before being transferred to Camp Calcite in October)
(no #)	Headquarters	Fort Meade

1934 Camps

Camps operating during 1934 included seven new permanent camps (*) and nine temporary camps (**). Changes in camp designations (from 1933) are indicated.

Army Post	Headquarters	Fort Meade
D-Army-1	Fechner*	Fort Meade
F-1	Mystic	Mystic
DF-2	Horse Creek	Hill City
F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-5	Rochford	Rochford
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-9	Hill City	Hill City
F-10	Rockerville	Rapid City
F-11	Haselrodt	Custer
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-13	Mayo	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-16	Oreville	Hill City
F-17	Calcite	Tilford
F-18	Savoy**	Spearfish
DF-19	Harding County*	Camp Crook
F-20	Park Creek*	Sturgis
F-22	Summit Peak**	Hill City
DNP-1	Wind Cave*	Hot Springs
SP-1	Pine Creek	Keystone
SP-2	Doran	Custer
DSP-1	Narrows*	Bluebell
DSP-2	Lodge*	Custer

SE-207	Farm Island	Pierre
DBR-2	Orman Dam*	Fruitdale
DPE-209	Canton**	Canton
DPE-211	Alcester**	Alcester
DPE-222	Presho**	Presho
DSE-204	Lake Andes*	Lake Andes
DSE-205	Crow Creek**	Chamberlain
DSE-212	Tom Berry**	Belvidere
DSE-224	Lake Poinsett**	Estelline

1935 Camps

Three new camps (*) were established in 1935. Two of the 1934 temporary camps were reopened as permanent camps (DSE-205/Crow Creek and DPE-211/Alcester). Four other 1934 temporary camps reopened as 1935 summer camps (**). The list also includes any changes in camp designations.

Army Post	Headquarters	Fort Meade
D-Army-1	Fechner	Fort Meade
F-1	Mystic	Mystic
F-2	Horse Creek	Hill City
F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-5	Rochford	Rochford
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-9	Hill City	Hill City
F-10	Rockerville	Rapid City
F-11	Haselrodt	Custer
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-13	Mayo	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-16	Oreville	Hill City
F-17	Calcite	Tilford
F-18	Savoy**	Spearfish
F-19	Harding County	Camp Crook
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-22	Summit Peak**	Hill City
NP-1	Wind Cave	Hot Springs
SP-1	Pine Creek	Keystone
SP-2	Doran	Custer
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer

SP-5	American Island*	Chamberlain
S-207	Farm Island	Pierre
SCS-1	Crow Creek	Chamberlain
SCS-2	Presho**	Presho
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron*	Huron
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale
BF-1	Lake Andes**	Lake Andes
BF-2	Sand Lake*	Columbia

1936 Camps

This list reflects the closure of some of South Dakota's first camps and the redesignation of others. The only new camp established during this period was a tent camp (SCS-5/Crow Creek) adjacent to Camp SCS-1/Crow Creek. Only two temporary camps reopened (F-22/Summit Peak and SCS-2/Presho; Camp F-22/Summit Peak served as a side camp to Camp F-12/Custer).

Army Post	Headquarters	Fort Meade
F-1	Mystic	Mystic
F-2	Horse Creek	Hill City
F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-5	Rochford	Rochford
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-9	Hill City	Hill City
F-11	Haselrodt	Custer
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-13	Mayo	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-16	Oreville	Hill City
F-19	Harding County	Camp Crook
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-22	Summit Peak	Hill City
F-23	Doran	Custer
NP-1	Wind Cave	Hot Springs
SP-1	Pine Creek	Keystone
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SP-5	American Island	Chamberlain
S-207	Farm Island	Pierre
SCS-1	Crow Creek	Chamberlain
SCS-2	Presho	Presho

SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron	Huron
SCS-5	Crow Creek	Chamberlain
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale
BF-2	Sand Lake	Columbia

1937 Camps

Only one new camp opened during 1937 (BF-3/La Creek). After a number of camps closed, several of the companies were transferred to other camps both in and outside of South Dakota. Camp F-22/Summit Peak continued to operate as a summer camp only. South Dakota combined administrative efforts with and headquarters were moved to Nebraska.

F-1	Mystic	Mystic
F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-16	Oreville	Hill City
F-19	Harding County	Camp Crook
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-22	Summit Peak	Hill City
F-23	Doran	Custer
NP-1	Wind Cave	Hot Springs
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SP-5	American Island	Chamberlain
S-207	Farm Island	Pierre
SCS-1	Crow Creek	Chamberlain
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron	Huron
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale
BF-2	Sand Lake	Columbia
BF-3	La Creek	Martin

1938 Camps

There were no new camps established during this year. Camp SCS-2/Presho was reopened. SP-5/American Island was redesignated SCS-7.

F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-23	Doran	Custer
NP-1	Wind Cave	Hot Springs
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SCS-1	Crow Creek	Chamberlain
SCS-2	Presho	Presho
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron	Huron
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
SCS-7	American Island	Chamberlain
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale
BF-2	Sand Lake	Columbia
BF-3	La Creek	Martin

1939 Camps

Two new camps opened during 1939 (F-24/Sheridan and NP-2/Badlands). A third camp (F-25/Black Fox) was listed as a tent camp, although its location and company information was unspecified. Two other camps closed (SCS-1/Crow Creek and SCS-2/Presho).

F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-15	Tigerville	Hill City
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-23	Doran	Custer
F-24	Sheridan	Hill City(?)
F-25	Black Fox	unknown
NP-1	Wind Cave	Hot Springs

NP-2	Badlands	Wall
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron	Huron
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
SCS-7	American Island	Chamberlain
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale
BF-2	Sand Lake	Columbia
BF-3	La Creek	Martin

1940 Camps

The 1940 list reflects further reductions in the number of camps.

F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-24	Sheridan	Hill City(?)
F-25	Black Fox	unknown
NP-2	Badlands	Wall
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron	Huron
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
SCS-7	American Island	Chamberlain
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale

1941 Camps

No additional camps were closed in 1941. Camp F-18/Savoy reopened as a summer camp. A new camp opened in the Badlands (NP-3).

F-3	Este	Nemo
F-4	Pactola	Pactola
F-6	Roubaix	Roubaix
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-14	Lightning Creek	Custer

F-18	Savoy	Spearfish
F-20	Park Creek	Sturgis
F-24	Sheridan	Hill City(?)
F-25	Black Fox	unknown
NP-2	Badlands	Wall
NP-3	Badlands	Interior
SP-3	Narrows	Bluebell
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-4	Huron	Huron
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
SCS-7	American Island	Chamberlain
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale

1942 Camps

The number of camps was reduced in 1942 and all of them closed by the end of the year. The following were those still in operation during part of 1942.

F-3	Este	Nemo
F-12	Custer	Custer
F-24	Sheridan	Hill City(?)
NP-3	Badlands	Interior
SP-4	Lodge	Custer
SCS-3	Alcester	Alcester
SCS-6	Fechner	Fort Meade
SCS-7	American Island	Chamberlain
BR-2	Orman Dam	Fruitdale

NON-FEDERAL PROJECTS APPROVED FOR PWA FUNDING IN SOUTH DAKOTA 1933-1938*

Location	Project	Location	Project
Aberdeen	Waterworks	Brookings	Swimming Pool
Aberdeen	Disposal Plant	Brookings	Hospital
Aberdeen	Auditorium	Brookings	School
Aberdeen	Jail	Brookings	School
Aberdeen	Dormitory	Brookings	University Building
Aberdeen	Auditorium/Gym	Brookings	Street Improvements
Aberdeen	School Improvements	Brookings	University Building
Aberdeen	Street Improvements	Brookings	Club Building
Aberdeen	Building Improvements	Brookings	Dorms
Alcester	Waterworks	Brookings	Science Building
Alexandria	Auditorium/Gymnasium	Brookings	University Building
Argo Township	School	Brookings	Agriculture Building
Argyle Township	School	Brookings	School Improvements
Armour	Park Development	Brown County	School
Armour	Street Improvements	Brown County	School
Armour	Electric Plant	Bryant	Power Improvement
Artesian	Waterworks	Buffalo Gap	Waterworks
Beadle County	School Improvements	Burke	Municipal Building
Belle Fourche	Watermains	Burke	School
Belle Fourche	Hospital	Burke	Sanitary Sewer
Belle Fourche	Paving	Canton	Waterworks
Belle Fourche	Swimming Pool	Canton	Street Improvements
Belvidere	Water Tank	Canton	Park Improvements
Beresford	Waterworks	Carthage	Waterworks
Beresford	Electric Plant	Carthage	Auditorium
Big Stone City	Waterworks	Centerville	School Addition
Bowdle	School Addition	Chamberlain	Waterworks
Bradley	School Improvements	Charles Mix County	School
Brandt	Waterworks	Clark	Courthouse/Jail
Bristol	School Addition	Clark	Auditorium
Britton	Street Improvements	Clear Lake	Waterworks
Brookings	Waterworks	Codington County	School

* This list is from the Alphabetical Index to Non-Federal Projects, which was included in the final report of the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works, Projects and Statistics Division dated February 8, 1939. The records include all projects for which funding was approved. There is no indication in the records as to which projects were actually completed. The descriptions are also vague and do not provide much information about the nature of some of the projects. Duplicate listings indicate separately funded request.

Location	Project
Codington County	School
Colome	Watermains
Conde	Street Improvements
Conde	School Improvements
Corsica	Auditorium/Gymnasium
Cottonwood	Auditorium
Custer	School
Custer	School
Custer	Storm sewer
Day County	School Improvements
De Smet	Municipal Building
Deadwood	Waterworks
Deadwood	Park Improvements
Deerfield	Waterworks Improvements
Deuel County	School
Eagle Butte	Waterworks
Edgemont	Well
Elk Point	Electric Improvements
Elk Point	Waterworks
Elk Point	School
Elkton	School
Eureka	Sanitary Sewer
Fairburn	Power/Waterworks
Faith	School Addition
Fall River County	Power/Waterworks
Farmingdale	Irrigation
Faulkton	Jail
Faulkton	Disposal Plant
Faulkton	City Hall
Flandreau	City Hall/Library
Flandreau	Hospital
Flandreau	Electric Plant
Flandreau	Disposal Plant
Frederick	Waterworks
Frederick	Auditorium
Freeman	Electric Plant
Gann Valley	School
Gary	Water Tank
Gary	Street Improvements
Geddes	School Addition
Germantown	School
Germantown	School
Gettysburg	Hospital
Grant County	School
Grant County	School
Gregory	Waterworks
Gregory County	Courthouse
Groton	Paving
Hermosa	Waterworks
Hermosa	School
Hetland	Waterworks
Highmore	Water Tank
Hot Springs	Disposal Plant
Hot Springs	Sanitary Sewer
Hot Springs	School Addition
Hot Springs	Veterans Home
Hoven	School
Hoven	School
Hoven	High School
Howard	Courthouse
Howard	Street Improvements
Howard	Waterworks Improve.
Hudson	Auditorium/Gym
Hughes	Courthouse/Jail
Huron	Curbs
Huron	Fairgrounds
Huron	School Improvements
Huron	Waterworks
Huron	Waterworks
Huron	Swimming Pool
Huron	Library Addition
Huron	Street Improvements
Huron	Auditorium
Huron	Hospital
Huron	School
Huron	School Improvements
Interior	Waterworks
Interior	Auditorium
Iowa	Schools
Ipswich	Courthouse
Java	Waterworks
Java	Waterworks
Jefferson	Filter Plant
Kennebec	Well
Kingsbury County	School
Kranzburg	School

Location	Project
Labolt	School
Lake Andes	Waterworks
Lake Andes	Waterworks
Lake County	Courthouse
Lawrence County	School
Lead	Municipal Building
Lead	Street Improvements
Lebanon	Auditorium/Gymnasium
Lemmon	Street Improvements
Lennox	Waterworks
Lincoln	School
Lincoln	School
Madison	Electric Plant
Madison	Garage
Madison	Waterworks
Madison	Swimming Pool
Madison	Swimming Pool
Madison	Waterworks
Madison	Power Improvements
Madison	University Improvements
Marion	School Improvements
Marion	School Addition
Marion Junction	Sanitary Sewer
Martin	Waterworks
Martin	School
Martin	School
McCook County	Courthouse/Jail
McIntosh	Well
Midland	Swimming Pool
Midland	City Hall/Jail
Milbank	Bridge
Milbank	Street Improvements
Miller	Street Improvements
Minnehaha County	School
Mitchell	Disposal Plant
Mitchell	Storm Sewer
Mitchell	Waterworks
Mitchell	Courthouse
Mitchell	City Hall
Mitchell	School Addition
Mitchell	School Addition
Mitchell	Street Improvements
Mitchell	Street Improvements
Mobridge	Storm Sewer
Mobridge	Streets
Mobridge	Auditorium
Mobridge	Electric Plant
Monroe	School
Moody County	School
Morristown	Waterworks
Morristown	School
Moulton	School
Mound City	Courthouse
Mt. Rushmore	Memorial
Mule Head	Electric Plant
Newell	Gas Distribution
Nisland	Waterworks
Northville	School Addition
Oacoma	Waterworks Improv.
Oak Lake Township	School
Oelrichs	Waterworks
Oelrichs	Waterworks
Oelrichs	Waterworks Improv.
Onida	Auditorium
Parker	Waterworks
Parker	Waterworks
Parker	School Addition
Parker	Waterworks Improv.
Parkston	School Addition
Parnell	School
Pennington County	Waterworks
Pennington County	School Improvements
Perkins County	School
Phillip	Waterworks
Pierre	Gas Distribution
Pierre	School
Pierre	School
Pierre	Electric Plant
Pierre	Electric Plant
Pierre	Bridge
Pierre	School Addition
Pierre	Street Improvements
Pierre	Laboratory
Plankinton	Waterworks Heat
Plankinton	Electric Plant
Plankinton	Courthouse

Location	Project
Plankinton	Vocational School
Plankinton	Waterworks Sewer
Platte	Waterworks
Pollock	School
Pukwana	Sanitary Sewer
Pukwana	Municipal Improvements
Ramona	School Improvements
Rapid City	Waterworks
Rapid City	Disposal Plant
Rapid City	Waterworks
Rapid City	School
Rapid City	School
Rapid City	Street Improvements
Rapid City	City Hall
Rapid City	Waterworks
Rapid City	Storm Sewer
Rapid City	Memorial Building
Rapid City	Airport Improvements
Raymond	School
Redfield	Schools
Redfield	Dormitory
Redfield	Building Improvements
Redfield	Hospital
Reliance	Waterworks
Roberts County	Jail
Roberts County	School
Rockham	School
Rosholt	School Addition
State of SD	Trans. Line
State of SD	Trans. Line
Salem	Swimming Pool
Salem	School Repairs
Sanator	Barn Buildings
Sanborn County	School
Scotland	Streets
Sinai	School Addition
Sioux Falls	Storm Sewer
Sioux Falls	Disposal Plant
Sioux Falls	City Hall
Sioux Falls	Schools
Sioux Falls	Parks
Sioux Falls	Paving
Sioux Falls	Streets
Sioux Falls	School Repairs
Sioux Falls	School Improvements
Sioux Falls	School Addition
Sioux Falls	School
Sioux Falls	School
Sioux Falls	Reservoir
Sioux Falls	Streets
Sioux Falls	Gas Plant
Sioux Falls	Paving
Sioux Falls	Prison Improvements
Sioux Falls	School Improvements
Sioux Falls	Disposal Plant
Sioux Falls	Paving
Sioux Falls	School Addition
Sioux Falls	School Improvements
Sioux Falls	Filtration Plant
Sisseton	Waterworks
Sisseton	School Building
Spearfish	Watermains
Spearfish	Waterworks
Spearfish	Street Improvements
Spearfish	Building Improv.
Spearfish	University Improv.
Spencer	Waterworks
Springfield	Auditorium/Gym
Springfield	University Improv.
Springfield	Dormitory
Statewide	Highway Improv.
Stevens	School
Stockholm	School
Sturgis	School
Sturgis	Disposal Plant
Sturgis	Courthouse Addition
Summit	School
Sylvan Lake	Hotel
Thomas	School
Trojan	School Improvements
Tulare	Auditorium/Gym
Twin Brooks	School
Tyndall	Power Improvements
Tyndall	Waterworks Improv.
Valley Springs	Waterworks
Vermillion	Waterworks

Location	Project
Vermillion	Hospital
Vermillion	Auditorium Repairs
Vermillion	Waterworks
Vermillion	Library Addition
Vermillion	Library Addition
Vermillion	Power/Heat
Vermillion	Administration Building
Vermillion	Medical Building
Vermillion	Library
Vermillion	University Improvements
Virgil	Electric Plant
Wagner	Waterworks/Sewer
Wagner	Auditorium/Gymnasium
Wakonda	Municipal Building
Wakonda	Waterworks
Warner	School Addition
Watertown	Curbs
Watertown	Streets
Watertown	Street Improvements
Watertown	Storm Sewer
Watertown	Sanitary Sewer
Watertown	Street Improvements
Watertown	Sanitary Sewer
Watertown	Sanitary Sewer
Watertown	Paving
Watertown	Sidewalks
Watertown	Curbs
Watertown	Auditorium
Webster	Storm Sewer
Webster	Street Improvements
Webster	Street Improvements
White Lake	School
White Lake	School
White River	Waterworks
White River	Waterworks
Whitewood	Waterworks
Whitewood	Park Improvements
Willow Lake	Waterworks
Willow Lake	Sanitary Sewer
Willow Lake	Sanitary Sewer
Wilmot	City Hall
Winner	Water Tank
Winner	Waterworks

Location	Project
Wood	School
Woonsocket	School Addition
Yankton	City Hall
Yankton	Streets
Yankton	Waterworks/Sewer
Yankton	Street Repairs
Yankton	High School Addition
Yankton	Waterworks
Yankton	Swimming Pool
Yankton	Electric Plant
Yankton	Recreation Center
Yankton	Electric Plant
Yankton	Waterworks Improv.
Yankton	Hospital
Yankton	Hospital
Yankton	Waterworks Improv.
Yankton	Building
Yankton	Incinerator

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