POST-WORLD WAR II ARCHITECTURE IN SOUTH DAKOTA

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INTRODUCTION

The Post-World War II Architecture in South Dakota context document has been developed to provide a broad overview of the history of the resources built in South Dakota between 1945 and 1960. It was written to supplement The Historic Contexts for Historic and Architectural Resources in South Dakota and is intended for use as a tool in planning efforts. The Post-World War II Architecture context 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 postwar era of 1945-1960. Both documents, however, identify patterns of historic development, which provide the basis for understanding the context in which particular resources exist.

Context-based planning, as developed by the National Park Service for organizing activities for preserving historic resources, is detailed in 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 post-World War II construction in South Dakota. Resources from this time period are at particular peril given current and projected development and expansion throughout many communities and the impression that these resources are either not historic or they are expendable; the need to identify and protect these resources will continue to grow.

Information presented in this document is the result of research through various records documenting the time period, including records maintained by the South Dakota State Archives, the South Dakota State Library, the South Dakota State Historic Preservation Office, various municipal libraries throughout the state, and various state and county agencies. A small survey was completed in conjunction with this project in an effort to document various resources constructed in South Dakota in the years following World War II.

The author wishes to stress that this is a working document that 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 of postwar construction in South Dakota and consequently further research and survey work is needed to better understand the resources of this time period. Readers should note that wherever possible, photographs in this document are labeled according to the resource’s use at the time of construction rather than current use.
CONTEXT DESCRIPTION

Context studies are best understood when their boundaries are clearly defined. Generally, these boundaries are defined by three parameters: “theme,” “place,” and “time.” Each of these elements contributes to the context definition and description.

THEME

Defining the “theme” of a context study names what is to be studied. The theme of this project is post-World War II architecture. It addresses the development of resources, such as buildings, structures, sites, and objects that were constructed in relation to the building boom that followed World War II.

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. Post-World War II construction affected all parts of the state, either positively or negatively. Examples of buildings, structures, sites, and objects constructed after World War II can be found throughout the state, in rural areas, small towns and urban centers.

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 1945-1960. This period encompasses the time period between the end of World War II and the point at which the postwar building boom began to diminish and America moved into a new phase of social, cultural, and architectural times.
HISTORIC OVERVIEW

This section provides a historic overview of the post-World War II era and the construction that occurred during that time period. It provides a context for understanding and evaluating the physical resources that were constructed in South Dakota during that time.

THE PROLOGUE YEARS: THE GREAT DEPRESSION AND WORLD WAR II

For many years prior to World War II, America was in the grips of the Great Depression. Although the stock market crash at the end of October 1929 is commonly noted as the beginning of the Great Depression, it was not the cause. Years of overproduction, a widening gap between wages and productivity, and a slump in consumerism contributed to an economic crisis felt throughout much of the country during the 1920s.

In South Dakota, for example, the post-World War I 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. By 1925, 175 banks in the state 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. The situation only worsened after the stock market crash. Another 11,550 farms foreclosures occurred by 1932 and by 1934, a total of 71 percent of South Dakota’s banks had failed (Schell, 283-284). In addition to the economic woes, a series of natural conditions plagued South Dakota through the 1930s. Much of the Great Plains, which became known as the Dust Bowl, endured droughts, dust storms, grasshopper plagues and severe winters.

The Great Depression was, for most Americans, all but overwhelming despite the numerous federal relief programs that were created in the 1930s. By the end of the decade, the U.S. economy continued to be sluggish with 9.4 million persons unemployed and a gross national product of only $91 billion (Evans, 314; Gilbert, 8).

Most Americans weren’t overly concerned about the war when it broke out in Europe in 1939. By 1940, however, the entire U.S. construction industry was “caught up in the frenzy of providing urgently needed housing for workers in shipyards, tank and aircraft plants, bomber plants, barracks, defense homes, and industrial plants” (Mason, 34). With the U.S. entry into the war after the bombing of Pearl Harbor in December 1941, industrial expansion continued. Between 1940 and 1943, output in the U.S. increased by almost 250 percent over production in the 1930s (Evans, 314). By 1945, the gross national product was about $212 billion (Gilbert, 8).

The United States’ involvement in the war was not without costs. A total of 292,131 American service men and women lost their lives (Evans, 385). Of the 64,560 South Dakotans that went into military service during the war, 1,560 were killed in action and 484 died of other causes (Berg, 172).

World War II ended the Great Depression and launched a 30-year period of prosperity.
After the war, a new America emerged as the nation rode a wave of optimism.

The population of the country increased 14.5 percent between 1940 and 1950; with most of the growth occurring in the five years following the war (Phillips, 378). The geographic distribution of the population shifted with a substantial increase in population in the West (by 40 percent) and the South, in part due to the relocation of industries to warmer climates. Americans were living longer – the 1940s was a decade of one of the greatest advances in average life expectancy. In 1940 the average life expectancy for men was about 61 years, for women about 65 years; by 1950 it rose to 65.6 years for men and 71 years for women. One of the reasons for increased longevity was the rapid improvement of medicine during the war which led to the control of almost all nutritional diseases in the U.S. (Gilbert, 26-27).

The gross national product went from $100 billion in 1940 to $285 billion by 1950, despite the substantial increase in national debt (due to war costs). The average family income rose 32 percent (Phillips, 383). The postwar economy clearly reflected the triumphs of World War II production.

The 1940s was a decade of transition from “old” to “modern” times. For the first time in American history, women were employed outside the home in skilled, high-paying jobs as the need for labor during the war increased. Child-care centers were created for the children of working women. A survey in 1946 indicated that 75 percent of the women interviewed intended to continue working outside the home (Gilbert, 15).

New technological innovations contributed to the shift to modern times. New plastics and synthetics were used in the manufacture of various household goods, electric appliances and frozen foods changed how Americans cooked and what they ate, automatic transmission cars made driving easier, air conditioners provided relief from summer heat, miracle antibiotics advanced healthcare exponentially, and television became a way of life in most American households.

Perhaps one of the greatest changes during the time was the shift in the number of persons (especially men) who pursued college educations. Many young Americans had put their education, marital, and child-rearing plans on hold during the Depression and the war. Returning soldiers, however, traded their uniforms for wives, families, and an education. Part of the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act (also known as the Veterans Act or the GI Bill), which was passed into law on June 22, 1944, in anticipation of the end of the war, provided funding for higher education. The law provided that veterans under the age of 25 at the day of entry into military service, who remained for 90 days or more, would receive one year’s subsidized education; two years of service earned three years of schooling; all tuition fees would be paid to the college or university chosen by the veteran. The law also provided a monthly subsistence stipend of $50 for single veterans and $75 dollars for married veterans (Gilbert, 21-22). The educational provisions of the GI Bill were a huge success; thousands of men who might otherwise have settled into industrial jobs attended college and earned degrees.
The period immediately following the war was not without problems, however. Labor unrest in 1945 and 1946 resulted in hundreds of thousands of workers on strike. In November 1945, 180,000 United Auto Workers went on strike and closed down facilities in twenty states; before Christmas 700,000 went out on strike, followed by 200,000 electrical workers, 50,000 communications workers, 263,000 packinghouse workers and tens of thousands in other industries. In 1946, 400,000 coal miners walked out – not only for better pay and working conditions but for contributions into a pension fund, a request that was unheard of at the time. In June 1947, in an effort to resolve the labor conflicts, Congress approved the Taft-Hartley bill, which was vetoed by President Truman. Congress overrode the veto and the Labor-Management Relations Act of 1947 became law (Phillips, 280-285, 291-292).

One of the most pressing issues following the war was the housing shortage brought on, in part, by fifteen years of depressed production. The Servicemen’s Readjustment Act promised veterans an opportunity to purchase new homes using a loan administered by the Veterans Administration; unfortunately there were few homes to be had after the war and millions of veterans and their families ended up living with family or friends or in temporary housing. Housing starts had dropped drastically during the war due to scarcity of materials and equipment with only 191,000 in 1943 and 141,800 in 1944. Anticipating a shortage, the National Association of Home Builders developed a plan to build a million new houses a year supported by federal loans and financing. The building optimism was short-lived, however. Material shortages worsened, there was confusion and frustration over government priorities for ending controls, and only 209,300 homes were built in 1945 (Mason, 44).

Most controls and restrictions were lifted by the end of 1946 and housing construction starts shot up. In 1946, a total of 1,023,000 homes were built and in 1947, the numbers climbed to 1,268,000. Builders, with a large skilled-labor force available, were mass producing houses and large developments such as William J. Levitt’s original Levittown on Long Island (which started with 2000 houses in 1947 and grew to 17,447 houses when it was completed) began to appear. Housing starts in 1948 set records. In May, an all-time high of 97,000 homes were started; by the end of the year a total of 1,362,000 had been built. In 1949, FNMA (Fannie Mae) brought long-term benefits to the housing industry and created a strong secondary market for VA and FHA mortgages (Mason, 47-51).

It was not only housing construction that took off in the late 1940s. The nation’s new-found wealth and the momentum of the “modern age” resulted in the expansion of most aspects of the American culture. Commercial enterprises flourished as Americans sought to spend money after years of economic depression and war-time restrictions. Not only did existing businesses, such as auto dealerships, grow and expand but new retail buildings, such as shopping centers and fast food restaurants, sprung up around the country. Industry expanded to meet the needs with new manufacturing facilities to build more cars and items such as home appliances. The Cold War era led to great expansion of the defense industry, creating new facilities for defense manufacturing and thousands of new jobs. As the communities around the country grew, the need for additional schools and churches followed and hundreds of new buildings were built to accommodate the growing need.
At the end of World War II, much of South Dakota appeared as it did in the 1930s. It was a rural, agricultural state where small towns served as the trade centers for the populations that surrounded them. Most towns had basic specialized stores – a general store (with dry goods and clothing), a hardware store, a meat market, a bank, a saloon, perhaps a jewelry store or a soda fountain. Farmers were partly self-sufficient; partly dependent on their cash crop to purchase things they couldn’t produce themselves (Thompson, 178).

While some small towns fared well through and after the war, others suffered and eventually a number of them disappeared.* Many towns suffered population losses at the beginning of the war and never recovered from the initial declines. Other towns suffered from the shift in the population to urban centers following the war.

The war had provided an economic boost to farmers, and in the period immediately after, there was a rapid transformation of agricultural practices with the increased use of new machinery and technology that expanded the output of products. Farmers prospered, but only temporarily. Faced with the implications of overproduction, the number of farms dropped. In 1940, there were 72,545 farms in the state and by 1950 the number had dropped to 66,453 (Thompson, 240). Many farmers left their rural homes and moved to larger towns and cities.

The shift in the population resulted in growth in the larger towns and cities. Rapid City experienced the greatest growth, in part due to the air base expansion, from 13,844 in 1940 to 17,117 in 1945. Sioux Falls grew from 40,832 in 1940 to 42,615 in 1945; Aberdeen grew from 17,015 in 1940 to 18,103 in 1945; Huron gained from 10,843 in 1940 to 11,132 in 1945; Watertown gained from 10,617 in 1940 to 10,934 in 1945 (RC Journal).

The building boom was slower to start in South Dakota due to continued shortages of materials. Once that problem was resolved, however, the construction of new homes and other buildings quickly caught up and kept pace with the rest of the country. Much of the initial building during this period occurred in new additions and subdivisions in the state’s larger towns and cities.

Perhaps the biggest change in South Dakota during the late 1940s was the electrification of the rural areas of the state. Although the Rural Electrification Act was signed into law in 1936, there were only four rural electric co-ops in South Dakota prior to the war. At the beginning of 1947, South Dakota was 47th in the nation with the number of farms with electric service; 70 percent were still using kerosene lamps (Hexom, 9). On February 26, 1947, Governor George T. Mickelson signed the South Dakota Electric Cooperative Act, which cleared the way for the construction of transmission lines. By the end of the decade, 60 percent of South Dakota’s farms had electric power (Thompson, 238-239).

Enrollments at the state’s colleges grew as veterans took advantage of the GI Bill for their educations. South Dakota State saw an increase from an enrollment of 294 in 1944 to 1050 in 1946; the University of South Dakota’s enrollment increased from 374 in 1944 to 698 in 1946.

*In 1911, South Dakota had 377 small towns. By 1956, only 39 percent (148) still existed (Thompson, 178).
Other campuses experienced similar growth. These numbers continued to climb through the remainder of the 1940s and resulted in the construction of several new buildings on the campuses.

The Missouri Basin Project (also called the Pick-Sloan Plan) began in the late 1940s after construction was authorized for 150 multi-purpose reservoirs along the Missouri River and its tributaries. Several of these dams were located in South Dakota, including the Fort Randall (completed 1954), Gavins Point (completed 1957), Oahe (completed 1963), and Big Bend (completed 1964). The construction of these dams resulted in a number of housing projects, including the construction of the town of Pickstown near the Fort Randall Dam and the Oahe Addition in Pierre. Pickstown was constructed to house the workers and their families, and the community included single-family houses, duplexes and apartments, a school, a police and fire station, a post office, a hotel, and a retail shopping center. The Oahe Addition included the construction of 50 two- and three-bedroom houses and 26 garages to address the housing shortages for construction workers.

The creation of these reservoirs in South Dakota flooded over 200,000 acres of Sioux bottomland on five reservations, forcing several families from their homes. Following a series of law suits, the Federal government created a number of housing projects to “accommodate” the relocation of some of these families; where new homes were not built tribal members received monies for relocation to nearby towns. The largest of these projects was the construction of 81 new homes, plus a high school, hospital and community buildings at Eagle Butte when the construction of the
Oahe Dam destroyed the communities of Robertson, Four Bears, and the Cheyenne River Agency and forced the relocation of 81 families. Other sizable projects occurred on the Lower Brule Reservation and the Crow Creek Reservation when the construction of the Big Bend Dam resulted in the displacement of 62 and 27 families, respectively. Detailed information about these housing projects can be found in the *Indian Housing in South Dakota: 1946-1975* historic context document prepared for the State Historic Preservation Office in 2000 (U.S. West Research, Inc., 2000).

House built in the Oahe Addition in Pierre.

**THE AMERICAN DREAM: THE UNITED STATES, 1950-1960**

The 1950s has been called the “age of affluence” and an “economy of abundance” (Phillips, 345). America’s new middle class was made up of 60 percent of all American families, who enjoyed their new wealth and spending power. By 1958, more than 13 million new homes had been purchased; 83 percent of American homes had televisions; and the number of two-car families doubled. America, with only six percent of the world’s population, was consuming one third of the world’s good and services (Evans, 435).

The postwar building boom resulted in the development of thousands of new suburbs. Housing starts in 1950 reached 1.95 million – a record not equaled for the next twenty years. With the
U.S. entry into the Korean War, housing suffered a predictable setback, declining to 1.49 million starts in 1951, 1.5 million in 1952, and 1.44 million in 1953. Starts in 1954 climbed to 1.55 million and to 1.65 million in 1955. A mild recession in 1956 and 1957 brought a decline in starts to 1.35 million and 1.22 million, respectively, but housing starts grew again in 1958 when they reached 1.38 million and in 1959 when they climbed to 1.5 million (Mason, 61-62).

The suburbs become home to millions of middle-class Americans and developed into self-contained communities where residents could work, shop, and play. In addition to houses and apartments, shopping centers, schools, churches, parks, and recreational facilities were constructed. Two of the most prominent large-scale developments of the early 1950s were U.S. Steel’s Fairless Hills and William J. Levitt’s Pennsylvania Levittown (both located near Morrisville). Fairless Hills included approximately 15,000 prefabricated houses and apartments, while Levittown, Pennsylvania had 17,000 homes to house 60,000 people. In 1958, Levittown #3 opened near Willingboro, New Jersey, with 15,000 homes (Mason, 94). For many Americans, life in these postwar suburbs represented the fulfillment of the American Dream.

The success of the new suburbs was due, in part, to a new and improved multi-billion dollar highway system. The Federal Highway Act of 1944 authorized a national system of interstate highways, but construction got off to a slow start. By 1951, 65 percent of the Federal funds were being used only for improvements on arterial highways and urban expressways around major cities. The Federal Aid Highway Act of 1956 provided funding for the accelerated construction of a 41,000-mile national system of Interstate Highways for defense purposes and by the late 1950s the construction of these highways added to the influence on the patterns of suburbanization and the decentralization of the urban landscape (Ames, 24). Not only did these highways lead to further development within the suburbs as access to them improved, but they also contributed to the development of an entire new generation of roadside architecture.

The 1950s were also a turbulent period – one shaped, in part, by the “Red Scare” and the Cold War, punctuated by the sighting of UFOs and the building of backyard bomb shelters. The decade was also the beginning of the civil rights movement, marked by boycotts and protests (Mason, 62). The decade, however, will long be remembered (fondly by many) as the decade that America “arrived” in modern times. The country experienced full employment, new opportunities, rising incomes, substantial growth (including the addition of two new states – Alaska and Hawaii – to the union), and access to new technologies and products like never before.

THE AMERICAN DREAM: SOUTH DAKOTA, 1950-1960

South Dakota’s experience of the 1950s paralleled that of the country. It was a decade of growth and opportunity, for the most part.

Although the number of farms continued to decline (as they did nationally), from 66,453 in 1950 to 49,600 by 1961, new technology and science – including the introduction of the 4-wheel tractor in 1957 – dropped production costs to new lows. The resulting effect, however, was that
with increased production, prices dropped, which over time forced farmers to sell their land and operations (Thompson, 239).

The condition and number of small towns continued to decline, while the larger towns and cities continued to experience healthy growth. Several reasons have been suggested for the continuation of this pattern, although clearly transportation developments had a strong effect. With the loss of passenger rail service to many small towns, the automobile became ever-more popular. Towns that were located along highways experienced healthy growth, while those that were located away from the highways experienced little growth. When the Federal Aid Highway Act of 1956 was enacted, South Dakota received two interstate highways – Interstate 90 (running east and west) and Interstate 29 (running and north and south). The pattern of growth continued to follow the highways well into the 1960s (and beyond). Towns such as Watertown, Brookings, Sioux Falls, Rapid City, and Mitchell clearly illustrate this pattern.

The building boom continued to be centered in these larger towns and cities, where a growing number of new subdivisions were appearing and new tracts of land were being annexed into the cities. Some of these developments were sizeable (although nowhere near as big as the Levittowns of the east); examples include the Robbinsdale Addition in Rapid City, the Huffman Addition in Aberdeen, and the BelAire Addition in Sioux Falls.

Although a number of small towns suffered, some thrived and experienced much the same boom that the rest of the state was experiencing. Housing developments appeared, new schools were built, new churches erected, new commercial enterprises developed, and new industry introduced. Development on the college campuses continued at a quick pace, as enrollments continued to grow and new classrooms and student living space was required.

Electrification of rural areas continued throughout the decade and was enhanced by the completion of power generating stations as the Missouri River dams were completed. In the ten years between 1950 and 1960, the percentage of rural South Dakotans with electricity to their homes increased from 60 percent to 96 percent. Electric power, perhaps more than anything else, reduced the differences between country and city living (Thompson, 239).

**POSTWAR ARCHITECTURE: STYLES AND MATERIALS**

Just as American society during the postwar period was marked by a transition from “old” to “modern,” so was the architecture that represents that time period. World War II brought enormous change in construction methods and materials and in a few short years, traditional ways of hand-crafting buildings were transformed into a new, fast-paced world of industrialized production.

The following is a brief discussion about architectural styles and materials that were most often used during the postwar era. Examples of each are likely to be found in South Dakota, as much of the building boom in the state paralleled that which was occurring around the nation.
ARCHITECTURAL STYLES

Generally speaking, buildings in the 1940s and 1950s represented a widespread movement away from traditional styles of architecture towards a Modern style of architecture.*

Modern architecture grew out of the Modernism movement of the early 20th century. Modernism, which saw the traditional forms of art, music, literature and applied arts as outdated, embraced the new and changing realities of the industrialized world as progress. The International Style of architecture was a specific attempt to implement the ideals of Modernism through architecture and it became a popular style in the 1920s and early 1930s when it was adopted by several influential architects. It was straight-forward in design, with clean lines and no applied ornamentation, and made use of new technology and materials available at that time. The International Style is considered the purest and most minimal form of Modern architecture.

The Depression of the 1930s and the war during the early 1940s stalled the use of Modern architectural styles in America. Following the war, however, Modern architecture gained in popularity and became the dominant style of architecture throughout the country until the postmodern period took over in the 1960s and 1970s. Modern architecture lent itself well to the use of modern materials, including glass, steel, aluminum, and concrete, as well as to new methods of construction.

Crothers Engineering Hall, located on the South Dakota State University campus in Brookings, is an example of Modern architecture’s lack of ornamentation and expansive use of glass and aluminum on wall surfaces.

*Modern architecture (with a capital “M”) should not be confused with “contemporary” architecture, which is often referred to as modern architecture (with a lower case “m”).
Although the International Style was used on a limited basis following the war, most Modern architecture, which continued to emphasize simplicity and clarity of form, was less strict and was adapted for various building types. Residential architecture, schools, churches, public buildings, hospitals, industrial complexes, social and fraternal lodges and halls, and other building types all experienced a shift from traditional architectural styles to Modern architecture, although in some cases (such as with some religious architecture) traditional styles were simply stripped down so that traditional elements were still present but in a sleeker, modernized way.

**MATERIALS**

When World War II ended and the country turned its thoughts to peacetime building, traditional materials were in short supply (and what supplies existed were still under strict control). Fortunately, new and non-traditional materials were available in abundance and the building industry wasted no time in finding ways to use them. The shift from traditional architectural styles to Modern architecture emphasized the use of these non-traditional and new materials.

Various metals found their way into the buildings of the 1940s and 1950s. Aluminum is perhaps the most obvious example of a material that was exploited by the construction industry following the war. Not only did the aircraft industry continue to use it for the building of airplanes, a mode of transportation that gained in popularity in the 1950s, but the construction industry began using aluminum for windows, doors and siding (Tomlan 1995, 42). By 1950, aluminum had become a standard building material for a range of applications and by 1952, aluminum production had surpassed wartime levels (Kelley 1995, 49).

Two metals that had been used in building construction since the early 1900s, Monel and nickel-silver (both alloys), continued to see application in the building industry after the war – but only briefly. Uses included sheeting for roofing, ducts, flashing, gutters, countertops, letter boxes, mail chutes, elevator fittings, light fixtures, and sinks. Trade names of these materials included Monel-Plymetyl (Monel) and German Silver, Nevada Silver, Queen’s Metal, White Metal, and Wolfram Brass (nickel silver) (Trelstad 1995, 54; Cowden 1995, 61). By the 1950s, both were replaced by stainless steel and aluminum.

Stainless steel comprises a group of metal alloys containing iron and chromium that resist corrosion and chemical attack. Architectural uses for stainless steel began in the U.S. in the late 1920s when it first appeared as ornamentation, light fixtures, hardware, and countertops. Its use continued through the Depression where it was used, often with structural glass, to modernize storefronts. After World War II, rigidized stainless steel was introduced and sheets of it were used extensively for wall coverings. Because stainless steel can be extruded or rolled into various shapes, it was adaptable to many building situations. Manufacturers sold both standardized and customized products. Trade names included Enduro, Rigid-Tex, Nirostametal, Ascoloy, and Allegheny Metal (Score 1995, 67-90).

Weathering steel found its way into the American construction industry in the late 1950s. It is a high-strength, low-carbon steel alloy that is more resistant to atmospheric corrosion and has the
unique feature that when exposed to normal outdoor conditions, it develops a protective brown patina. Weathering steels were used for I-beams, channels, surfacing sheets, window ledges, and columns. Trade names included Cor-Ten, Cor-Ten A, Cor-Ten B, Mayari R, River-Ten, and USS Cor-Ten (Scott 1995, 73-75).

Concrete is another material that was readily available and used extensively following the war. It found its way into building construction in various forms, including concrete block (used throughout the 1940s and 1950s), cast stone (used in the 1940s), reinforced poured concrete (used throughout the 1940s and 1950s), and pre-cast and pre-stressed concrete (used in the 1950s). These forms of concrete were used in most building types and as structural and non-structural elements. Concrete was also widely used for non-building structures, such as bridges and roadways. Trade names included Celocrete, Haydite, Pottsco, and Straubox (for concrete block); and Arnold Stone, Benedict Stone, Chicago Art Marble, Dextone, Edmunds Art Stone, Instone, and Litholite (for cast stone) (Simpson 1995, 80; Cowden 1995, 87).

During the 1940s and early 1950s, concrete construction was usually disguised with the exterior application of various wall cladding materials, such as brick, stucco, and stone. By the late 1950s, however, concrete gained favor for its functional aesthetic and examples of buildings with visible concrete walls were developed (Slaton 1995, 97).

Another form in which concrete was used in building construction was as shotcrete, a pneumatically applied mixture of concrete mortar. Shotcrete was initially used as a coating for tunnels and a lining for factory furnaces and boilers, but as the technology advanced, it was also used on buildings and structures (such as bridges) as a coating over metal, ceramic tile, and concrete block. In addition, it was used for repairing stucco and concrete wall surfaces. In the 1940s, the dry-mix application of shotcrete was favored; in the early 1950s, new technology in the wet-mix process gained favor. Trade names included Blocrete, Glastcrete, Guncrete, Gunite, Gun-Stone, Jetcrete, Nucrete, Pneucrete, and Spraycrete (Sullivan 1995, 103-105).

Simulated masonry included a number of products manufactured to imitate the appearance and characteristic of stone. They were made from a variety of materials, including cement, minerals, epoxy, and fiberglass and could be molded and colored to look like a variety of stones. The use of simulated masonry products reached its peak in the 1950s. Trade names included Perma-Stone, Bermuda Stone, Fieldstone, Formstone, Modern Stone, Romanstone, Silverstone, and Terox (McKee 1995, 175-179).

Gypsum block and gypsum tile (interchangeable names) were made of calcined gypsum and fiber (usually wood) and used principally for non-load-bearing partition walls. Gypsum was popular as a building material in the first half of the 20th century due to its fire-retardant properties. Although manufactured and used in construction until the 1960s, gypsum blocks and tiles were replaced with the preferred gypsum wallboard. Trade names included Gypsite, Gypsteel, Pyrobar, Structolite, and Unitrave (Escherich 1995, 163-164).

Gypsum board is a panel of gypsum core typically encased in paper. It was first patented in 1894, but did not become a staple building material until the 1930s. In the 1940s, gypsum board with decorative surfaces and foil-insulating layers was introduced; vinyl-covered gypsum board
was introduced in the late 1950s. Since World War II, gypsum board was used in countless commercial, industrial, and residential buildings (as well as others) for walls and ceilings. Trade names include Sheetrock, Adamant, Bestwall Firestop, Gold Bond, Sackett Board, and Samson Board (Konrad 1995, 269-270).

Fiberboard, also called wallboard, is a rigid sheet building material used to insulate or sheath building interior and exterior walls. It is composed primarily of fiber (such as wood, grasses, straw, bagasse, jute, flax, hemp, sawdust, bark, oat hulls, and newspaper) and is manufactured in various densities and thicknesses. Fiberboard can be either a homogeneous composition or laminated and is classified in three categories: insulation board, medium density fiberboard, and hardboard. War-related industries were a major consumer of wallboard products in the early 1940s; the Masonite Corporation’s Tempered Presdwood (a hardboard introduced in 1931) was used for walls on Quonset huts. After the war, the construction industry used fiberboard in widespread application and by 1957, the number of patents relating to fiberboard exceeded 600. Trade names include American Wallboard, Beaver Board, Cornell Board, C-X Boards, Feltex, Fir-Tex, Homasote, Insulite, J-M Board, Maftex, Masonite (Presdwood), Nu-Wood, and Upson Board (Gould 1995, 120-125).

Plywood, also used widely in the 1940s and 1950s, is a composition of layered hardwood or softwood veneers bonded together with adhesive. It is resistant to splitting, can be molded into compound curves, has dimensional stability and a high strength-to-weight ratio. Plywood was used largely for sheathing and subflooring. Finished hardwood panels were introduced in the mid-1940s and widely used by the 1950s. Trade names include Plankweld, Plycrete, Plymetal, Plyshield, Haskelite, Harbord, Weldtex, and Weldwood (Jester 1995, 132-135).

Glue laminated timber (commonly referred to as “glu-lams”) was first used in American buildings in the 1930s. It consists of wood laminations glued together with the grains of the laminations longitudinally parallel. Douglas fir and Southern pine are common species used for these laminates. During the war, the military used glue laminated timber for trusses and arches in drill halls, storage facilities, aircraft hangers, and factories. After the war, churches became the largest market for the material, although they were also used in schools, supermarkets, warehouses, factories, auditoriums, and hangars (McNall 1995, 137-139).

Laminates were not confined to wood. Decorative plastic laminates consist of “layers of kraft paper impregnated with a synthetic resin and cured under heat and pressure to form an insoluble, homogenous piece” (Walker 1995, 127). Decorative plastic laminates were first introduced in 1907 by Leo Baekeland, who established the General Bakelite Company. In 1913, two engineers from Westinghouse left that company to form the Formica Insulation Company, after developing a laminate substitute for mica, an electric insulator. After World War II, the application of Formica and similar competitive products were widely used in cinemas, diners, and kitchens. Trade names include Formica, Micarta, Dilecto, Insurok, Lamicoid, Panelyte, Parkwood, and Roinoid (Walker 1995, 127-129).

Fiber reinforced plastic (FRP) includes a wide range of polymers (such as acrylics, vinyls, and polyesters) combined with reinforcing fibers (predominately asbestos, carbon fibers and glass fibers). The most common combination used for building construction was glass fiber with
unsaturated polyester resins, often colored and with stabilizers to produce a rigid or semi-rigid material. FRPs were used prior to World War II, but the process of producing them required great heat and pressure for curing the glass fibers. In 1941, the cold low-pressure method of molding resin polyesters was introduced making the manufacture of the product most cost-effective. In the late 1940s, corrugated translucent sheets were introduced and Kalwall, which was developed in the 1950s, became a popular building material for wall panels. Trade names include Alsynite, Corrulux, Filon, Indulux, Kalwall, Kalwood, and Sanpan (Walker 1995, 142).

Porcelain enamel is basically a thin coating of glass fused to metal at temperatures above 800 degrees; iron, steel, aluminum and stainless steel are the most common substrates for architectural enamels. The first uses of porcelain enamel in buildings were in the 1890s, but it wasn’t used widely until the 1920s when it was used for bathroom fixtures and appliances. In the 1930s it was adapted for use on storefronts, in restaurants, in theaters, and on gas stations - uses that carried over into the late 1940s. After the war, new technology enabled thinner coatings and its application to lighter weight metals, such as aluminum, and it became an accepted material for spandrel panels on the new curtain wall buildings. An interesting application was its use as the exterior and interior wall panels of the Lustron houses, built in the late 1940s. Trade names include Glasiron Macotta, Mirawall, Porcelite, Porcelok, V-Corr, Veos, and Zourite (Jester 1995, 255-259).

Windows in buildings have long been important features, but after World War II, large windows became walls of windows as Modern architecture evolved. Plate glass is a transparent glass that is thicker and stronger than typical window glass and has little or no distortion. Until the late 1950s, it was produced by casting and rolling large sheets that were ground and polished; the introduction of the float process in 1959 eliminated the need to grind and polish. The availability of large sheets made plate glass ideal for windows in commercial buildings, as well as others requiring large expanses of glass. By the 1950s, plate glass could be insulated and tempered. Trade names include Herculite, Solex, Thermopane, Tuf-Flex, and Twindow (Konrad 1995, 182-185).

Glass block, also known as glass brick or hollow glass tile, was used in the 1940s and 1950s for exterior windows and partition walls in factories, offices, schools, and apartments. The blocks typically were used as masonry units and they came in a variety of sizes and patterns. In the late 1950s, ceramic-coated glass blocks were available in blue, green, yellow, and coral. Trade names include Insulux and PC Block (Neumann 1995, 194-198).

Structural glass usually refers to colored opaque glass slabs used as decorative building cladding. It is glass fused at high temperatures, rolled into slab form, slowly annealed, and mechanically polished; it is resistant to abrasion and warping. It was sold in a variety of colors and widely used in the 1920s and 1930s on storefronts, in building lobbies, movie theaters, restaurants, gas stations, auto dealerships, and in residential kitchens and bathrooms. It was a popular material of the Art Deco and Art Moderne styles. Its use was carried into the 1940s as a material that worked well for Modern architecture, but by the early 1950s the market for structural glass was diminished as tastes changed and other materials (such as porcelain enamel) were favored. Trade names include Argentine, Carrara, Glastone, Marbrunite, Nuralite, Opalite, Vitrolite, and Sani-Onyx (Dyson 1995, 201-204).
Spandrel glass was a product introduced in the 1950s. It was widely used for office buildings, storefronts, shopping centers, schools, motels, and hotels. Initially it referred to ceramic-coated plate glass used for spandrels, but today the term is broadly used to include any glass used for spandrels. The spandrel glass usually covered the space above and below the horizontal strip windows where knee walls and spandrel beams are located. Trade names include Spandrelite and Vitrolux (McKinley 1995, 206-208).

The postwar period was an exciting time in construction in America. Many new and non-traditional materials were introduced and, in some cases, completely replaced earlier materials. But as the traditional building materials industries recovered after the war, they too were used in abundance during the building boom. Millions of houses were site-built wood-framed buildings clad with wood siding and thousands of buildings were faced with brick and stone.

**ARCHITECTS AND BUILDERS IN POSTWAR SOUTH DAKOTA**

A number of architects and builders contributed to the postwar construction period in South Dakota. Stylistically, it appears that most of the architects followed the national trends of using Modern architecture in their designs, although there are examples of buildings that appear somewhat traditional in form but have been stripped of ornamentation in keeping with the Modern approach. Builders who were mass-producing housing stock in the state seem to have followed the national trends of simplified domestic buildings – perhaps relying on pattern books of the time – an approach that worked well for building many houses quickly with the minimal amounts and kinds of materials as possible.

Probably the best known architect in the state, and perhaps the most prolific, was Harold T. Spitznagel of Sioux Falls. Spitznagel was born and raised in Sioux Falls; he attended the Art Institute of Chicago and received his architectural degree for the University of Pennsylvania in 1925. After working as a draftsman and a designer with architectural firms in Chicago, he returned to Sioux Falls in 1930 and established his own firm: Spitznagel and Associates (SHPO files on Architects of South Dakota, n.d.). He embraced Modern architecture and was responsible for several commissions during the postwar period, including (but not limited to) the following:

- D.W. Sutherland residence in Sioux Falls (1945)
- Wayne Donahue residence in Sioux Falls (1946)
- Sears, Roebuck & Co building in Rapid City (1946)
- Trinity Lutheran Church in Rapid City (1946)
- G.M. Scudder residence in Sioux Falls (1947)
- Mr. and Mrs. Laverne Hubbard residence in Watertown (1948)
- Mrs. R.E. Hubbard residence in Watertown (1948)
- Russell D. Cole residence in Brookings (1948)
- H. W. Ortmann residence in Canistota (1948)
- Paul A. Weber residence in Sioux Falls (1948)
- Dakota Farm Equipment building in Sioux Falls (attributed, 1948)
- Eide Implement Co. Garage in Flandreau (attributed, 1948)
Northwest Auto Bank in Sioux Falls (1949)
Belle Fourche elementary school (1949)
Joe Foss Building (State Capitol complex) in Pierre (attributed, 1949)
Whetstone Valley Electrical Assoc. Headquarters Building in Milbank (attributed, 1949)
Tuve Hall (women’s dorm) at Augustana College in Sioux Falls (1950)
Dr. P.R. Billingsley residence in Sioux Falls (1950)
Henry Billion residence in Sioux Falls (1950)
A.E. Godfrey residence in Sioux Falls (1950)
Trinity Lutheran Parish House in Madison (attributed, 1950)
F.G. Kohlmeyer residence in Sioux Falls (1951)
W.R. Laird residence in Sioux Falls (attributed 1951)
Huron Arena (1951)
National Bank of SD South Branch Building in Sioux Falls (attributed, 1951)
St. Michael’s Catholic Church in Clark (attributed, 1951)
YWCA Building in Sioux Falls (attributed, 1951)
Apartment building for Dakota West Corporation in Huron (attributed, 1952)
Mikkelson Library at Augustana College in Sioux Falls (1954)
Church of St. Mary in Sioux Falls (1956)
Our Savior’s Lutheran Church in Sioux Falls (1957)
Western Surety Company in Sioux Falls (1957)
First Congregational Church in Rapid City (1958)
Sioux Falls Arena (1960)
Morrison Commons at Augustana College in Sioux Falls (1960)
Science Center at University of South Dakota in Vermillion (1960)
and several alterations to houses and commercial buildings

Sears, Roebuck & Co. Buildings (Rapid City), designed by Spitznagel, built 1946.
Also in Sioux Falls were the firms of Perkins & McWayne (later McWayne & McLaughlin) and Hugill & Blatherwick. Robert A. Perkins was born in Wisconsin and received his architectural education at Armour Institute of Technology (now IIT). He completed post-graduate work at the University of California and at Columbia University prior to moving to Sioux Falls in about 1912. After a solo practice for a number of years, he joined with McWayne to establish a firm in 1918. Albert McWayne was educated in Indiana, where he received a degree in civil engineering in 1910. He served as a construction superintendent first for Holabird & Roche, then for Grant C. Miller, both in Chicago. He moved to Sioux Falls in 1916 where he established a partnership with Joseph Livermore. When Livermore left Sioux Falls in 1918, McWayne joined Perkins in establishing their firm that lasted until Perkins’ death in 1954. The firm then became known as McWayne and McLaughlin. Known postwar commissions of Perkins & McWayne include the Law Library Annex (1950) at the University of South Dakota, the Ward #6 Building (1952) and the Warehouse (1954) at the State Institution in Redfield. The firm of McWayne & McLaughlin was responsible for the design of the USD’s School of Business (Patterson Hall, 1957) and the addition to Pugsley Union at South Dakota State College in Brookings (1955; Perkins & McWayne designed the original building in 1940) (SHPO files on Architects of South Dakota, n.d.).

George C. Hugill was born and raised in Chicago where he studied architecture and worked prior to relocating to Sioux Falls. From 1919 to 1921 he had a solo practice; in October 1921, he and Blatherwick joined together to establish a firm. Wilford F. Blatherwick also received his architectural education in Chicago. He worked in Cincinnati from 1913 to 1918 after which he
Law Library Annex, University of South Dakota (Vermillion), designed by Perkins & McWayne, built 1950.

Danforth Chapel, University of South Dakota (Vermillion), design attributed to Hugill & Blatherwick, built 1954.
moved to Sioux Falls and worked as a draftsman for Perkins and McWayne until joining Hugill in 1921. Following the death of Hugill in 1950, the firm was renamed Hugill, Blatherwick and Fritzel. After Blatherwick retired in 1960 the firm was again renamed as Fritzel, Kroeger, Griffen and Berg. Hugill & Blatherwick were responsible for a number of buildings on the University of South Dakota campus during the postwar period, including the Andrew E. Lee Medical and Science Building (1952-54), Noteboom Hall (1954), Julian Hall (1950, 1958), and Danforth Chapel (attributed, 1954) (SHPO files on Architects of South Dakota, n.d.).

In Sioux Falls, there were dozens of builders and contractors listed in the city directories in the years following the war. Little is known (at this time) of the buildings they constructed. Some of the names that appeared were (this list is by no means exhaustive): Abrahamson & Carnick, the Bates Construction Co., the Henry Carlson Co., Arthur Fanebust, Gustafson Construction, the J.L. Healy Co., Henkel Construction Co., Kirkvold & Son, Leaders Construction Co., Midwest Homes by the Miller Bros., Haakon Opheim, Halvor Sandness, John Schilt, Herbert Self, Sogge Construction Co., Stone & Sons, Swift Bros. Construction, Thomas Thompson, and Tidemann Construction Co.

Walter J. Dixon was an architect in Mitchell. Born and raised in Cleveland, Ohio, he received his architectural degree from the University of Michigan in 1918. He moved to Mitchell in 1920 and began practice in partnership with Floyd F. Kings (Kings died in 1939). In addition to his architectural pursuits, he was an active member of the community, serving on the City Council from 1938 to 1940 and as Mayor from 1940 to 1946. Dixon was responsible for a number of buildings designed during the postwar period, including four at the State Training School at Plankinton (girls dorm, 1948; staff building, 1950; garage, 1950; boys cottage, 1950), and three at the State Institution at Redfield (Ward #7 building, 1948; Willhite Building, 1955; and the School Building, 1958) (SHPO files on Architects of South Dakota, n.d.).

Also listed as an architect in the Mitchell city directories during the postwar period was Paul Rudolph, although no information has been found about him.


Frank Charles William (F.C.W.) Kuehn was an architect in Huron. Born in Iowa in 1884, Kuehn moved with his parents to a land claim in Sanborn County in 1885, where he lived until the family moved to Huron in 1903. He pursued his architectural education through the International Correspondence Schools in Scranton, Pennsylvania (1905-1908) while working as a draftsman for George Issenhuth, an architect in Huron. Kuehn received his degree and in 1909, he opened his own architectural firm in Huron, where he practiced for sixty years. His postwar commissions included the new restrooms at the State Fairgrounds in Huron (1946), a warehouse/office building for Huron Sash & Door Company (1946), the Leighton Garage and Showroom in Huron (1948), the Northwest Public Service Company’s diesel-generating plant in Highmore.
(1948), the East River Electric Company building in Madison (1952), and residences in Huron and Spearfish. He had long been involved in designing schools for South Dakota (he had prepared the “Standard Plans for Rural School” that was used statewide in the 1920s and 1930s) and continued that work after the war; two rural schools near Milbank, one at Vivian, and one in Wessington Springs were designed by Kuehn from 1948 to 1952 (Kinyon 1984).


Aberdeen’s city directories during the postwar period listed four architects: Ursa L. Freed, John Henry, Marion E. Smith, and Clarence Herges. Little is known about postwar commissions by these architects.


In Rapid City, the architectural firm of James Ewing and Adrian Forrette was responsible for a number of postwar commissions. Examples of their work includes the Gambles store (1947) and the Municipal Building (1955).

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 Educational Resources or Healthcare Resources). Resource sub-types, or specific structural types, are included where appropriate. The following sections describe these resource types and provide examples of specific resources. Where it is known, distribution patterns (such as location and quantity) in South Dakota are included.

RESIDENTIAL DEVELOPMENT – NEIGHBORHOODS AND HOUSING STOCK

Residential architecture of the postwar period experienced a stylistic shift, although there was a brief effort to incorporate traditional elements in the modern styles. The Minimal Traditional style was used in the late 1940s and, in some parts of the country, into the early 1950s. More often, however, the need to build huge numbers of houses quickly resulted in a stripped down house with no ornamentation – one that could be mass-produced easily at minimal cost – which became known as Minimal Tract or Builder Tract housing. Millions of these homes were built in the late 1940s and early 1950s. By the mid-1950s, there was a shift toward larger homes and the small box-like tract housing was replaced by the Ranch Style, which dominated residential architecture in America through the following two decades. Another style also became popular in the late 1950s when the Split-Level style was introduced (McAlester, 477).

This Minimal Traditional style house was built in 1946 in Pickstown.
This small duplex in Rapid City is an example of the Minimal Tract style of house.

This Ranch style house was built in Rapid City in 1953.
Due to the housing shortage immediately following the war, structures other than site-built houses also served as homes for thousands of Americans until permanent buildings could be constructed. A variety of prefabricated units, such as the following, became housing.

For many, Quonset huts provided temporary homes. Developed in the early 1940s for the war effort, the Quonset hut was designed to provide temporary shelter for soldiers. Based (loosely by some accounts) on the British Nissen hut, the Quonset hut was constructed of prefabricated semi-circular steel supports sheathed with corrugated metal. Once the parts were manufactured, they were shipped unassembled to be put together on site (Young, 7-9).

The design was repeatedly modified. The original form was known as the T-Rib Quonset; the first modification, which provided for straight walls on the lower section topped by the rounded arch, was known as the Quonset Redesign. In 1941 and early 1942, more than 32,000 Quonset huts were produced at the Davisville production facility where the original Quonset huts were fabricated. In 1942, the Stran-Steel Division of the Great Lakes Steel Corporation was awarded the contract to produce the Quonset hut. The hut was again redesigned; this version was officially named the New Stran-Steel Arch Rib Hut (or the SSAR) but was still simply called the Quonset hut. By the end of the war, more than 153,000 Quonset huts (of all versions) had been erected to support American troops (Decker, 23-24).

Quonset huts were first erected on the homefront to house military families during the war. The first 1000 huts of the Navy’s Homoja family program were erected in 1943; by the end of the war, the Homoja project had over 6,000 Quonset huts (Decker, 24). The first use of Quonset huts as housing following the war was the creation of the Rodger Young Village in Los Angeles in 1946 where 750 huts were erected to house an estimated 5000 people (Decker, 72). As surplus Quonset huts became available, they were often moved to communities with acute needs for postwar housing; they became a common site on college and university campuses where they provided housing for veterans and their families (Decker, 73). By the late 1940s, the Quonset hut had become a familiar part of the American landscape. Not only were those produced for the war recycled for new uses, but the Stran-Steel company continued to manufacture them. They were adapted for use for grocery stores, dance halls, auditoriums, churches, industrial shops, farm buildings, and many other uses.

Another form of temporary housing was the trailer house, later called the mobile home. Trailer house manufacturers thrived following the war, not only because there was an acute need for housing, but because trailer houses had a competitive advantage of mobility, affordability and availability. Trailer houses were basically long aluminum boxes on wheels that could be transported and set up almost anywhere. The first were only eight-feet wide, but by the mid-1950s, several states allowed ten-foot wide trailers to be moved on the highways and by 1957 more than a dozen manufacturers offered at least one model that was ten-foot wide (also called a “ten-wide”). In 1959, a “twelve-wide” was introduced. In the 1950s, “parks” for trailer houses were appearing, creating a new kind of neighborhood and community that included services such as the park management office, mail rooms, laundry facilities, carports, central storage facilities, and playgrounds. They were intended for permanent siting of mobile homes rather than transient camping. Thousands of trailer parks were established throughout the country in the 1950s (Wallis, 111, 132, 177).
This Lustron house is located in Sioux Falls.

Other prefabricated housing was intended to be permanent and by 1947, there were 280 firms involved in the production of prefabricated housing (Lustron MPS, E3). While most of the prefabricated units utilized traditional building materials, some were more innovative. The classic example is the Lustron house developed by Carl Strandlund in 1946. Lustron houses were made of porcelain enameled steel panels, manufactured in a plant in Chicago and shipped to various sites where the enameled panels were attached to a steel frame set on a concrete slab. The single-story, gabled roof houses came in a small variety of sizes and layouts, although approximately 90 percent of all Lustrons sold were two-bedroom. Both the exterior and interior of the Lustrons were finished and the interiors were considered “ultra-modern” (at that time) with the inclusion of items such as dishwashers, built-in shelves and vanities, and sliding doors (Lustron MPS, E6-7). In addition to the houses, Lustron also offered garages constructed in the same way with the same materials (Lustron MPS, G-10). Further details about Lustron houses can be found in *Lustron Houses of South Dakota* Multiple Property Listing to the National Register by Michelle C. Saxman-Rogers, 1998.

Another innovative approach to providing houses during the shortage following the war was the construction of “expansible houses” or houses more commonly known as “basement houses.” The shortage of traditional materials for home building led to the use of alternative materials that were available – and concrete was one such alternative. The concept of “expansible houses” was first introduced to the public via publications by the U.S. Housing and Home Finance Agency and various magazine and trade journals, such as *The American Home*. Basement houses are those that were, at any time in their history, solely a basement structure. These concrete structures were intended to have above-ground structures erected on top of them at some point in the future (hence the concept of expansion), although some never did (Berg, 1-7, 45-46).
This basement house, which never had the upper floor added, is located in Rapid City.

Not only are individual houses considered potentially important resources from the postwar period, but entire neighborhoods, many developed by merchant builders in America’s suburbs and subdivisions, may be of importance. Many of these developments were planned and designed to be complete neighborhoods, often with many similar homes constructed within a short period of time. The quintessential example, of course, is the Levittowns that were built in New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania. They represent the “supersized” developments; it was far more typical to have a subdivision of 200 to 500 homes (although there are examples of all sizes in between and even smaller).

Following national trends, examples of all of these resources can be found across South Dakota. The state’s building boom following World War II paralleled, for the most part, the building boom that occurred throughout the nation. There are numerous examples of individual homes and groups of homes that exemplify the architectural styles of the time, including neighborhoods full of Minimal Traditional, Minimal Tract, Ranch, and Split-Level houses. In some cases, these neighborhoods represent large projects developed by merchant builders and they illustrate the type of development that occurred in many subdivisions throughout the state’s larger towns and cities. Examples of these neighborhoods include the Oahe Addition in Pierre; the E.J. Leaders and the BelAire Additions in Sioux Falls; and the Hillcrest and Robbinsdale Additions in Rapid City.

There are numerous Quonset huts located throughout South Dakota. As a building type, they were quickly adapted for uses other than residential and today, many of them are located on farms (used for machine sheds and storage) or in towns where they serve to house various industrial and commercial businesses. Those that were moved to college campuses to house veterans and their families in the late 1940s are long gone. Undoubtedly, there must be examples
of Quonset huts that were converted to private family homes that are still in existence somewhere in South Dakota today.

An early Quonset hut in Brookings still used for commercial purposes.

Trailer parks are also numerous throughout the state, although it is not known at this time if any retain integrity from the historic period - it is likely that there are some that do. It may be rare, however, to find individual trailers (in those parks) from the postwar period that have historic integrity. It is more probable that if trailers from the 1940s and 1950s are extant, they may be located on private property as individual homes rather than located with trailer parks.

A number of prefabricated, wood-framed houses were erected throughout South Dakota’s communities. Further research is needed to determine where they were built and which, if any, are extant. In Rapid City, for example, the Gambles store erected a prefab house at St. Patrick and 8th Streets (demolished) and the Knecht Lumber Company erected one as a model home (at 1713 5th Street) and made five more available to private buyers (all six are extant).

At least 38 Lustron houses are known to have been constructed in South Dakota, including two in Pierre, two in Watertown, two in Miller, three in Rapid City, nine in Sioux Falls, five in Mitchell, three in Mobridge, three in Martin, and one each in Tyndall, Wakonda, Redfield, Chamberlain, and near Vivian. A number of them are listed on the National Register, including the Lustron district in Mitchell.
Basement houses were also fairly common in South Dakota and examples can be found in many communities. Many of them had structures built on top (as was the original intent), although there are a substantial number of them that never did and they continue to be used as basement houses. Newspaper reports indicate that there were at least 75 basement houses constructed in Aberdeen in the years following the war, and there are numerous examples in Rapid City. They were also common in smaller towns – several were built in Canton and have been documented in a Master’s thesis project at the University of Oregon.

COMMERCIAL RESOURCES

Commercial architecture following the war embraced the bold new concepts of postwar period. Commerce flourished as Americans became more consumer-minded. Several existing businesses chose to capitalize on the opportunities by building new buildings rather than updating their existing ones. Commercial resources of the postwar period include office buildings, banks, specialty and department stores, restaurants, automobile showrooms and dealerships, service stations, and motels.

Immediately following the war, new commercial buildings were generally located in the established commercial centers, such as downtowns, and consisted of freestanding buildings that followed the Modern stylistic trend and were constructed with modern materials. By the end of
the 1950s, however, new commercial construction was usually located in the new suburbs and expanding subdivisions at the edges of towns and cities.

Supermarkets and shopping centers were developed, often at the crossroad of new highways and major roadways leading to new suburbs and subdivisions. The switch to self-service shopping, coupled with more personal money for spending and an increased use of automobiles, led developers of shopping complexes to focus their designs on maximizing the number of shoppers. Layout of the shopping center was key, parking was critical, and signage was important, but architectural style was nearly irrelevant. Even so, most shopping centers and supermarkets of the period fit within the Modern style (Baker & Funaro, 10). Only a handful of shopping centers existed prior to World War II; by 1958, the number had grown to 2900 (and by 1964, jumped to 7600). Initially these shopping centers were small strip malls; but the small malls soon gave way to large shopping centers. Enclosed malls date from 1956 when the Southdale Center opened in Edina, Minnesota (Palen, 193-194). By the mid-1950s, supermarket design had been largely standardized and it became more important to create an outward appearance that would grab the attention of the customer. Utilitarian exteriors of these buildings gave way to more dramatic roof shapes, the use of canopies and large signage – an example of the “Exaggerated Modernism” (Liebs, 132).

With the increased use of the automobile and the construction of new highways and access roads, came the development of new roadside services, including restaurants, motels and service stations. The roadside restaurant “came into its own” during the postwar period in the form of the drive-in restaurant (Jakle, 105). Drive-ins, which existed in small numbers prior to World
War II, experienced a huge boom during the postwar years in large part due to the increased number of automobiles and the expanding suburbs. Chains such as A&W tripled in size, from 450 outlets in 1950 to 1,400 outlets by 1957; Dairy Queen went from 17 outlets in 1946 to 1,400 outlets in 1950 and 2,500 by 1953 (Langdon, 67-68).

By 1950, drive-in restaurants as a building type tended to have common characteristics - most notably a canopy (usually made of metal) under which parked cars could be protected from rain or sun. While some chains were not concerned with a consistent image of the buildings selling their products (A&W was concerned only with the use of their logo at drive-ins using their rootbeer syrup), most franchise chains “sought distinctive architectural decoration to stimulate customer recognition through brand consciousness and brand loyalty” (Jakle, 106). Drive-in architecture of the postwar period rebelled against the styles of the 1930s. Designers employed a wide array of elements called “Exaggerated Modern” in their efforts to create a unique image. Buildings had hard edges and unusual angles, made use of new building materials and bright color combinations, and used lettering on signage that was expressive and free-form (Heimann, 93). The slow demise of the drive-in began in the 1950s, just as they were extremely popular. By the late 1950s, they had fallen in disfavor, in part due to competition from “fast food” restaurants.

“Fast food” was introduced in December 1948, when the McDonald’s Drive-In in San Bernadino, California, became a self-service drive-up with a limited and rigidly standardized menu. The McDonald brothers had operated a drive-in for a number of years, but faced with increasing labor costs and shrinking profits chose to change to this new format. After a slow acceptance, this model became extremely successful and by 1952 and the brothers began to offer a franchise program. The brothers knew the key to a successful franchise was recognition, so they developed the red-and-white candy-striped, tiled building with a pair of golden arches – a very sleek and modern look (Landgon, 84-87). McDonald’s quickly became the most recognized restaurant in the industry. As chain restaurants (drive-ins and drive-ups) proliferated, most adopted a standardized architecture in an effort to create a highly visible image (Langdon, 94).

Coffee shops were another type of restaurant that experienced success in the postwar period. Popularized in California in the late 1940s and early 1950s, they became a nationwide phenomenon in the late 1950s. Coffee shops were often characterized by roofs that dominated the skyline and wide expanses of plate glass windows, lots of formica, the use of booths in addition to tables and counters, and lots of light. The most extreme of the designs was sometimes referred to as “Googie” architecture, named after the Googie coffee shop in West Hollywood (Langdon, 113-118).

Another roadside service that saw great changes following World War II was the motel. The modern motel grew out of cottage courts, which were arranged around a courtyard in the 1920s, to a line of cottages linked to form a continuous façade in the early to mid-1940s. These cottage courts evolved into motor courts by the late 1940s, where the room units were totally integrated under a single roofline, often in one single-story building. The word “motel” came into fashion by the 1950s and motel construction experienced rapid growth in wake of increased auto ownership, the new highway programs, and a 1954 Tax Code that made motel construction and
ownership highly favorable. The small, one-story motels of the early to mid-1950s evolved into larger, multi-story facilities in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Generally referred to as “motor inns,” these new motels were typically a complex of buildings arranged around a courtyard that focused on a swimming pool, and often offered amenities such as a full-service restaurant and a cocktail lounge. Small businessmen dominated the industry until the 1950s, when chains became popular (Jakle, 171-183).

The Lazy-U Motel, Rapid City, built 1957.

The increased use in automobiles after the war would not have been possible without facilities to sell and service them. Once the war ended and rationing of gasoline and rubber for tires ceased, Americans began to drive with a passion. In 1941, gas station sales were 3.5 billion gallons; by 1951, this consumption had nearly tripled (Margolies, 84).

By the end of the war, the nation’s automobile fleet was aging and associated with the “old” times. Americans, buoyed by their optimism and penchant for all things “modern,” wanted to buy new autos, and they had the financial ability to do so. Automobile dealers wasted no time in setting up new shops – especially along the new highways and near new shopping centers in the new suburbs. New buildings were designed for “speed-reading” from the roadways – allowing potential customers a view of the new models of autos through glass-fronted showrooms. With the ability to spread out in these new locations, these buildings were usually one story with a central showroom, a service wing, a parts department, and often a used car lot. Stylistically, they exemplified Modernism and took full advantage of using new materials in their construction (Liebs, 88-89).

Also taking advantage of the growing automobile industry and the expansion into suburbs and along new highways were the service station companies. In the late 1940s, service stations maintained their “shiny” images with continued use of porcelain enameled wall surfaces, but the
styles evolved from those of the 1930s and early 1940s, to a more “modern” style with clean lines, aluminum accents, and glass fronts. “Service” was an important part of the service station, and most were designed to provide a variety of services in addition to gasoline sales, including mechanic services that required garage bays, small offices/lobbies/showrooms for the sale of tires and accessories, and restrooms. Designs were standardized by company, which provided for brand recognition by customers. By the late-1950s, many companies revamped their designs to a more stripped down, functional style that blended in better with surrounding suburban architecture. New stations were constructed of inexpensive concrete block and canopies again became important (they had been discontinued in the late 1930s and early 1940s). Although the designs were still standardized, there was a shift in using signage for brand recognition instead of the buildings themselves (Margolies, 84-87).

In South Dakota, there are several examples of commercial resources from the Post-World War II period, most of which followed the national trends in architecture. Office buildings, banks, specialty and department stores, restaurants and drive-ins, automobile showrooms and dealerships, service stations, and motels were constructed across the state in communities small and large.

A limited number of examples include in Rapid City - the Sears, Roebuck & Co. Building (1946), the Gambles Building (1947), the Black Hills Oldsmobile showroom (1946), the Securities Acceptance Corp. Building (c.1953), the Stoltz Building (1950), the Robbinsdale Shopping Center (1953), and the Lazy-U Motel (1957). And in Sioux Falls, examples include the Hilltop Drug Store (c.1950), Dakota Farm Equipment building in Sioux Falls (1948), Northwest Auto Bank in Sioux Falls (1949), National Bank of SD South Branch Building in Sioux Falls (1951), Western Surety Company in Sioux Falls (1957).

GOVERNMENT RESOURCES

Government resources include buildings associated with the operation of city, state, and national governments such as city halls, state capitol and office buildings, fire stations, post offices, courthouses, and public works. Buildings of these types were constructed through the country during the postwar period and, as with residential and commercial buildings, their architecture moved from the traditional to the modern and they were constructed with materials used during that time period.

In South Dakota, there are examples of government-related resources constructed during the postwar period. These include a new city hall and fire station in Lake Andes (1949), a new Municipal Building (city hall) in Rapid City (1955), two new state office buildings in Pierre (the Foss Building in 1950; the Anderson Building in 1956), and a number of buildings associated with public works, including a municipal light and power plant in Winner (1949), a waterworks plant in Roscoe (1947), a sewage treatment plant in Waubay (1947), and office buildings for Black Hills Power & Light Company in Rapid City (1946-47), Montana-Dakota Utilities Company in Rapid City (1956), and the East River Electric Company in Madison (1951).
A number of large public works projects were undertaken in South Dakota following the war. The most notable, perhaps, are the dams constructed on the Missouri River. They included the Ft. Randall Dam (constructed 1946-1954), the Oahe Dam (constructed 1948-1963), the Gavins Point Dam (construction completed in 1957), and the Big Bend Dam (built between 1959 and 1964). Smaller projects were also completed during this time period, including the construction of Angostura Dam, Shade Hill Dam and Pactola Dam (all in western South Dakota). Further information about the Missouri River Dams can be found in the National Register nominations for the dams.

![The Joe Foss Office Building, Pierre, built 1950.](image)

**EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES**

The years between 1945 and 1960 saw thousands of new educational facilities constructed throughout the country. Colleges and universities built new classrooms, labs, libraries, dormitories, and family housing to accommodate the huge numbers of veterans (and their families) who chose to take advantage of the GI Bill to further their educations after the war. Permanent buildings on many campuses utilized the new architectural styles and materials, although there are some examples around the country where traditional styles were used in keeping with established campus plans. The extreme need for housing resulted in thousands of temporary communities of trailer houses and Quonset huts on campuses; most of these are long gone and have been replaced by more permanent family housing.

By the 1950s, the baby boom produced an increased need for new elementary and junior high/middle schools throughout the nation. New thoughts on building design in the late 1940s resulted in schools that were modern and sleek and unlike the boxy traditional schools of the
past. Elementary schools, especially those in the new suburbs and new subdivisions, were often single-story buildings with wings and gymnasiums/auditoriums surrounded by substantial land to be used for playgrounds and athletic fields. There was extensive use of aluminum windows, glass block, and other new materials. Junior high/middle schools were also modern and used the new materials available for construction.

In South Dakota, dozens of new education-related buildings were constructed between 1945 and 1960. In 1949, Harold Spitznagel was asked to design a new grade school in Belle Fourche; his design was unlike any other school in South Dakota at that time and it became a standard for schools constructed in the state throughout the 1950s.

Miller Grade School, built using the Spitznagel school design.

Several public schools were built, including (but not limited to): the Simmons School in Aberdeen (1955); the Hecla Grade School (1957); the Webster (1951), Lincoln (1951), Grove (1954), and senior high schools in Yankton; the Newell Grade School and Auditorium (1958); Hillcrest School in Brookings (1955); Washington (1954) and Madison (1956) schools in Huron; General Beadle (1949), Canyon Lake (1949), Horace Mann (1952), Lincoln (1951), Meadowbrook (1957), Pinedale (1958), Robbinsdale (1953), South Canyon (1952), and Annie Tallent (now called South Park, 1951) grade schools and West (1955), South (1959), and North (1959) junior high schools (now middle schools) in Rapid City; and Riggs High School in Pierre (1958). In addition to public school buildings, there were also new buildings constructed at private schools, including a new gym (1945), addition to the classroom building and a new chapel (1956), and boys dorm (1957) at St. Joseph’s Indian School; and a new gymnasium at the Cathedral High School in Rapid City (1951).
Several buildings were constructed on South Dakota’s college and university campuses following the war; most followed suit in using Modern architectural styles and materials. At Northern State College in Aberdeen, two new residence halls, Lindberg (1954) and Briscoe (1958), and the original portion of the new Memorial Student Union (1958-60) were built. Also in Aberdeen, a new building was constructed at Presentation College in 1954.

At South Dakota State in Brookings, several new buildings were constructed on campus. These included the Agricultural-Engineering Hall (1958), Agriculture Hall (1949, 1956), Crothers Engineering Hall (1957), the Foundation Seed Conditioning Plant (1955), Harding Hall (1954), the Physiology Laboratory (1949), the Plant Science Building (1955), the Printing & Journalism Building (1951), the Agronomy Building (1948), the Animal Disease Building (1949), the Horticulture Greenhouse (1949), the Beef Barn (1951), the Swine Barn (1952), the Poultry Building (1947), and the Crop and Seed Services Building (1947). Two new dormitories, Brown Hall for men and Waneta Hall for women, opened for occupancy in the fall of 1960.

There were also a number of new buildings on the University of South Dakota campus in Vermillion. These included a new Law Library (1950), the Lee Medical and Science Building (1954), the School of Business (now Patterson Hall, 1957), Charlotte Noteboom Hall (a women’s dorm, 1954), Julian Hall Addition (a men’s dorm, 1958), Danforth Chapel (1954), Grace Burgess Hall (1960), the Science Center (1960), and a new power and heating plant (1950).

At the South Dakota School of Mines and Technology in Rapid City, Connolly Hall (a men’s dorm, 1947), the Civil-Mechanical Engineering Building (1951), the Chemistry-Chemical Engineering Building (1957), and March-Dake Hall (1959; demolished 2005), and the Mineral Industries Building (1960) were constructed following the war.
Agricultural Hall, South Dakota State University, 1949, 1956.

School of Business (now Patterson Hall), University of South Dakota, 1957
In Springfield, the Normal School got a new power plant (1949), a new men’s dorm (1957), and a new armory (1958). A new armory (1958), an Industrial Arts Building (1958), and portions of a new student union (started in 1958), were constructed at Black Hills State in Spearfish.

A number of buildings were also constructed at Augustana College in Sioux Falls between 1950 and 1959. These included Solberg Hall (men’s dorm), Tuve Hall (women’s dorm), Mikkelson Memorial Library, and the Augustana Commons.

RELIGIOUS RESOURCES

Churches were built by the hundreds throughout the country in the 1940s and 1950s. The new optimism that swept the country was carried into the churches and religious communities. As the population grew, so did the size of many congregations, in some cases resulting in the need for larger facilities. Many Americans chose to share some of their newfound wealth with their churches and soon new buildings were being constructed.

Religious buildings constitute one resource type that did not automatically embrace the modern architectural styles, although most were constructed with modern materials. It was not uncommon for churches built in the 1940s and early 1950s to employ traditional styles, perhaps most frequently the Gothic Revival style. Some churches of this period were actually designed in what might be considered a transitional style that included traditional elements, such as Gothic-arched openings, but in a sleek, stripped down form with little applied ornamentation. Other churches boldly embraced the new styles, which they adapted to new building forms.

In South Dakota, dozens of new churches were built between 1945 and 1960. Stylistically, they range from traditional to Modern and include examples of some that might be considered transitional. Most made use of the modern materials available at that time.

There are several examples of new churches in South Dakota. In Aberdeen, they include the First Assembly of God (1947), Zion Lutheran (1952), Our Saviour Lutheran (basement completed in 1949, building in 1956), and Trinity Evangelical Lutheran (1957). In Pierre, the new Latter Day Saints chapel was built in 1957 and the Church of Christ was built in 1960. Mt. Olivet Mennonite Church was constructed in Huron in 1959. In Sioux Falls, the Eastside Lutheran Church (1950) and the First Baptist Church (1951) are examples. In Rapid City, examples include Trinity Lutheran (1946), Zion Lutheran (1951), First Presbyterian (1952), Faith Lutheran (1957), and First United Methodist (1958). The First Lutheran Church was built in Mitchell in 1950.

New churches were also constructed in smaller towns around the state. Examples include the First Presbyterian Church (1949) and St. John’s Lutheran Church (1958) in Wolsey; Grace Evangelic Lutheran Church (1950) in Burke; St. Joseph’s Catholic Church (1950) in Wessington Springs; the Church of God (1948), the Baptist Church (1950), and the United Methodist Church (1959) in Eureka; St. Francis of Assisi (1950; rectory 1954) in Sturgis; St. John the Baptist Church (1950) in Custer; the American Lutheran Church (1952) in Milbank; Zion
Lutheran (1949), First Baptist (1956), United Church of Christ (1957), and Trinity Lutheran (1958) churches in Chamberlain; and in Winner, the Church of the Immaculate Conception (1949; rectory 1958, parish hall 1959) and the United Methodist Church (1956).

FUNERARY RESOURCES

There was a national trend in cemetery development following the war; it is likely that some of this shift occurred in South Dakota as well. The biggest change was the movement toward memorial lawn type cemeteries where the markers were flush with the ground rather than with traditional headstone and monuments. Although this style of cemetery pre-dates World War II, it was not a style that was widely used until the mid-20th century. Although this project did not examine cemeteries as a specific resource type, it is likely that there are examples of these cemeteries in South Dakota that were platted between 1945 and 1960.

There is one cemetery of note from this time period. The Black Hills National Cemetery was created in 1949 when the Veterans’ Administration determined a need to provide additional burial space for veterans following World War II and the two existing cemeteries (near Ft. Meade and near Battle Mountain Sanatorium) were already closed for new burials (with the exception of eligible family members). The Black Hills National Cemetery is located on the south side of Interstate 90 just east of Sturgis. It continues to be an active cemetery and by 2007, there were an estimated 20,000 burials on the grounds.
RECREATIONAL AND CULTURAL RESOURCES

Better wages and shorter work weeks, along with technological advances that automated many chores in the household, meant an increase in leisure time and the financial ability to enjoy it. The 1940s and 1950s saw the creation of many new recreational and cultural resources. These included theaters, auditoriums, sports facilities, parks, and works of art. A number of these new resources were geared towards tourism as Americans continued to take to the roads in their new automobiles.

America’s love of the automobile led to a boom in drive-in theaters in the 1940s and 1950s. The first drive-in theater opened in New Jersey in 1933 and by the end of World War II, there were only about 50 drive-ins in the country. The postwar period brought great expansion in the industry – by 1950, there were more than 1700 drive-ins nationwide. The overall form of the drive-in was fairly consistent throughout the industry – rows of parking spaces, punctuated with metal stands on which the speakers sat, were usually set on a slight incline to maximize views through windshields and arranged in a semi-circular pattern facing a large screen. The projection house sat behind the parking rows and usually doubled as a concession stand and restroom facility. With the exception of some technological advancement and minor variations in construction, the drive-in theater’s form changed little over the years. When Cinemascope was introduced in the mid-1950s, screens became wider. Stylistically, drive-ins employed different approaches to “glitz” to attract customers often seen in the form of bold signage and stylized ticket booths (Liebs, 153-163).

Outdoor recreation facilities grew in numbers as the American public found more time to enjoy the outdoors. Baseball fields were built, parks were developed, and after the polio outbreaks of the late 1940s were resolved, swimming pools were installed throughout the country’s towns and cities.

Indoor recreation also grew in importance and several communities built auditoriums and gymnasiums to house activities such as basketball games. One type of indoor recreation that experienced exponential growth in the 1950s was that of bowling. During the war, the military installed more than 4500 bowling lanes on military bases as a form of recreation for soldiers. For many, this was their first exposure to the sport. After the war, many veterans wanted to continue to bowl and to accommodate the activity, hundreds of bowling alleys were constructed. New technology, such as the automatic pinspotter, introduced in 1952, advanced the sport, as did its televised tournaments, which were seen in family living rooms throughout the country. The Professional Bowling Association was started in 1958. The architecture of bowling alleys was not unlike that of other commercial enterprises of the period. Buildings were modern and constructed of modern materials.

Tourism and recreation went hand-in-hand and to entice tourists to visit their communities, a number of cities and towns developed what might best be called novelty recreation. This included the creation of theme and amusement parks, the most famous example of which is Disneyland, which opened in the summer of 1955.
In South Dakota, a number of recreational and cultural resources were constructed following the war. Dozens of drive-in movie theaters were erected throughout the state, a small number of which continue to operate today. Examples include the Midway Drive-In (1953, near Miller), the Starlite Drive-In (1949, near Mitchell), the Winner Drive-In (1950, just east of Winner), the Pheasant Drive-In (1960, near Mobridge), and the Hilltop Drive-In (1946, west of Gregory). Others are still extant, standing as relics of the times, but are no longer used. These include the PIX Drive-In (west of Winner) and the Siskota (at Sisseton).

![Winner Drive-In, built 1950.](image)

South Dakota experienced an epidemic outbreak of polio in the late 1940s, so it was not until the 1950s the towns built swimming pools (which were considered health risks for spreading the disease). Examples of swimming pools built during the 1950s include the Prairie Veterans Memorial Pool in Aberdeen (1955) and two pools in Rapid City (Southside in 1956; Westside in 1957).

At least one city built a new ballpark – the municipal baseball park in Aberdeen was constructed in 1952.

New indoor facilities for a variety of recreational purposes were constructed in a number of South Dakota communities. One of the largest was the Huron Arena, built in 1950 (designed by Spitznagel). New auditoriums were built in Highmore (1951), Clear Lake (1953), and Lemmon (1956). The Sioux Falls Arena (also designed by Spitznagel) was constructed in 1960.
One of the new recreational facilities that found favor following the war was the bowling alley. Although the history of bowling can be traced to ancient times, its increased popularity in America and South Dakota dates to the period following the war. During the war, the military built more than 4500 bowling alleys on bases as a major source of recreation. A countless number of servicemen and women were exposed to the game and after returning from the war, sought to have bowling alleys in their communities. Bowling alleys in South Dakota towns ranged from a few lanes to large facilities with several lanes, a number of which had coffee shops or restaurants. There are dozens of bowling alleys in South Dakota, undoubtedly some date to the period between 1945 and 1960. One example is the Robbinsdale Lanes in Rapid City, built in the late 1950s.

South Dakota was not without its novelty recreation. In 1957, the 1880 Train began operation between the towns of Keystone and Hill City and in 1959, the Rotary Club in Rapid City built Storybook Island (substantially altered in 1973-74 following the flood). There may be other examples as well.

Perhaps one of the most significant pieces of sculpture in South Dakota was started in 1948, when Korczak Ziolkowski began work on the Crazy Horse Memorial near Custer. Another important piece of art was also created by Ziolkowski, when he sculpted the Sitting Bull Monument (near Mobridge) in 1953.
AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES

Most postwar changes in the area of agriculture were technological rather than architectural. As farms became more mechanized and specialized, existing farm buildings were often adapted to meet the changing needs of the 1940s and 1950s. A substantial number of Quonset huts found their way to farms to be used as machine sheds and storage sheds where older buildings and structures could not be adapted; this signaled the introduction of metal buildings and structures used for barns, sheds and grain storage during the last decades of the 20th century.

Although the total number of farms in South Dakota dropped following the war, the families that continued to farm often upgraded their homes as well as the outbuildings. New farm houses built during this period were stylistically consistent with the new houses being constructed in the towns and cities. A number of new Ranch style farm houses were constructed – in many cases with the first-ever indoor plumbing on the farms, made possible with the introduction of electricity in the rural areas which could in turn provide power for well pumps.

INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES

The postwar period found an increase in industrial resources as several industries expanded operations and new industries were begun. As was typical prior to the war, many industrial buildings were utilitarian in nature rather than examples of high style architecture. The Modern architecture of the postwar period, however, lent itself to the nature of industrial architecture and a number of companies built plants that displayed elements of these styles. The use of the new construction materials and techniques, however, was a given as industrial buildings were optimal environments for materials such as aluminum, steel, and glass block.

Industrial expansion in South Dakota following the war paralleled that of the country. A number of existing businesses expanded their operations and built new facilities. Examples include the new Metz Baking Company plants in Huron and Watertown (both c.1946), the new Nash-Finch Company warehouse in Aberdeen (1954), and the new Manchester Biscuit Company building in Aberdeen (1953). Other new industries were created, perhaps most notably was the defense industry with the conversion of the Rapid City Army Air Base to the Ellsworth Air Force Base. The base was greatly expanded in the late 1940s and throughout the 1950s (and again in the 1960s with the introduction of the Minuteman Missile program).

HEALTHCARE RESOURCES

Healthcare following World War II saw major changes in America. Prior to the war, healthcare in urban areas was primarily provided by individual physicians, small specialty clinics and hospitals; in rural area, healthcare was generally considered inadequate and relied on small town doctors with limited clinics and hospitals. Following the war, a number of changes took place that changed how healthcare was provided throughout the country. The first major changed was
the technology – not only were there new instruments and machines that could be used to improve illness diagnosis and treatment, but a number of new drugs became available for widespread use, including penicillin – a very important antibiotic which changes infection treatment for all times. The second major change that occurred was the introduction of healthcare insurance (group and individual policies), which by the 1960s had become the standard way of conducting the financial end of healthcare business. In response to the new ways of providing healthcare, existing facilities were often modernized and new facilities were constructed. In keeping with the theme of modernization, the architecture of new facilities (as well as additions to older facilities) was usually Modern in style and made use of the modern materials of the period.

In South Dakota, improvement of healthcare after the war was significant. A number of existing hospitals were modernized and enlarged and a number of new hospitals were constructed, most following national trends stylistically as Modern architecture and using modern materials. Examples of these include St. Luke’s Hospital in Aberdeen (1947), the Veterans’ Administration Hospital in Sioux Falls (1948), Burke Community Hospital (1948), Spink County Hospital in Redfield (c.1949), Rosebud Hospital in Winner (1950), Chamberlain Hospital (1951), a large addition to St. John’s Hospital in Rapid City (1953), Bennett Clarkson Hospital in Rapid City (1954), St. John’s Memorial Hospital in Huron (1956), and the Five Counties Hospital in Lemmon (1956).

Appropriations for the State Hospital at Yankton more than doubled between 1946 and 1950 and several new buildings were constructed on the hospital grounds. These included Edmunds Hall (rooms and apartments for employees, 1950), the East Wing (to house the admissions ward and 100 male patients, 1951), the West Wing (to house 115 female patients, 1952), the Hospital Building (1954), and a new chapel (1959).

Modern nursing homes were also constructed during this time period. One example is the Clarkson Nursing Home in Rapid City (c.1955). Vermillion had the first nursing home in the nation under the Hill-Burton Act, which authorized Federal aid for construction of nursing care facilities. This nursing home was the Dakota Nursing Home, built in 1957.
TRANSPORTATION RESOURCES

World War II brought great changes to the transportation industry as autos and airplanes became the preferred means of travel. The railroad became less favored and in many parts of the country, passenger service ceased to exist by the 1950s. The shipment of freight also changed as the trucking and airline industries grew; railroads, although they could transport large shipments, declined in use as trucks could transport goods to areas not services by rail.

The increased use of autos and trucks required new roadways and bridges to accommodate the increased traffic. Thousands of miles of roads were improved (often paved) and bigger and stronger bridges were built. In addition, new facilities to service the traveler were required and an entire new generation of roadside services was developed. New warehouses and transfer facilities to service freight transport were also required and hundreds of new buildings and structures were built to accommodate the trucking industry. New aircraft and the creation of new airlines resulted in the need for more and larger airport facilities, including terminals, hangars and runways, that could accommodate both passenger and freight needs. Modern transport dictated modern facilities – most new buildings were constructed of new materials in Modern architectural styles.

Perhaps the most notable advancement in transportation during this period was the implementation of the interstate highway system. The first segment of the federal interstate
highway system opened in Kansas in December 1956; the final segment of the system was completed in the 1990s.

In South Dakota, transportation advances followed the national trends. Auto and air transport (both passenger and freight) grew as did the facilities to support the shift; rail transport declined. Some airports were either expanded and modernized or built new; many of them are no longer used due to the reduction in the number of air transport companies serving the state, as well as the centralization of larger airlines in the urban areas. Roadside services to accommodate auto travelers were developed along many highways during the 1940s and 1950s. With the construction of Interstate 90, which began in the late 1950s, however, a number of the services ceased to exist as the limited-access highway put them out of business in the 1960s and 1970s. As the trucking industry grew, however, a number of new buildings were built to serve the freight industry. Many of these buildings are still in use today and can be found in a number of South Dakota’s larger towns and cities. One example is the Buckingham Trucking warehouse in Rapid City (c.1955).

SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS AND SOCIAL MOVEMENT RESOURCES

Americans during the postwar period continued their interest in fraternal and social organizations and social welfare movements. As a result, a number of new facilities were constructed to house their various activities. Perhaps the most frequently built resources of the time, however, were new Veterans of Foreign Wars (VFW) buildings. The American Legion also saw a number of new facilities built after the war. The improved economics of the country also led long-standing organizations, such as Masonic Lodges, to build new and improved facilities or expand into communities where there had never been a lodge. Most of the lodge buildings constructed in the 1940s and 1950s would fall within the architectural category of Modernism, although some were simple buildings with no architectural consideration and would best be described as utilitarian.

In addition to fraternal and social organizations, a number of social welfare movements aimed at providing services of disenfranchised children and families continued in the country following the war. Some of these organizations constructed buildings and depending on their usage, they may have been architecturally designed.

In South Dakota, a new Veterans’ Memorial Building was constructed in Aberdeen in 1950, a new Masonic Lodge was built in Lake Andres in 1951, and a new VFW building was constructed in Pierre in 1956.

On the front of social movements, the Children’s Home was built in Mitchell in 1949 and the Mother Butler Center in Rapid City was opened in 1949. In 1950, the Mother Butler Center obtained a large Quonset hut, which was moved to the facility site; in 1954, a dormitory was built to house women from the reservations who were working or studying in Rapid City (the entire complex of buildings was destroyed in the 1972 flood).
DEFENSE-RELATED RESOURCES

Following World War II, defense resources grew in importance in light of the Cold War. Although there was a scaling back of facilities that had been involved in the war-production industries and the closure of a number of military bases, the need to continue America’s “arms race” resulted in the construction of new and modern defense facilities. These facilities included new armories, located in several towns and cities and in some cases, on college campuses, and military installations, such as air bases.

In South Dakota, most of the small training bases around the state were closed following the war. The largest military facility in the state was the Rapid City Army Air Base, which was established in 1942 to train B-17 crews. Following the war, the air base closed for several months, but was reinstated in March 1947 as the 28th Bombardment Wing (flying B-29s) of the United State Air Force. The airbase was renamed Ellsworth and was involved in the production and custody of nuclear weapons. A nuclear weapons storage facility was completed in 1952; two “A” storage buildings (1952, 1955) were massive concrete structures; a “C” structure (1952) served as an inspection lab. Twenty-seven earth-covered concrete igloos served as storage facilities, and eleven “super-igloos” were built in 1954. Between 1948 and 1956, thirteen weapon storage areas were built. In 1952, a low level radioactive burial site was developed; a larger site was created in 1955 (Larson 1997). Ellsworth AFB also became known for its Minuteman Missile program which started in the 1960s.

Perhaps one of the most unusual defense resources in South Dakota was the Groton Coast Guard Station, constructed in 1945-1946. Interestingly, the building was architecturally designed with a classic Georgian façade and included a small portico over the front door. It was constructed of red brick and included a two-story section with sleeping quarters and storage and a single-story section for operations. The station was one of only two inland Coast Guard Stations in the country (the other was near Hutchinson, Kansas). It served as a high-frequency finder station (nicknamed “Huff Duff”) to assist in the location of ships and submarines.
EVALUATING HISTORIC RESOURCES

Evaluation is the process by which the significance of identified resources is determined within its historic context. Because age alone is insufficient grounds for historic designation, evaluation of historic resources is based on architectural, historical and/or cultural significance. As resources associated with this context are surveyed, they should be evaluated for significance and integrity and should be classified according to appropriate rating or ranking systems.

Generally speaking, a resource must be at least 50 years of age to be considered historic. The National Register of Historic Places makes exceptions for “younger” resources, but the exceptions are stringent and based on truly exceptional quality or importance of a resource.

Criteria for evaluation are set forth in the National Register of Historic Places guidelines (see National Register Bulletin: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation). These criteria address the significance and integrity of historic resources, including buildings, structures, sites, objects and districts. In addition to the National Register guidelines, local communities may have additional criteria for evaluating resources located within their jurisdictions. It is advisable to check with the local planning office to determine if there are additional criteria to be used for evaluating a resource in that community.

Significance and integrity, as they pertain to this context, are discussed in the following sections, as is the process of rating or ranking resources.

SIGNIFICANCE

The National Register criteria recognize that historic resources may have associative value, design or construction value, or informational value. When evaluated within its historic 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

The resource is associated with an event (or events) and/or with a pattern of events or historic trend(s) that has made a significant contribution to the history of a community, the state, or the nation; or

Criterion B: Person(s)

The person(s) associated with the resource is (are) individually significant and made demonstrated contributions to the history of a community, the state, or the nation; and the resource is associated with the person(s)’s productive life, reflecting the time period in which he or she achieved significance; or

Criterion C: Design/Construction
The resource embodies distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; and/or the resource represents the work of a master; and/or the resource possesses high artistic value; or the resource represents a significant and distinguished entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

**Criterion D: Information Potential**

The resource has yielded information important to history or prehistory; or the resource may be likely to yield information important to history or prehistory (this criterion is most commonly applied to archaeological sites).

All resources associated with postwar construction in South Dakota share a common associative attribute in that they were built during the post-World War II construction boom that swept the country and the state between 1945 and 1960. Generally speaking, for resources evaluated in association with this context, construction would have been begun after V-J Day, August 15, 1945 (the official end of the war) and would have been substantially complete by 1960.

All resources eligible for the National Register under this context will be significant under Criterion A. They are important for their direct association with an unprecedented period of growth in South Dakota’s history, the postwar building boom that affected the social history and the economics of the country and the state for decades to follow.

In addition to significance in the categories of social history and economics, many resources may also be eligible under another category of significance reflective of the property’s original function. For example, a retail shopping center may be eligible under the category of commerce or a school may be eligible under the category of education.

A number of resources may also be eligible under Criterion B. To be considered eligible in this context, the resource must be associated with the person’s productive life and it must be shown that the person gained importance within his or her profession or group during the postwar period. The resource must also represent the most important property associated with the person, or be the last remaining property associated with that person, to be considered eligible. Resources in this category may be of local, state, or national significance. If the person is an architect, artist or engineer, the property may be eligible under Criterion C.

Resources within this context that clearly embody distinctive characteristics associated with postwar construction may be considered eligible under Criterion C. Distinctive characteristics include the use of Modern architectural styles, including (but not limited to) the International Style, the Ranch Style, and the Minimal Traditional or Minimal Tract style. In addition the use of modern building materials, such as aluminum, concrete, and glass, should be considered an important distinctive characteristic, although resources constructed with traditional building materials should not be discounted if they demonstrate the embodiment of other distinctive characteristics of the time. In addition, if a resource 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.

Resources 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 post-World War II construction in South Dakota.

There are certain types of resources that usually are not considered eligible for listing on the National Register. These include properties owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes, resources removed from their original locations, birthplace, graves and cemeteries, reconstructed resources, commemorative properties, and those that have achieved significance with the past 50 years. If a resource falls within any of these categories, it must meet the National Register Criteria Considerations (in addition to meeting regular requirements) to be considered eligible. Generally speaking, to be considered eligible in this instance, a resource will be required to derive its significance for architectural distinction or exceptional historic importance. For example, a church may be considered eligible if its significance is due to its architectural distinction. [Details about the Criteria Considerations can be found in the National Register bulletins.]

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

Resources constructed as part of a larger complex generally 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 individually 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 individually eligible 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, depending in part on the resource type.

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 integrity. The reverse may be true when a resource is in good condition but may have lost a good 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 to be considered eligible for the National Register. The use of condition as a criterion for evaluation, however, may be useful when deciding which resources to protect and 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 aspects of integrity:

1) Location: Because the relationship between a resource and its historic associations is usually destroyed if the resource is moved, it is most desirable that the resource remain in its original location. If the resource has been moved from its original location it must meet Criteria Consideration B for moved properties as indicated in the National Register guidelines.

2) Design: A resource should retain a combination of elements that conveys 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 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 or door openings may render a building ineligible if the alterations significantly change the wall-to-opening ratio. The filling of openings, if the original openings are 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. Original surface materials should remain intact. The type, amount and style of ornamentation must reflect the original design.

3) Setting: The physical environment in which the resource exists should reflect its historic features, including topography, vegetation, simple constructed features, and the relationship between the resource and its surroundings. Natural and created landscape features should be evaluated for significance in relation to the resource.
(4) Materials: A resource must retain the key materials dating from the period of its historic significance. 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: A resource must retain the physical evidence of workmanship.

(6) Feeling: 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: 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.

CRITERIA FOR RATING OR RANKING

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

Individual ratings may be as simple as dividing them into “Eligible” and “Ineligible” categories. To be considered eligible, a resource would need to be determined to be significant within its context and retain sufficient integrity to convey that historic significance. For resources within a district setting, each resource may be rated for its potential to contribute to the district’s significance. Those that are determined to retain a high degree of integrity and can convey the historic significance of the district might be listed simply as “Contributing” while those resources that have been altered or remodeled in ways that have compromised their historic integrity would be listed as “Non-Contributing” in the district.

Some communities have developed their own rating or ranking systems to assist them in determining the relative importance of their historic resources. It is recommended that in evaluating resources associated with this context, that local jurisdictions be contacted to determine if a local system exists for the purposes of rating or ranking resources.
CONCLUSION

The fifteen year period following World War II brought great change to the country and to South Dakota. The years of war, preceded by the years of the Great Depression, had left Americans ready for change and a desire to move forward. And so they did.

Between 1945 and 1960, the country experienced unprecedented growth and opportunity. The period is marked by a tremendous building boom, which affected most cities and towns, including those in South Dakota. It is also marked by a shift to “modern” times as new technologies changed how Americans lived. Millions of new homes were built and equipped with modern conveniences such as electric appliances and televisions. New industry developed to manufacture a wide variety of new goods. New shopping centers with new retail businesses were constructed to meet the growing desires of Americans to spend their new-found wealth. New schools were built to educate the growing number of children resulting from the “baby boom” following the war. New churches were built in the growing communities. “New” was seen as “good” and wherever possible, new buildings were constructed to meet the needs of the new America.

Architecturally, new construction during this period of growth and prosperity was marked by a shift from traditional styles (and their revivals) to a Modern architecture that aimed to leave tradition behind. Buildings were straight-forward in design, with clean lines and no applied ornamentation, and made use of new technology and materials available at that time. Popular building materials included glass, aluminum and concrete.

Following national trends, the postwar architecture in South Dakota also shifted from traditional to Modern. Several architects practicing in the state adopted the new stylistic approach and their designs reflect this shift. Builders and contractors who developed new neighborhoods and built thousands of houses also used the Modern approaches of the period, which favored the Minimal Tract and Ranch style house. Modern architecture was used for almost all building types in the state.

A small number of resources were surveyed in conjunction with this project. There is a need, however, to do further research and survey of South Dakota’s postwar resources. Thousands and thousands of new buildings were constructed in the state between 1945 and 1960 and few have been documented. Unfortunately resources from this time period have not yet been recognized as important links to the state’s history and they are being demolished at an alarming rate. Future study of these resources will aid in identifying those that are worthy of protection as valuable symbols of the postwar period of American optimism and affluence when America arrived in the “modern” times.
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


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## SOUTH DAKOTA POST-WORLD WAR II ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY

### Master List of Sites Surveyed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site #</th>
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MH00001693  Willow Duplex #1  1417/1421 Willow  Sioux Falls  c.1950
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MH00001699  Willow & 22nd Fiveplex  1403 Willow/2001-2009 22nd  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001700  Willow & 22nd Fiveplex Garage  2001 22nd  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001701  22nd St. Duplex  2015/2017 22nd St.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001702  24th St. Duplex  2008/2010 24th St.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001703  Western Duplex #1  1408/1410 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001704  Western Duplex #2  1412/1414 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001705  Western Duplex #3  1416/1418 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001706  Western Duplex #4  1420/1422 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001707  Western Fourplex  1424/1426/1428/1430 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001708  Western Duplex #5  1504/1506 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001709  Western Duplex #5 Garage  1504 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001710  Western Duplex #6  1508/1510 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001711  Western Duplex #6 Garage  1508 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001712  Western Duplex #7  1512/1514 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
MH00001713  Western Duplex #7 Garage  1512 Western Ave.  Sioux Falls  c.1950
PN00000707  South Junior High School  2 Indiana St.  Rapid City  1959
PN00000708  Annie Tallent School  207 Flormann St.  Rapid City  1951
PN00000709  Robbinsdale School  424 E. Indiana St.  Rapid City  1953
PN00000710  Pinedale School  4901 W. Chicago St.  Rapid City  1958
PN00000711  South Canyon School  218 Nordby Lane  Rapid City  1952
PN00000712  Canyon Lake School  1500 Evergreen  Rapid City  1949
PN00000713  Meadowbrook School  3125 W. Flormann  Rapid City  1957
PN00000714  Bennett Clarkson Memorial Hospital  915 Mt. View Dr.  Rapid City  1954
PN00000715  Trinity Lutheran Church  402 Kansas City St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000716  Vic Motors Quonset  516 4th St.  Rapid City  1947
PN00000717  Municipal Building  30 Main St.  Rapid City  1955
PN00000718  Gambles Store  430 Main St.  Rapid City  1947
PN00000329  Sears, Roebuck Store  512 Main St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000254  Oldsmobile-Buick Showroom  601 Kansas City St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000719  Securities Acceptance Corp Building  628 6th St.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000296  Stoltz Building  624/626 6th St.  Rapid City  1950
PN00000720  Lazy-U Motel  2215 Mt. Rushmore Rd.  Rapid City  1957
PN00000721  Robbinsdale Lanes  805 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1960
PN00000722  Robbinsdale Shopping Center  317 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  1953
PN00000723  Robbinsdale Duplex #1  401 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000724  Robbinsdale Duplex #2  409 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000725  Robbinsdale Duplex #3  415 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000726  Robbinsdale Duplex #4  419 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000727  Robbinsdale Duplex #5  423 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000728  Robbinsdale Duplex #6  427 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000729  Robbinsdale Duplex #7  501 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000730  Robbinsdale Duplex #8  507 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000731  Robbinsdale Duplex #9  511 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000732  Robbinsdale Duplex #10  517 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000733  Robbinsdale Duplex #11  521 E. St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1950
PN00000734  Knecht Pre-Fab House #1  1713 5th St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000735  Knecht Pre-Fab House #2  1715 5th St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000736  Knecht Pre-Fab House #3  602 St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000737  Knecht Pre-Fab House #4  606 St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000738  Knecht Pre-Fab House #5  610 St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000739  Knecht Pre-Fab House #6  614 St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  1946
PN00000740  Basement House  634 1/2 St. Patrick St.  Rapid City  c.1946
PN00000741  Bellevue Addition House #1  120 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000742  Bellevue Addition House #2  126 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000743  Bellevue Addition House #3  132 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000744  Bellevue Addition House #4  138 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000745  Bellevue Addition House #5  144 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000746  Bellevue Addition House #6  150 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000747  Bellevue Addition House #7  156 Bellevue Dr.  Rapid City  c.1953
PN00000748  Daisy Dell Drive-In  3939 Canyon Lake Dr.  Rapid City  c.1960
PN00000749  Municipal Water Treatment Plant  1111 Mt. View Dr.  Rapid City  c.1957
PN03100001  Miners Industry Building  SD School of Mines & Technology  Rapid City  1960
PN03100002  Chemisty-Chemical Engineering Building  SD School of Mines & Technology  Rapid City  1957
PN03100003  Civil-Mechanical Engineering Building  SD School of Mines & Technology  Rapid City  1950
PN03100004  Connolly Hall  SD School of Mines & Technology  Rapid City  1947
CH00000266  Ft. Randall Dam Visitors Center  Hwy 18  Pickstown  c.1950
CH00000267  Picktown Clubhouse/Mess Hall  White Swan St.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000268  Picktown Chapel  Abdnor St.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000269  Town Hall/Fire Station  108 Lewis St.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000270  Commercial Building #1  310 White Swan St.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000271  Commercial Building #2  312 White Swan St.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000272  Commercial Building #3  308 James St.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000273  House #1  501 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000274  House #2  503 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000275  House #3  505 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000276  House #4  507 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000277  House #5  509 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000278  House #6  511 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000279  House #7  513 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000280  House #8  515 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000281  House #9  517 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000282  House #10  519 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000283  House #11  521 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000284  House #12  523 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000285  House #13  525 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000286  House #14  527 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000287  House #15  529 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000288  House #16  531 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000289  House #17  533 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000290  House #18  535 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000291  House #19  537 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000292  House #20  539 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000293  House #21  541 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000294  House #22  543 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000295  House #23  545 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000296  House #24  547 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000297  House #25  549 Missouri       Pickstown       1947
CH00000298  Duplex #1  504/506 Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000299  Duplex #2  508/510 Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000300  Duplex #3  512/514 Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000301  Duplex #4  Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000302  Duplex #4 Garage  Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000303  Duplex #5  Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
CH00000304  Duplex #5 Garage  Chapel Dr.       Pickstown       1946
| CH00000305 | Duplex #6 | Chapel Dr. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000306 | Duplex #6 Garage | Chapel Dr. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000307 | Duplex #7 | Spillway & James Sts. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000308 | Duplex #7 Garage | Spillway St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000309 | Duplex #8 | Spillway & James Sts. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000310 | Duplex #9 | 511/513 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000311 | Duplex #10 | 507/509 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000312 | Duplex #10 Garage | 507 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000313 | Duplex #11 | 506/508 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000314 | Duplex #11 Garage | 506 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000315 | Duplex #12 | 503/505 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000316 | Duplex #12 Garage | 503 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000317 | Duplex #13 | 451/453 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000318 | Duplex #14 | 440/442 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000319 | Duplex #14 Garage | 440 James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000320 | Duplex #15 | James & Lewis Sts. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000321 | Duplex #15 Garage | Lewis St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000322 | Garage #1 (10-car) | Chapel Dr. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000323 | Garage #2 (8-car) | Chapel Dr. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000324 | Garage #3 (12-car) | James St. | Pickstown | 1946 |
|CH00000325 | Garage #4 (4-car) | Spillway Dr. | Pickstown | 1946 |